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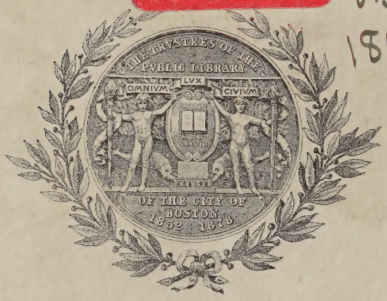

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 3, 1890.

The Week.

THE Republican trouble over Quay grows more interesting as time goes on. The interest reached its highest point at the Republican Convention in Pennsylvania last week. That Quay on two occasions stole a very large amount of money from the State Treasury not only is true, but has not been denied by him or anybody on his behalf. There are witnesses to the fact of the highest respectability, whose silence during the past three months is almost as good testimony as their oral evidence in court would be. Nevertheless, the Convention has met and nominated Quay's man for the Governorship—and he too has a little stock of imperfections on his head—and the Committee on Resolutions then proceeded to deal with Quay's personal troubles. In the first draught of the platform which was given to the Associated Press as certain to be adopted, they said:

"For the Chairman of our National Committee, Mr. Quay, we feel a lasting sense of gratitude for his matchless services in the last Presidential campaign, and commend his bearing under the slanders which his successful leadership of our party has purchased for him. As a citizen, a member of the General Assembly, *as Secretary of the Commonwealth under two successive Administrations, as State Treasurer by the overwhelming suffrages of his fellow-citizens, and as Senator of the United States, he has won and retains our respect and confidence.*"

His "bearing under the slanders" was simply standing silent under a charge of personal dishonesty supported by reputable and well-known witnesses. Fancy a great political party "commending" a leader for his departure from the customs of honorable men in every civilized community. This was, indeed, subsequently considered a little too strong, so the Quay plank was shifted from the beginning to the end of the platform, and all reference to "slanders" was omitted. But "confidence" was still expressed in a man who once while in charge of the Treasury, and once while having access to it in another office, abstracted from it over a quarter of a million of dollars on each occasion and used it in gambling. The facts have long been known among the leading business men of Philadelphia, and were produced in 1885 by the leading Republican journal of the State—the *Press*—as a reason why Quay could not be nominated for the State Treasurership.

The most ridiculous feature of the Pennsylvania Republican platform is the declaration which follows the endorsement of the McKinley Bill, that "we denounce the criticism passed upon that bill in the English Parliament as an unwarranted interference by a foreign nation with the right of the American people to protect American industries." Even that loyal supporter of the high tariff, the Philadelphia *Press*, is constrained to protest against such an absurdity. "This is simply silly," it says. "Our tariff laws are of interest to others besides ourselves. Comment upon them is perfectly legitimate and is not interference. The platform would have been improved if, on the revision, this petty piece of provincialism had been stricken out."

The Prohibitionists of Maine have just held a State convention which is noteworthy for its frank confession of the fact that prohibition does not prohibit in Maine. The platform contains the following statement: "That the Republican and Democratic parties each contain a liquor element sufficiently large to prevent any thorough or determined enforcement of the prohibitory law; their declarations are therefore meaningless, and adoptions well understood by the liquor interests, and by the officials upon whom enforcement depends, and at whose hands *the law is practically nullified in the cities and large towns in Maine.*" This is precisely what the opponents of prohibition have always contended to be the truth, and, now that its advocates concede the fact, there is no room for further argument on the question.

The fiscal year closed on Monday, and so few of the appropriation bills have become laws that the Chairman of the House Committee on Appropriations was compelled to present a joint resolution extending for thirty days, or until the bills now pending become laws, the provisions of the appropriation acts of 1889–'90, in pro-rata amounts. Moreover, he was forced by an inquiry from a Democrat to admit that the situation in this respect was hardly any better than two years ago, despite all the talk about how the new rules were to expedite matters.

The vote in the House on the Free-Coinage Bill puts that body in a notable contrast to the Senate, and it shows clearly that the former and not the latter is now the conservative branch of Congress, and the one to be relied on to save the country from spasmodic outbreaks of passion and folly. The decline of the Senate is due in large part to the admission of new and sparsely settled Territories and mining-camps into the Union, which count for as much in the Senate as the most populous and best educated States. There is no cure for this evil except in time, and in the case of Nevada there never will be any cure. That is the typical mining-camp, containing a nomadic population more likely to diminish than to increase as time goes on. The only way to give her a population to fit her for valuable membership of the Union is to annex Utah to her. There is no constitutional obstacle to that. The effect of such a proceeding would be to shift her centre of gravity to Salt Lake City. Of course, this will not be done until the Mormon question is settled in some satisfactory way, but it ought to be done whenever public sentiment is ripe for the admission of Utah. The Silver Bill will now go to a conference committee, and will probably be reported in such form as to require the doubling, or a little more, of the monthly purchases of silver bullion. This will stave off the silver crisis for a longer or shorter period, according as the public revenues are more or less than the expenditures. The ability of the Treasury to maintain gold payments depends strictly upon its current balance, or what would be called in private business its "profit and loss account." So long as the balance is on the credit side it can maintain the gold standard, and no longer.

On the motion of Senator Plumb, the Senate instructed its Committee on Finance to report, with each item of increase or decrease of duties in the tariff, the reasons for such increase or decrease. The report which has been made is substantially an evasion of the instruction. It amounts in almost every case of increase merely to a statement that the Committee deemed more protection to be necessary. A few of these answers will serve to show how little information is supplied. Taking wool as the most important item in the list, and the one about which there has been most controversy, the report says:

"The *demand* from the representative woolgrowers of the country that the rates upon wool should be largely increased, has led the Committee to recommend the adoption of the new classification herein suggested, which it is hoped will result in a uniform and honest classification of wool. The increase of rates for the manufactures of wool has been made necessary by this increase in the wool rates."

In other words, the Committee consented to an increase in the rate because somebody asked, or, as they say, *demanded* it. This is a reason reduced to its simplest terms. We trust that Senator Plumb will find himself enlightened by it.

The next reason given is the one which explains the advance in the duty on pearl buttons, an advance of 300 or 400 per cent. in the case of inferior grades used by the poorer classes. As stated in the press despatches, "the increase on pearl and shell buttons was intended to protect domestic industry against the competition of foreign convict labor." That is an untruth. The pearl and shell buttons imported into this country are made by as honest people as can be found in any part of the world. They are mostly poor women and children in Vienna and its suburbs, who never saw the inside of a prison. There is no pretence of establishing the pearl-button industry in this country. In fact that is not contemplated. What is intended is, that the people shall be compelled to use some other kind of button at a much higher cost. We hope that Senator Plumb will push his inquiries on this subject a little further, and find out what evidence is relied on to

show that pearl buttons are the product of convict labor. It might be asked what harm would be done to us in any way by foreign convicts producing an article that we do not produce and do not expect to produce. The reason for increasing the duty on building stone is curtly stated: it was "to check importations of foreign granite." Raw sugar was put on the free list "as a matter of wise public policy." The large increase in cigar wrappers was "to protect domestic growers from excessive importations of that article." The increased duty on glass bottles (present duty 42 per cent.) was "due to increased competition by foreign makers." (Here is a good chance for a Glass-Bottle Trust, if there is not one already in existence.) "The considerable increase in fruit juices not otherwise provided for was for the purpose of checking fraudulent importations of alcohol." Another untruth. The present law provides amply for the collection of duty on any alcohol contained in fruit juices above what is necessary to keep the juices from spoiling—that is, any alcohol capable of being put to commercial uses. The increase in laces, edgings, embroideries, etc., "was due to the feeling on the part of the Committee that these articles of luxury should pay part of the revenue necessary to be derived from some source to offset the large reduction resulting from placing sugar on the free list." This is another and a glaring untruth. The increase of duty will yield not more than $1,800,000, even if the importation of the articles is not checked by the increased cost. This is a notable offset indeed to $55,000,000 of sugar tax! What is really intended is to check the importation of the articles, in order to enrich a few manufacturers. And these things, we are told, are "articles of luxury"!

The outcry raised by the steel-rail manufacturers over the reduction of the duty on rails to $11.40 per ton fixed by the Senate Finance Committee ought to open the eyes of the people to the real character of what, in these later days, goes by the name of protection. A few weeks ago they and their newspaper organs were "pointing with pride" to the fact that rails were selling in this country as low as in England. In short, the sole condition upon which a protective tariff is ever justified, had been reached. The time had come when the promise originally given that protection should continue only till the industry was established on a firm basis, ought to be made good by a total repeal of the duty. But now, when the Senate Committee proposes to lower the duty to $11.40 per ton, they are in a great ferment, holding meetings and appointing committees to go to Washington, and raising heaven and earth to prevent the reduction. The truth is, that no duty at all is needed on steel rails. The manufacturers have for protection the cost of ocean freight, insurance, and commissions, which cannot be less than $3.50 per ton. They have, for a large portion of the country, the advantage of inland freight also, and, as we have said, the selling price is as high in Great Britain as here, or, if there is any difference, it is slight. If, under such conditions, a duty must still be maintained on steel rails, about what year of our Lord may we expect to see it taken off? Never, absolutely never, if we wait to get the consent of the rail-makers.

The latest thing in the way of Trusts is a Starch Trust, in which all or most of the starch factories of the country are combined. The duty on starch is 2 cents per pound under the present tariff, and on dextrine is one cent. The starch duty is not changed in the McKinley Bill, but the dextrine duty is doubled. According to the Senate Committee's tables published in the last Congress, the equivalent ad-valorem rate on starch is a trifle less than 100 per cent., being exactly 94.54 per cent. on starch made of corn or potatoes, and 97.90 per cent. on starch made of rice. This furnishes a good solid foundation for a Trust. We commend the matter to the diligent attention of the Republicans of Illinois and Iowa, whose State conventions held this week passed the most rabid resolutions on the subject of Trusts and combinations that we have yet seen. What is the use of foaming at the mouth on the subject of Trusts when McKinley is devising means to keep them going, and when the party in Congress blindly follows him?

Mr. Blaine, in his recent letter to the Senate on the results of the recent Pan-American Conference, made the following statement:

"The Conference believed that while great profit would come to all the countries if reciprocity treaties could be adopted, the United States would be by far the greatest gainer. Nearly all the articles we export to our neighbors are subjected to heavy customs taxes; so heavy, in many cases, as to prohibit their consumption by the masses of the people. On the other hand, more than 87 per cent. of our imports from Latin America are admitted free, leaving but 12 per cent. upon which duties may still be removed."

Now, the meaning of this, if it has any meaning, is, that trade between the United States and the Latin American republics is obstructed because there is no reciprocity in tariff arrangements. We admit free of duty almost everything—except wool, sugar, copper, and silver-lead ores—they desire to sell to us, while they impose heavy duties on almost everything we desire to sell to them. But Great Britain admits everything—except tobacco—the South American States desire to export, while the same tariff duties that these States impose on imports from the United States apply equally to their imports from Great Britain. And yet the latter country does not complain of any undue restrictions on her South American trade, which goes on year after year increasing. Mr. Blaine is therefore clearly muddled in his conclusions.

Commissioner Raum's method of determining the fitness of candidates for clerkships in the Pension Office by "looking them in the face and forming a judgment of them," impresses the *Civil-Service Chronicle* as at once speedy and comprehensive. "I don't care to choose a man," said Raum, "from the bare statement that he has made an average of 76 or 83 or 91 per cent." How the Raum system works in practice is thus related by the *Chronicle:*

"Commissioner Raum looked his own son, Green B. Raum, jr., in the face and formed a judgment of him. He did not require him to make an average of 76 or 83 or 91 per cent., but he lumped him off and decided that a suitable place must be made for this son, and so he created a new division known as the appointment division, and put Green B. Raum, jr., at the head of it with the title of Assistant Chief Clerk. This done, Commissioner Raum again looked his son in the face and formed a second judgment of him without requiring any per cent. As the result of this, he removed a woman clerk out of the chief clerk's room, where she had been making some fifteen dollars a month in notary fees, and put this son in the way of turning an honest penny with his notary's seal."

The *Chronicle* finds that the Raum method has been employed in choosing census-enumerators in Indianapolis. The first man who was looked in the face at Indianapolis was Mr. Merrill Moores, an active politician and a member of the Republican County Committee. Mr. Moores, after being looked in the face by Supervisor Conger, and found to be a good census-taker, was appointed to look in the faces of the other party workers in the city. The result has been very disappointing. "Some of those I recommended," says Mr. Moores, "have turned out most miserable failures." The Indianapolis *Journal* says that out of forty compositors working in that office twenty were missed by the census-takers. "The trouble," says the *Journal*, "grows out of the inexperience of enumerators and slipshod, unfaithful performance of duty on their part." This is just what was predicted when the Superintendent of the Census, with the permission of the President, discarded the civil-service rules in the selection of subordinates and adopted the Raum plan of choosing them by looking them in the face and forming a judgment without any percentage.

Tammany and its defenders are visibly disturbed over the appearance of clergymen in the citizens' movement, and are seeking to make it appear that the reverend gentlemen will be called upon to perform political duties which will detract from the dignity of their calling. The *Sun*, as the only really devoted Tammany organ, is especially anxious about them, and is trying to frighten them out of the field by setting forth a number of disagreeable things they may have to do if they stay in, saying among other things: "Of course, they must also appear on the stump as political orators, and on election day we may expect to see them as workers and watchers at the polls, zealously looking after the interests of the clerical ticket, and exhorting the faithful to vote as they pray." The *Sun* forgets that under the new election law there will be no "workers and watchers" of any kind about

the polls, "exhorting the faithful to vote" any kind of a ticket, simply because the law says: "No person shall do any electioneering on election day within any polling-place, or in any public street or room, or in a public manner, within 150 feet of any polling-place." This will make it unnecessary for the clergy or any other respectable persons to stand about the polls as heretofore for the purpose of keeping the Tammany and other "heelers" from passing out bogus or defective or "crooked" tickets.

A curious correspondence between Funk & Wagnalls and the Blacks has been printed, in which Dr. Funk informed the Blacks that he was "handling" the reprint of the 'Britannica,' and forwarded them what he (Funk) "deemed a fair share of the profits," viz., $500. The Blacks, of course, returned the money, but why did Funk send it? Here is the mystery. Funk said in his circular that he had "purchased" the Encyclopædia which he was issuing at great cost from somebody, but not from the Blacks. Why, then, are the Blacks entitled to a "fair share of the profits"? Is any one entitled to "a fair share of the profits" derived from the sale of a thing which he does not own? If, on the other hand, he does own it, how can any one else, particularly a doctor of divinity, "handle" it without his consent, or fix his "share of the profits" without consulting him? Will Dr. Funk kindly look in his books on moral philosophy and see what the answer is to this question? Ordinarily when a man is caught "handling" things under the conditions in which Dr. Funk is "handling" the Blacks' books, he is "run in" by the police. What is there exceptional in this case?

In the settlement between England and Germany as to East African territory, the possession of Heligoland was taken by the latter as an offset to the protectorate of Zanzibar. The London *Economist*, commenting on the English opposition to the surrender of Heligoland, shows conclusively that the bargain is enormously to the advantage of England. It may be to the advantage of Germany also, and is evidently so considered by the Germans, since it gives them a naval station in just the place where they want one to defend their great seaports. To England it has only a sentimental value, and in this particular the sentiment will not bear close investigation, since, as the *Economist* says, the island "was stolen rather than taken from Denmark in the war of 1807." Its area is only 450 acres, being smaller than many single farms in the United Kingdom. Its population of 2,000 inhabitants are attached to English rule because they are thus saved from military conscription. On the other hand, the island of Zanzibar in the hands of a great naval power dominates the East African coast and becomes a most valuable connecting link between Africa and India. Moreover, a quarrel with Germany at the present time, the *Economist* thinks, would probably have cost England her position in Egypt. The reasons assigned by the *Economist* for ratifying the agreement with Germany are so great in comparison with the value of Heligoland that there can be little doubt that Parliament will acquiesce in it if the motion to reject it is ever pressed to a vote.

The Boston *Journal* has formed the pleasant conceit that Great Britain ought to hand over Bermuda to us because she has handed over Heligoland to Germany. Another esteemed contemporary thinks that the island of New Providence (Nassau) would be about the right thing to compensate us for Heligoland. Great Britain has, in the Bermudas and Bahamas, about 2,500 patches of ground and rock sticking above water. If she should, in a friendly spirit, say to the United States: "Bless you, my child, take them all," what would be our feelings? Twice since the close of the civil war have we been offered possessions in the West Indies of far greater value than all of the Bahamas and Bermudas put together, and in each instance we declined to take them. Not even the great popularity of Gen. Grant could force San Domingo upon us. Not even the wily persuasiveness of Gov. Seward could induce us to accept St. Thomas. It is true that a money payment was required in the latter case, but it was not the price that led us to reject the island: we simply did not want it. Anybody who goes there now and spends an hour on the island will be entirely convinced that the decision then made was a good one. But we want St. Thomas exactly as much as we want either Bermuda or New Providence. Regarded as a naval station, it is the superior of either of them, while San Domingo is by far more valuable than all three—more valuable, indeed, than all the British islands in the West Indies taken together except, perhaps, Jamaica. Yet if we want San Domingo today, we have only to say so.

The reports about the situation of the British Ministry grow more serious, and it is now said that a complete reconstruction of the Cabinet, under which the Liberal Unionists would take the leading places, may be looked for before many days. Their calamity has grown out of their over-confidence in supposing that they could, towards the close of the session, push through, all abreast, three stoutly contested measures of the first importance, viz., the Irish Land-Purchase Bill, the Welsh Tithes Bill, and the License Bill. To every one of these there is fanatical hostility in some quarter. The Ministers tried for a while to stem the tide and force the bills through by the use of the closure, but it soon became clear that the Chairman of the Committee, Mr. Courtney, would not permit the use of the closure to stifle debate on measures of such importance. The first time he refused to put Mr. Smith's closure motion, therefore, it was evident that the powers of obstruction possessed by the Opposition would make progress impossible. After much hemming and hawing and much cursing of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and many consultations as to what should be done, it was resolved to parley. To drop all or any one of the bills would of course bring more or less discredit. So Lord Salisbury concocted the plan of simply postponing one or more of them until the next session, leaving it to be taken up there at the exact stage in which the adjournment this session left it. But to do this would have needed a change in that time-honored Standing Order of the House under which every bill not passed dies at the close of the session. The change, Mr. John Morley and other Liberals admitted, had something to be said in its favor, but the bulk of the party was by no means ready to make it in order to help the Tories out of their difficulties. So that it was speedily perceived that it would take just as much time to debate and modify the Standing Order as to pass one of the three bills. Hence this plan was abandoned.

Mr. Smith, who is an elderly man in poor health, was then at his wits' ends, and there was nothing for it but to capitulate. He announced that the compensation clause of the bill would be withdrawn, and the tax, which was to have been devoted to the compensation would be allowed to accumulate, and have its final destination subsequently settled. This was really a cry for quarter, but the foe was pitiless and refused him all conditions. So he had to surrender at discretion—that is, throw the bill and all its belongings overboard. This, of course, has only flushed the Liberals with victory. They feel that they have fatally discredited the Ministry, and that if they push their advantage, they may compel the abandonment of the other two bills also. Of course the natural and time-honored way out of a situation so difficult is dissolution. A united party would undoubtedly, under existing circumstances, dissolve and go to the country. But the trouble is that the Tories know well that they would be left in a hopeless minority at a general election, as they were at the last two, while the Liberal Unionists have the strongest reason for believing that very few of them would get back to Parliament if they now appealed to their constituencies. Consequently, all talk of dissolution sends a shiver through the frames of the whole anti-Gladstonian host. They cannot bring themselves to face the risk of putting Gladstone back into office, with his powers of mischief apparently undiminished and the wicked Irish still unsubdued. For it appears from every day's news that Mr. Balfour's coercion has somehow not proved a success. The Irish are still recalcitrant, and he has still every day to defend in the House modes of breaking their spirit which puzzle and shock the English public. He thought when he came into office that, by subjecting the leaders to ordinary prison discipline, he should speedily end the trouble, and chuckled over it as a great discovery; but that sense of triumph has long passed away.

A RETROSPECT.

THE *Nation* begins with the present number its twenty-sixth year. It has occurred to us that we could hardly mark the occasion in any better way than by running over some of the great political and social changes which the paper has, within that quarter of a century, taken note of and to some extent discussed. No one who has participated in any such discussions can even look back over them without being impressed anew by the futility of political prophecy. In the year in which the *Nation* was started, there was hardly any political observer who did not look for the permanent retention among us of the military spirit, for a considerable increase in the standing army, and for an increased disposition to use it either for purposes of foreign aggression, or for the more complete and peremptory assertion of a strong central authority. All did not go as far as Wendell Phillips when he declared in that year, in a speech in Boston, that our old farming and reading republic was at an end, and that a strong military and perhaps predatory republic was to take its place. But certainly few looked for the rapid disappearance of the army, and the almost abrupt banishment of military topics from the forum of popular interest, and for the eagerness with which a community which had just been throwing all its powers into a fierce military struggle, diverted its energies to the business of money-making. There was something very fine, as well as unexpected, about this, and it called forth the admiration, as well as the surprise, of the civilized world.

But there followed on it another change which was much less desirable, and which also was unlooked for—we mean the rapid decline of the sentimental interest in the war. This is one of the *sequelæ* of all civil wars, owing to the fact that there is always something odious in the memory of conflicts of this nature, and that the contest begins, almost as soon as peace is restored, to furnish political capital to one or other of the parties which have carried it on. The duty of cherishing the memory of it is apt to be soon left to the veterans who have taken part in the fighting, and who can recall, as the younger generation cannot, the sacrifices it entailed and the evils it ended. This inevitable decline of popular interest in the heroic side of the contest has been hastened by the growth of the curiously mercenary view of the services of the Northern army which has ended in the pension legislation. There was probably nothing less looked for in 1865 than a successful movement, a quarter of a century later, to appraise the services of the soldiers in money, and discharge the obligations of the nation to its saviours in cash payable monthly, without distinction or discrimination as regards the nature of their services. This may be said to have buried the more tender memories of the war, which seemed, twenty-five years ago, to be certain to retain their strength at least till our babes were grown old and the survivors of the great fields were a small and vanishing band.

Not the least remarkable of the unexpected results of the war has been the recovery of the South. One of the anticipations of 1865 which did most to darken the political horizon, was the belief that the negro would for an indefinite period need the protection of Federal troops from physical violence, that industry at the South would consequently fail to revive, and that the State governments, if restored, would prove simply centres of resistance to Federal authority. It has taken twenty-five years of steadily increasing material prosperity at the South to dissipate those earlier apprehensions, and reduce the sum of Southern danger and misconduct to the cheating of the negroes at the polls, to the detriment not so much of the negro as of the Republican party at the North. The enormous increase of Southern products during the past fifteen years is proof, such as no one looked for within the present century, of the completeness with which order and security have been restored. The present state of things may not be satisfactory, owing to the political subjection of the negro to the white minority, but it is a state of things immensely superior to anything which was expected at the close of the war, and something totally different from what the prophets on both sides foresaw.

The return to specie payments was another thing which most observers relegated to a far remoter period than 1878, and which very few expected except through a process of increased paper inflation ending in a general crash. An operation so difficult seemed to some of the best political observers hardly within the reach of a legislative assembly neither led nor controlled by the executive branch of the Government. The late Samuel J. Tilden, who always, even when his party was most infected by the greenback craze, took the clearest possible view of the financial situation, was of opinion that we should "blunder into resumption" rather than deliberately resume; but, contrary to his fears, we did actually resume on a day fixed beforehand, partly through accident, it is true, but mainly through design.

The industrial changes of the period have been far too great and too varied for us to attempt even a notice of them here, and have been set out, in all their wondrousness, with admirable clearness and picturesqueness, by Mr. D. A. Wells in his recent book. Of a large number of them the public knows in detail but very little; but the most striking of them all, the extension and improvement of the railroads, no one can appreciate who does not recall the condition of the railroads and the discomfort of American travel at the close of the war. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the art of transporting persons by land has been revolutionized within the quarter of a century. Not only has there been a wonderful extension of lines of communication, but the discomfort has been reduced to a minimum, and all around the great cities immense suburbs have been created which begin to rival them in population and in importance. Out of this great extension and improvement of the railroad communication, and out of the accompanying improvement and cheapening of steam navigation, there have grown since 1865 social and political changes of the first magnitude. Not only have vast additions been made to the foreign population—that is, to the portion of the population bred under institutions differing widely from those of the United States—but the seats both of social influence and of political power have been shifted to new classes.

One of the most marked characteristics of American society in the period preceding the war, and in truth during the war itself, was the influence of the clergy and lawyers in their character of publicists and orators. Nearly every State had at least one Senator of the type of Seward, or Sumner, or Fessenden, or Trumbull—generally a man of very moderate pecuniary means—who not only exerted great influence on the politics of his State, but spoke with more or less moral and intellectual authority on all the questions of the day, and aided his constituents by speeches out of Congress, somewhat in the English fashion, in making up their minds on current topics. This type has almost completely disappeared. It can hardly be said to have any representative whatever in the Senate to-day. There is no Senatorial orator whose utterances are looked for with any eagerness or have any deciding influence on local opinion. The Senate has, in fact, become almost exclusively a capitalists' chamber, and it is only from the South that poor men continue to find their way into it with ease. At the North there is a steady tendency to give seats in it to successful manufacturers, speculators, or railroad men. As a general rule, too, this class brings to the work of legislation considerable contempt for public opinion as expressed through the newspapers, and an almost unbounded belief in the venality of State legislatures as the result of their own experience in business life; for a successful business career on the scale which is now common can hardly go very far without bringing a man in contact with State legislators as an applicant for some sort of favor or privilege, or as the object of the form of extortion known as "a strike." There has been, too, contemporaneously with this change in the quality of the Senators, a marked withdrawal of the lawyers from the work of political exposition, and in fact from the whole rôle of politicians. The leaders of the bar confine themselves to professional work, largely in the service of corporations, with great assiduity, and seem to grow more and more reluctant to figure in great political movements of any kind. And this change has been accentuated by the complete disappearance from the political arena of the class of orator known as the "lyceum lecturer," who represented to the rural population not only literature and art, but political philosophy, and exerted during the period preceding the war a very wholesome and powerful influence in shaping popular thought on public questions.

On the other hand, the leading colleges of the country have been almost transformed since the *Nation* was started, and a class of

advanced students have come into existence who were unknown and unexpected at the close of the war. The schools of political science which the principal universities now contain, turn out yearly both writers and thinkers whose contributions to the literature of political philosophy, history, archæology, political economy, and administrative law are extremely important, and have placed the country in the very front rank in fields of inquiry in which it was, five-and-twenty years ago, almost wholly unrepresented. Not only have they made the task of conducting a critical journal like the *Nation* increasingly easy, but they carry on periodicals of their own, in which the best thought of the time on political and economical questions finds adequate expression. But, curiously enough, this remarkable development of the universities in these fields has been accompanied by what seems to be an undoubted decline in the influence of the colleges on popular thought, and in the number of graduates in Congress and in political life. This result is in part due to the prominence of the tariff in the politics of the day, and the consequent separation of the professors, who are generally free-traders, from the wealthy industrial class, who have made fortunes under the protectionist régime, and who have been largely relied on for the expenses of the now very costly elections; in part, also, to the increasing dislike of thoughtful and cultivated men to the working of our nominating machinery, and to its close connection with the "spoils system" in the administration of the Government. Whether a great change in the relation of the men of culture to public life may not be wrought by the new ballot act, which is now in operation in many States, and will probably before long be introduced into them all, remains to be seen.

No change has been so marked as the transfer to wealth of the political and social influence which was formerly shared, if not absorbed, by literary, oratorical, or professional distinction. The popular interest which twenty-five years ago was centred on the authors, preachers, and lecturers who had taken the leading part in the great anti-slavery struggle, or had written the books and poems which first spread the fame of American literature through the world, and during the war and for a short period afterwards was centred on the leaders in the armed struggle, has been almost wholly transferred to the great millionaires. It is their personality and doings which now pique popular curiosity and touch the popular imagination. It is their talk which commands most attention, and which is believed to have most power. In politics they have become perhaps the greatest force of the day, owing in part to the virtual withdrawal of the bar and the clergy from the political arena, but in still greater part to their power of "owning" both men and newspapers—that is, of controlling politicians, and directing the course of the press through the influence either of retainers or of "good things" in advertisements or circulation. In some parts of the country—Pennsylvania, for instance—this control may be said to be absolute; in others, its development corresponds very much to the local development of the manufacturing interest. Wherever this is very powerful, the subservience of the press to the interests of property, as they are understood by local capitalists, is very great, if not complete.

This is the natural and almost inevitable effect of the steady growth of the tariff in importance, owing to the enormous investments made in it, and depending on it, in the opinion of the owners, for safety. During the thirty years of high protection which followed the outbreak of the war, there has been an unprecedented amount of money put into industries created or maintained by legislation; and as the volume of this investment has swelled, the tariff question has gradually not only dominated all other questions, but has driven them out of the field. In every country property which has been directly created by legislation, or which needs special legal protection, is extraordinarily sensitive and jealous. Negro slavery and the English Corn Laws were two striking examples of this in our own time. Such property, if seriously assailed, is always ready to defend itself by any weapon within its reach, and is sure to surround itself with elaborate bulwarks and safeguards. Foremost among these safeguards is apt to be restriction on the liberty of speech of all within reach of its influence; the presence of men known to be hostile to it becomes odious; their actions become suspicious; their aims in every direction become tainted with treason or immorality; and, finally, any means of counteracting their influence or destroying their authority seems legitimate. In truth, nothing defends itself so desperately, and with such serenity of conscience as to the means to be used, as property in danger.

It is an easy deduction from all this that a high tariff in a country in which it has numerous and active opponents, and is therefore constantly in a state of unstable equilibrium, must necessarily make money a most potent agent in politics, and tend more and more to discredit the art of open persuasion. The art of persuasion only flourishes at times and in places where the orator or writer is sure that his strokes will tell, that his opponents do not wear concealed armor, and that the seed he sows in daylight will not be uprooted in the night-time. It declines always in the presence of legislative corruption in any form—that is, the use on the legislator of the motive of personal gain, whether that motive take the form of cash in hand or the prospect of large profits on an investment.

In nothing do the Northern States of to-day differ more from the Northern States of 1860 than in this great supremacy in politics of purely material interests. Devotion to those interests, however, has been in some of its phenomena by no means evil or despicable. It has added much to the comfort and convenience of life among all classes. It has greatly refined and considerably dignified the luxury and amusements of the rich. It has introduced an invaluable love of healthful outdoor sports and amusements, and may be said to have considerably changed for the better the physique of the sedentary class of the urban population. It has produced a great increase of attention to health, in the construction of dwellings and in clothing and food. It thus furnishes a fresh illustration of the difficulty which all observers, even the most pessimistic, find in despairing of the Republic. After they have collected together all the most depressing facts in existence, they are sure to find mixed up in them a bushel of reminders that, in the Western World at least, after all action comes reaction, after the flood comes the ebb, and that in politics, as in private life, people often make a ladder of their vices to rise to higher things.

A VOICE FROM THE SOUTH.

THE discussion of the Federal Election Bill in the House of Representatives has evoked a speech from a Southern Republican Congressman which must command the attention of the country. Hamilton G. Ewart, Representative from the Ninth District of North Carolina, is a white man who was only eleven years old when the war broke out, and who comes from a South Carolina family which was earnestly enlisted on the Confederate side. Settling in Hendersonville, N. C., after having completed his education, he joined the Republican party and cast his first vote for Gen. Grant in 1872. He speedily became a prominent local leader in his party, was twice elected Mayor of the city, ran as a Hayes and Wheeler Presidential elector in 1876, a few years later was chosen to the Legislature, and in 1888 was elected to Congress from a district which has a majority of white Republicans. In short, he represents that element in the South which the Republican party must secure if it is ever to amount to anything in that quarter.

Mr. Ewart unhesitatingly asserted for his own State that "no Republican in the State, black or white, is prevented from casting his vote," but admitted that "in other States in the South the negro vote is suppressed under the forms of law, and in other sections still there is violence and stealing of ballot-boxes." He insisted, however, that this admitted evil would only be aggravated by the force legislation proposed. Characterizing the bill as "a sectional measure, designed almost entirely for the South," he drew this picture of the way it would work:

> "The applicants for supervision must declare their belief that without it there will not be a free and fair election. And here we have a direct appeal to partisan prejudice. The complaint is filed that the majority in the district propose to steal, cheat, and swindle at the ballot-box, and that Federal supervisors must be appointed to protect the rights of the minority. And right here the wickedness and folly of this proposition become manifest. The most determined and resolute body of partisans in the world to-day live at the South. By this law you instigate the misguided colored man to sign the petition in which he alleges that the white people of his district propose to cheat and swindle him at the ballot-box. At the very outset of the political contest distrust and bad blood are generated. But it does not stop here. The law directs that the supervisors shall be appointed from each political party. In many counties in certain Southern States there are not half-a-dozen white Republicans;

in many townships not a single one. Who, then, will be appointed supervisors? Necessarily negroes. Deputy marshals would also be appointed from the same class. What results would this bring about? Bloodshed, terrorism, riot, and disorder."

Mr. Ewart pointed out that the framers of this bill are asking these poor negroes who are appointed in Mississippi, Louisiana, South Carolina, Alabama, and Georgia as supervisors, to discharge a duty that the bravest soldier in the United States service today would hesitate to perform, since "it requires a man of unflinching nerve to act as a supervisor or deputy marshal at a precinct surrounded by angry, hot-blooded, determined, and resolute partisans where the issue is black against white, the powerful against the weak, the rich against the poor, the intelligent against the ignorant." To the objection of Northern Republicans that this is a shameless state of affairs to exist in any section of the United States, he made this effective reply: "But, virtuous Representatives, put yourselves in the place of these Southern people; place negro judges of election and negro deputy marshals at the voting precincts in Michigan, in Wisconsin, in Ohio, and in Indiana, and the Republican nominees for Congress in those districts would be swept out of political existence. You very well know that you would not dare to apply this law as it will have to be applied in the South in the districts which you represent to-day."

"Suppose you place this law upon the statute-book," he went on, "in what way have you helped the negro?" The only effect could be to solidify the white voters, now on the eve of disintegration, to encourage Bourbon extremists, to frighten away Northern capital, now pouring into the South, and to retard the industrial interests of the section—and all for what? "To create returning boards who may possibly return as elected a few Congressmen from the black districts," although Mr. Ewart's belief is that, if the bill is passed, there will not be a corporal's guard of Southern Republicans in the Fifty-second Congress.

Leaving the partisan aspect of the case, Mr. Ewart discussed briefly the philosophy of the negro's condition. He recalled the fact, which so many people forget, that under our system it is the State Government, not the United States Government, which must protect the citizen in his rights, and that this is as true of the black citizen as of the white. "You will tell me," he continued, "that I am suggesting no remedy for the political state of affairs in the South. Yes, there is a remedy, and that is to mind your own affairs and treat the colored man of the South with 'wise and salutary neglect'—I mean, of course, in a political sense. If you are too penurious to help him by educating him, at least let him alone. It was Burke who said that 'a clamor made merely for the purpose of rendering the people discontented without an endeavor to give them a practical remedy is indeed one of the worst acts of sedition.' Such conduct is worthy only of demagogues like Cleon, or scheming politicians like Burr. I am tired of this rot and fustian about the poor negro and down-trod Republican of the South. The negro of the South is doing well."

Mr. Ewart presented evidence that the Republicans of his district sustain his position on this question, saying among other things: "One of the most prominent colored men in my district, and a leader of his people, earnestly endorses my views on the Election Bill, and predicts trouble and disaster to his race if it passes. John H. Williamson, the editor of the *Gazette*, the leading colored paper in the State, and an ex-member of ability and standing in the Legislature of 1886, writes me that he heartily approves my course, and unites with me in warning the leaders of the party against this pernicious legislation." He concluded with this ringing declaration of independence:

"I do not know what course other Southern Republican Representatives may take in this matter; but, speaking for myself, I will never by my vote or voice support a proposition that tends to humiliate or degrade my people. I shall, if I am the only Republican on this floor, protest against the passage of a law that will sow the foul seeds of factional discord among the people, and be a fruitful cause of unutterable woe to the unfortunate class it is designed to benefit. If that be treason to the party to which I have ever been loyal, make the most of it."

Such a speech ought to carry weight in the House. All accounts agree that it produced a great effect. But whether this effect will be reflected in Republican votes against the Force Bill is another matter. The party caucus has decreed the passage of the measure, and, as Mr. Ewart said in opening his remarks, "unfortunately, it has reached that point in American politics where, under the iron and despotic ruling of King Caucus, a representative of the people is often forced to forget that he has a conscience, and, blindly ignoring all sense of self-respect and manly pride, commit himself to the support of measures which, deep down in his heart, he knows to be utterly wrong. To-day, to our shame and discredit be it said, there are Representatives from sovereign States upon this floor who, deep down in their hearts, know that this election bill is as damnable, illogical, inequitable, and vicious a piece of legislation as was ever attempted to be placed upon the statute-books of this republic. And yet, at a sacrifice of their manhood, sober judgment, their sense of fairness and justness, feeling the keen sting of the caucus lash, they will support a measure which will add untold miseries to the woes of the unfortunate people it is designed to help, stir up race troubles and factional strife in our fair South land, and breed political confusion worse confounded."

However the vote in the House may result, Mr. Ewart's speech is bound to have a marked effect upon public opinion. It counteracts the force of all the bloody-shirt tirades from Northern Republican demagogues, and leaves exposed the wicked and stupid partisanship which lies behind this measure.

A BLOW AT THE PIRATES.

JUDGE SHIPMAN of the United States District Court has rendered a decision of great importance to the international-copyright question, and indirectly to the morals of the community. As our readers are aware, the invention of a very cheap process for reproducing books by photography has started an attack on various expensive foreign books by domestic Pirates. The principal object of attack has been the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' the English edition of which costs $9 a volume, and the American, issued by the Scribners, $5 a volume, but the Pirates are, by the photographic process, able to sell it at about $1.50 a volume. A swarm of them have accordingly fastened on the work and are deluging the market with the photograph. The books contain many articles and maps by American authors of distinction, who either hold the copyright of these articles themselves or have assigned it to the Messrs. Black of Edinburgh.

Now the Pirates, in stealing the book, forgot these articles and maps, and reproduced them by their photographic process and offered them for sale with the rest of the work. The Messrs. Black, with the Scribners and Gen. Francis A. Walker, have accordingly attacked one of the Pirates, the firm of H. G. Allen & Co., in the United States courts, and asked to have them enjoined from further publication and made to account for the proceeds of past plunder. The Pirates demurred to the bill, on the ground that, as the articles claimed as copyright have appeared in a book most of which, as belonging to an alien, is not copyright, or *publici juris*, as the lawyers say (meaning that anybody may steal it), they must take their chance with the rest. In other words, they claimed that if an American allows his property to be mixed up with a foreigner's property, which our Government does not protect, and which American robbers are therefore permitted to steal, the robbers need not discriminate, but may freely appropriate whatever first comes to their hand. They also set up the very amusing but very impudent plea that the insertion of these American articles in the Encyclopædia was a trap set for American Pirates, and that those who set it do not therefore come into court with clean hands, and are not entitled to redress. Judge Shipman has brushed aside these pleas. He has overruled the demurrer, and ruled that an American does not lose his title to his property by mixing it in with lawful plunder, and that "a citizen of the United States who is the owner of a copyright can assign the whole of such copyright to a foreigner."

Final judgment in the case has not yet been rendered, but as there is no dispute about the facts, there can, under this interlocutory ruling, be no doubt as to what it must be. It will of course cover the case of Funk and Wanamaker as well as that of the Allens, and we trust that the Messrs. Black and Scribner and Gen. Walker, in the interest of public morals, will begin suits against these worthies as soon as possible and prosecute them vigorously. The demoralizing effects both of their thefts and their excuses can hardly be overrated, owing to their standing in the Church and the conspicuousness of their religious professions. Funk is a doctor of divinity and the editor of a *Homiletic Review* (of all things in the world), and maintains publicly that he may steal all property not especially covered by statute or legal de-

cisions, and that the Government may ethically expose to plunder anybody it pleases by refusing him the protection of the law, and he is selling like wildfire the proceeds of a huge theft. Wanamaker is a Cabinet Minister and an active Sunday-school superintendent, and holds the Funk theory in its fullest extent, but defends himself against criticism in this particular case by maintaining that as he only "handles" and "pushes" the stolen Encyclopædia, and does not himself photograph or bind it, he is not only not to blame, but is worthy of praise. Every day that these shocking examples of profitable dishonesty, cloaked or disguised by religious professions, are offered to the youth of the country, infinite harm is done to public morals. We wish that we could hope that a meeting of the other doctors of divinity would be held in this city to consider Funk's case, and call his "successful book business" by its right name. We can hardly expect this, however, but we do call on those American citizens who have the opportunity of bringing the pair of them to justice under Judge Shipman's decision, to give them, for the honor of the country and in the interest of true religion and sound morality, the full rigor of the law.

To return to the demurrer in the above case, we have never seen anything quite so amusing in a law pleading, except the account given of the doings in the Twenty-third Street Opera-house, in one of the Erie suits against James Fisk, jr. Of course it is quite possible, and in fact very probable, that it does not contain the real sentiments of the learned author. It is almost certain, too, that it is not meant to be a contribution to humorous literature, for the last thing an equity draftsman thinks of is inserting jokes in his pleadings. It is undoubtedly meant seriously to influence the mind of a United States judge, by showing that, through the negligence or connivance of Congress, mere use and wont has not only taken a certain species of property from under the protection of the Decalogue, but has covered the stealing of it with a sanctity which a court of equity will rigorously uphold. The counsel's contention is—we mean to be serious and fair in reproducing it—that Congress, in refusing copyright to aliens, meant that their books should be stolen in order to make easy the diffusion of knowledge in this country; that this view is "not only sound in law, but is in full accord with the highest ethics of morality [*sic*] and the clearest principles of business integrity. It deprives the foreigner of nothing to which he is morally or legally entitled. It misleads no one; it does not entrap the foreigner, neither does it take from him the value of a cent that is his."

"The United States law of copyrights is the same to-day that it has been for two generations. It is, and has been, notice to all the world that a foreign publication can be reprinted in the United States without interference from any quarter. When the foreign complainants began the publication of the Encyclopædia, they knew that their exclusive field would be confined to countries outside of the United States. They went into the enterprise fully cognizant of the right of any person within the boundaries of the United States to reprint and republish it, volume by volume, as fast as it appeared. The profits of an exclusive American market did not enter into their calculations, and formed no inducement to the enterprise, for our laws warned them that such was impossible. What, then, have they to complain of when they are met by precisely the same adverse conditions which, when they started, they knew they must expect?"

From all this is deduced the conclusion that the plaintiffs, by sprinkling American articles over the pages of the Encyclopædia, meant to impede or hinder the exercise of that sacred right of plunder which Congress meant our citizens to exercise without stint, and have been guilty of an unworthy trick. Therefore, says the pleader—were he in any other calling we should call him a sorry wag—

"From the standpoint of sound morals and acknowledged judicial principles, the defendant herein is the meritorious party; the complainant is a Philistine from afar, seeking to reap where he has not sown. The American market was not for him. All his legitimate hope of profit lay in the tillage of other fields. For those, and not for ours, he dug his irrigating ditches and expended his labor. If the overflow has passed his boundaries and by American enterprise is made to fertilize our territory, he is none the poorer, and his claim to control our fields as he would his own is simply the brazen audacity of the buccaneer." These passages are sure to go the round of the civilized world as a huge American joke, but we warn foreigners that they are nothing of the kind. They are sober earnest, as understood in a respectable law office in this city.

We have amused ourselves, after recovering from the reading of them, by putting the argument in the mouth of a Dey of Algiers in the old days addressed to his Christian captives just brought in by one of his corsairs:

"Christian Dogs, what are you whimpering about? You knew when you started on this voyage, with your valuable cargo, for Smyrna, as you say, that you would have to pass through the Mediterranean, and that this sea has been for two centuries infested by my cruisers. You knew that we have practised piracy on such as you for many generations, and that it is necessary to the comfort and prosperity of this State and city. You knew it brought us wealth, and stimulated the energies of our young men and spread the fame of our flag. You knew, in short, you snivelling infidels, that you would probably be captured before you had got half way down the sea. Why did you sail on such a venture if you did not like being captured and losing your goods? You knew perfectly well, too, that there was nothing wrong in seizing your ship and selling you into slavery, because if there had been anything wrong in it, I or my predecessors should have forbidden it by an edict long ago. There is no law in Algiers against it, and therefore it is right. My captain reports, too, that you had guns on board and used them to resist capture desperately. You actually used weapons and shed blood, besides extinguishing your lights at night, in trying to prevent my subjects exercising their lawful calling, showing what an accursedly wicked and undeserving crew you are. In order to give you a lesson in really high morality, you shall, each of you, have two dozen on the soles of your feet, and be sold cheap, so that poor men may get hold of you."

A STUDY IN LEGISLATIVE MORALS.

THE investigation of the West End Railway scandal in the Massachusetts Legislature has been closed, and the evidence has been summed up in long and able speeches by the counsel for the railway company on one side and by the Attorney-General of the Commonwealth on the other. These two speeches, as published in full in the Boston newspapers, are most instructive reading. They reveal a condition of affairs in relation to modern legislative methods which we are sorry to believe is not peculiar to Massachusetts, but is to be found, with slightly varying details, in nearly every State in the Union. The main facts in the Massachusetts case are not disputed. The counsel for the railway company admits them, and offers no other defence than that custom made the course pursued the necessary one.

These facts can be set forth in comparatively brief space. There had been for several years a constantly growing demand in Boston for an elevated railway. Down to the close of the session of the Legislature of 1889, the West End Railway Company, which controls the horse-car lines of Boston, opposed the demand on the ground that an elevated road was not necessary. It succeeded in defeating legislation at that session, but hardly had the adjournment taken place when the company changed front and became an advocate of an elevated system, and began a campaign to obtain for itself the privilege of constructing it. It is the inside history of this campaign that the investigation has made public, and a remarkable revelation it is. The election of members of the next Legislature was not to take place till November, but the West End managers began in July the work of "fixing" them. Their first step was to retain as counsel, for a fee of $10,000, an eminent Republican leader who had been President of the Senate. He devoted himself to employing as his subordinates in the service of the company members of the lobby of the Legislature, who were also politicians in various parts of the State; men who had influence in the different counties; and men who had occupied positions on political committees and were known to have had great influence in previous legislatures, and who had a large acquaintance with persons who were likely to be chosen to the new Legislature. This work was laid out in a thoroughly systematic manner. The counties were arranged as districts, the larger ones each constituting a district, and the smaller ones being grouped several together in a district. Care was taken that in each county there should be secured the services of one man of influence, no matter to which political party he belonged.

When this had been accomplished, when the company had secured its men in every part of the State, a series of banquets was arranged for them by counties at the Algonquin Club in Boston. At each banquet the President of the company appeared, and at its close delivered a speech in favor of the elevated railway which the company desired to build. It was rumored about this time that the former seekers for an elevated-railway franchise were at work in some of the legislative districts of the State, and were using money freely to secure the nomination and election of members who would be friendly to their project. The West End people put out money freely in the first place to overcome this obstacle, and subsequently bought out their rivals by paying them a fixed sum to abandon the field and turn over all their lobby and other workers to their side. In this way the West End influence was unobstructed in all the nominating conventions.

When the Legislature came together, the county banquets, preceded by carriage rides, were continued, with the members included as guests. Where members were detained over night by them, their hotel bills were paid by the company. A lobby of nearly forty members was in constant attendance, and no less than eight attorneys, including two ex-Governors, all eminent legal lights of the Boston bar, were retained as counsel. Great efforts were made to "fix" the railway committees of the two houses in the interest of the company, and the succession of banquets and other seductive social attentions was constant and well-nigh or quite irresistible. The Senate succumbed easily, and the desired bill went through that body with little opposition. It was moving along serenely in the House till a Mugwump member, George F. Williams of Dedham, openly denounced the methods by which it had been pushed and demanded an inquiry.

It has been shown that in getting their project to the point at which Mr. Williams stopped it, the company spent $113,516. Of this amount $24,000 went to the county and lobby workers, $7,500 went for "reading notices" in the newspapers; the banquets, and cabs made necessary by them, cost $2,500; and a greater part of the remainder was for "counsel fees." There was no evidence that any member had been bought outright, and it would have been surprising if there had been, for, after the prolonged series of banquets and the systematic "fixing" which preceded and accompanied them, direct bribery ought to have been unnecessary.

In the speech of the counsel for the company, Mr. George M. Stearns, a lawyer justly celebrated for his brilliant abilities, there are many most instructive passages. He took the ground boldly that the company had followed the plan revealed simply because it was the only way by which the desired legislation could be obtained; they found the lobby there and they used it; they found that banquets were useful in getting a proper view of things into the minds of legislators, and so they gave them freely. As for giving money to the newspapers, what Mr. Stearns thinks of that is worth printing in full:

"Then we are charged with corrupting the newspapers. With $7,500 we have bought the press of Boston. We have bought the press of Boston for $7,500. God save the mark. If the press of Boston can be bought for that sum, if it is so venal, then I don't think its influence is worth purchasing. We did just what everybody does to the press. They report only current news. If you want your speeches printed in the newspapers, you must pay for it. They will state the fact that you spoke; they will give ten lines of what you say, but that is all. If you want the speech reported in full, you must pay for it, and that we did."

That puts the "reading notice" in its proper light as one of the agents by which the public mind is deluded. Mr. Stearns appears to think that venality depends upon the amount of the bribe; but even the price which he thinks is so small as to constitute a proof of virtue would not have been paid if the publishers who took it had refused to print the speeches without accompanying them with some mark indicating that their publication had been purchased. They were printed as news, and were therefore a fraud on the public, and it was because they were a fraud that the $7,500 was paid for their publication. In this way they were used, like the banquets, to create a sentiment in favor of legislation which, whatever its merits or demerits, its promoters had not faith enough in to seek to obtain by the plain and ordinary methods of old-fashioned honesty. That it influenced the judgment of newspapers which received it is shown by their conduct now in advocating the passage of the West-End Bill by the House, even after these revelations. They take the ground openly that Boston needs an elevated railway so badly, and the proposal of the West End Company meets the need so well, that it would be an unjustifiable concession to mere "squeamishness" to refuse to pass the bill. They are even inclined to feel sorry for Mr. Williams because he has not succeeded in proving that any member was bought outright.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, May, 1890.

THERE is an old Japanese saying, once current in Kioto, "Tenka hatto, mikka hatto" (Government laws are but three-day laws). The accepted import is, that the central Government, its officers and laws, constantly change, and their influence is but a passing one; the true source of social order lies in the customs and regulations of the home, the hamlet, and the city. Whether this was a genuine deduction from experience, or merely an adaptation of the Confucian maxim, "By good morals govern and tranquillize your homes, then govern and tranquillize the country," is perhaps a question. It is certain, however, that the local political life of the Japanese people under the Shogunate was far more active and important than one is allowed to gather from the dry annals of the military aristocracy which form the staple material of the ordinary histories, whether native or foreign.

To comprehend the conditions under which Japan will enter upon parliamentary government, we must have some knowledge of the degree of success with which the nation rules itself in local affairs. To convey some such information is my present object. It will be desirable, however, to glance first at the local political life which has been left behind. The available materials for its study are, unfortunately, not yet plentiful. I rely for such facts as I have obtained upon some translations (recently made for me) of scarce local histories, upon the manuscripts of Dr. D. B. Simmons (an able observer, recently deceased), to which I have had access, and upon some private lectures of Prof. Konakamura, reputed to be the most learned Japanese legal antiquarian.

It is a matter of general knowledge that the administration of the country (confining ourselves to the last 300 years) was parcelled out, under the Shoguns, between themselves, the eighteen greater daimios, and the lesser landed nobles; and that the last two classes maintained a certain amount of legislative independence, and surrounded themselves with a military body, the Samurai, for whose government codes of rules were formed. But these classes of the population (with few exceptions) were consumers only, not producers. In number they seldom, if ever, exceeded one-fifteenth of the whole population. Below them a great national life went on. Their particular regulations were but a small part of the usages and rules which secured social order and formed the characteristic law of the country.

The division of the daimiates for purposes of administration was, in its general features, simple enough. Each was divided into *mura* (villages or townships). Over the *mura* was a *nanushi* (called *shoya*, in the west). The general management of the producing population of the daimiate was placed by the lord of the soil in the hands of an officer called *kori-bugyo* (county superintendent), or, in the Shogun's dominions, *daikwan* (deputy). If the district exceeded a certain size, the title was *gundai* (county chief). Sometimes a *gundai* supervised several *daikwan*. Between the *nanushi* and the *daikwan* was often an *o* (chief)-*nanushi*. Below the *nanushi* were various officers—the *kumi-gashira* (company-chief), whose duties were executive, the *toshiyori* (elder), and *hyakusho-dai* (farmer-chief), whose offices were advisory.

In appearance this arrangement was merely a series of subdivisions of executive duties. In fact, there began at a certain point in the scale a vital distinction. Above that point all power was received from above; below it, all came from below. The *daikwan* and the *gundai* were always appointed by the central authority, in Bakufu (Shogunate) districts (*ken*) as well as in the other feudal divisions (*han*). The *nanushi*, on the other hand, were as a rule elected by the people (subject to approval by the *daikwan*). They were identified with the people, protected them against official severity, and were their representatives in all questions arising between the Government and the people. The *daikwan's* powers involved all that concerned the interests of the central Government. Roughly speaking, those interests were that the people should make the land yield the greatest possible returns, though this purpose was seldom carried out oppressively or from a short-sighted point of view. The *daikwan* and his assistants therefore supervised the system of irrigation and methods of cultivation, had full charge of taxation, assessed the lands (a matter of extreme complication), allowed rebates for crop failures, etc., and collected and forwarded the taxes. Besides this he had judicial functions, fixing land boundaries and hearing appeals from the justice meted out by local authorities. To many sequestered communities he was the em-

bodiment of supreme authority, and Shogun and Mikado were only names.

In the local interests of the people, however, their own usages obtained. They had their own local expenses, their taxation and their financial problems. They repaired roads, each person owing a quantum of service. The *mura* owned grass-land and forests as public property, and made regulations for their use. As a rule all ordinary administration of justice, civil and criminal, began and ended within the borders of the *mura*. It was, to be sure, a life of customs, not codes; of arbitration, not litigation. The officers of the community were advisers, hardly rulers. The *nanushi*, although he was elected, and by ballot, too, was usually some patriarch, marked out beforehand by the general opinion. Spirited electioneering, however, sometimes took place; a tie vote was occasionally recorded. Curiously enough, a mere majority was not decisive; a clear preponderance of favor was required. Owners of land seem alone to have had the franchise, but other considerations were also of importance. To vote for one's self was a breach of good manners; one who once did so has been dishonorably immortalized in one of the old chronicles.

By the seventeenth century, if not before, certain of the local usages, mixed with regulations of the Bakufu and the Emperor, were customarily committed to writing as a sort of constitution. This document was signed and sealed by the head of every *go-nin-kumi* (five-person-company, a subdivision of the *mura* to some one of which every person must belong). It was called *na-yosei-cho* (name-collection-register), or, more simply, *kumi cho*. Of these documents, Dr. Simmons, in his journeys, saw many still remaining in all parts of the country. I know, however, of only four copies which are now accessible—one in the Imperial University Library, one among Dr. Simmons's papers, and two in my possession, sent by courteous officials in Chiba and Kioto. Future research in this field would be very fruitful.

Such, in outline, was the local self-government of the past. It was not everywhere the same; in details it varied widely. In the cities, particularly, it received a special development. But in general the elements remained the same.

Turning now to the story of local government since the Restoration down through the last twenty-three years, and compressing it into a sentence, it has been a veritable leading of the Israelites out of the wilderness, a deeply interesting instance of the systematic political education of a people. As a matter of course, broad modern influences have contributed much. There have been intervals, too, when other pressing problems forced a suspension of this work. Yet so far as governmental direction is concerned, it has certainly been a difficult task skilfully accomplished.

The period from 1867 to 1889 falls into two parts, dividing at the year 1878. The former was occupied with testing the capacity of the people for self-government; the latter with extending to them a larger and larger measure of power, and in advancing towards a proper degree of decentralization. At the beginning, however, the political situation was such that the establishment of a strong central power was the paramount requirement. The local divisions, as has been said, had been *ken* (Bakufu districts), and *han* (clans), with three *fu*, or metropolitan cities. By skilful management on the part of the Government, their object was gradually attained. The only measures relevant to our subject were the transformation, early in 1869, of *daimio* into temporary *chi-han ji* (clan-governors); and the final substitution for *han*, by decree of August 29, 1871, of a uniform system of *ken*, with *chi-ji* or *ken-rei* (governors) appointed by the Government. There were at that time three *fu* and sixty *ken*.

Meanwhile the foundation of the present system was laid by the decree of February 5, 1869, a sort of constitution for internal affairs. It provided for the uniform administration of *fu*, *han*, and *ken*, and regulated in general terms the principal departments of administration. For a while, at least, the old system was not in practice much altered. At the head of the *mura* was the *ko cho* (sometimes still called *nanushi*) with his assistants. The popular favorite was usually appointed by the Governor. Several *mura* together formed a *kori* or *dai-ku* (county), under a *ku-cho*, who was usually selected from among the *ko-cho*. The *ken-rei* had charge practically of the entire administration, and served as a judicial officer as well. The police were controlled from Tokio.

But a step forward was soon taken. The third clause of the decree of February, 1869, read: "Holding of assemblies. When existing laws are to be amended or new ones to be enacted, public opinion shall be consulted, so that legislation may be impartial and the people may be content." Within two months' time an assembly chosen by popular vote had been summoned in Osaka, and in the course of a few years a system of ward (*ku*) assemblies was added. *Gi-ji-sho* (parliament) was at first the general term used, but *kwai* (assembly) has since come into general use for local bodies. During the next eight years this example was followed with increasing frequency. The credit of the next assemblies seems to belong to the *ken* of Yamaguchi and Hiogo; and after these to Chiba, Niigata, Oita, and others. In Tokio no popular assembly seems to have been formed, but only an assembly composed of the heads of smaller districts. Indeed, in Chiba *ken* the members were at first *ku-cho* and *ko-cho* only, but they soon began to be elected by the people. So too, in this *ken*, the presiding officer, at first the *ken rei* himself, came to be one of the members, chosen by themselves. In this *ken*, it may be added, *ku-cho* and *ko-cho* were chosen by popular election for some years before the law of 1878.

While on the one hand the people were beginning to take part in the management of local affairs, the process of decentralization had begun. As early as 1873 the Government had by a general order recommended the *ken-rei* to establish local school departments, and to have the officials elected by the people; and the measure was very generally carried out. In 1876 the judicial functions (which in 1872 had been in many districts taken from the *ken-rei* and placed under the Government) were vested in a series of courts, one *Daishin-In* (Supreme Court), one *Koso-In* (Superior Court) having four circuits, and a *Saiban-sho* (court of first instance) in the capital of each *fu* and *ken*. Justices' courts were afterwards established here and there in the larger towns. The first two had been established in the previous year, but were now reorganized.

Finally, in the early part of 1878, at a meeting of the *Chiho-kwan Kwai gi* (assembly of local officials) held in Tokio, the Government submitted a bill establishing popular assemblies in each *fu* and *ken*. A similar bill had been submitted to the same body in 1875, and they had declared in favor of constituting such assemblies of the appointed *ku-cho* and *ko-cho* only; but the Government had concluded that the time was ripe for something better than that. The measure became a law on July 22. It was liberal and modern in spirit and in detail, though it simply introduced the assembly to a share in deliberation, and gave no complete legislative power.

On the same day were published a law naming the various purposes (schools, police, roads, etc.) the taxes for which were to be laid by the local government; and a law dividing *ken* into *gun* (counties) and *son* (villages or townships), and dividing *fu* into *ku* (wards) and *cho* (precincts). A law of July 25 revised the law of 1869, and provided for the appointment of subordinate officers by the Governor. On August 26 it was ordered that the heads of *cho* and *son* should be elected by the people, subject to the approval of the Governor.

The first three of these laws have been called *San Dai Shimpo* (The Three Great Laws). On the same July 22 it had also been decreed that "in each of the *fu* and *ken*, *ku*, *cho*, and *son* assemblies are to be held, as soon as circumstances permit, to determine the amount of taxes for such district." In a few years such assemblies had come into general existence, and uniform regulations, dating from 1881, but revised in 1884, modelled them after their provincial predecessors.

In the period beginning with 1878 the local-government system has advanced steadily, if slowly, in the direction of a greater decentralization and a broader popular prerogative. Under the first head we may notice: in 1880, the relinquishment to the local government of taxation for prisons and public works; in 1881, the establishment of local committees (appointed) and assemblies (elected) for agriculture, trade, and commerce, and the granting of the power to establish local educational boards; in 1882, a further extension of the sphere of local taxation; in 1885, greater freedom in shaping local educational methods; in 1886, a revision of the administrative system, giving wider powers to local officials; in 1888, the surrender of the *fu kin* (licensed-prostitution tax) to the local governments. Under the second head may be noted: in 1879, the exemption of Assembly members from arrest during a session without consent of the President; in 1880, the substitution of the Assembly President for the Governor as the one to pass upon resignations and requests for leave of absence, the grant to Assembly of the power to expel members for neglect of duty, and to address the Government in criticism upon the Governor; and in 1887, a greater accountability of the Governor to the Assembly in reporting details of work.

Practically a new period begins with 1889. A new and comprehensive law for city (*shi*), town (*cho*), and village (*son*) government was submitted to the Senate (*Genro-In*) in 1887, and to the Assembly of Local Officials in 1888, and was enacted April 14, 1888, going into effect April 1, 1889. By it the local subdivisions are somewhat changed, a *gun* (county) being now divided into communities of three classes (*shi*, *cho*, and *son*), graded according to population, and each with a popular assembly; and each *fu* consisting of one main "city," with suburban districts. Ward (*ku*) assemblies may be established when desired. A few of the notable features are (1) the use of certain terms new to the language, such as *komin* (citizen); (2) the declaration of the principle that "a city, town, or village shall be considered as a juristic person," that is, as a municipal corporation, not merely an administrative subdivision; (3) the election of mayors (*shi-*, *cho-*, and *son-cho*) by the city, town, or village assembly; (4) the division of the electors into classes according to the amount of taxes paid, each class electing an equal number of rep-

resentatives—a system similar to that in vogue in Hamburg, Brunswick, and other German cities; and (5) the creation of a second or aldermanic chamber. A similarly comprehensive law reorganizing the *fu* and *ken* governments will soon be issued.

Such has been the progress of local self-government in the Meiji period. The difficulty of obtaining accurate information on the subject is very great, and I can hardly hope that the preceding account is entirely without error. My object has been not to describe in detail the system as it exists, but rather to call attention to the steadiness with which progress has been made, the spirit in which the Government has carried out the work, and the carefulness with which the institutions have been adapted to the condition of the people. How far the people themselves have risen to the occasion I propose to notice in another letter.

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

Correspondence.

REINFORCEMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is hardly a number of your paper which does not furnish me with a text. Last week's contains no less than three, of such crushing force that it seems as if they only needed to be stated to carry conviction.

(1.) The reckless appropriations both by the Senate and the House threaten to convert our surplus into a deficit. But is not that the natural result of an arrangement under which everybody has an interest in expenditure and nobody in economy? If you prepare a rich and sumptuous feast, and then let a dozen hungry men into the room with nobody to guard it, can you wonder if, in the course of an hour, the feast has disappeared? Every Senator and every member of the House represents a locality, and is anxious to secure the largest possible share of the national expenditure, with a wholly disproportionate interest in defending the Treasury, which has no official defender. It is for this reason that the forcible argument of Mr. Plumb of Kansas, quoted by you, fell so flat. How different would the same words in the same place have sounded if uttered by Mr. Windom!

(2) Your sketch of the silver debate in the Senate shows this and much more. It shows how, under the five-minute rule and with unlimited power of moving and taking a vote on amendments, a few sharp, shrewd men, with a keen, selfish interest, can manipulate and disorganize a large body of which no member has any direct interest or authority to make a determined stand against them. Very few Senators can have a direct interest in the Silver Bill; it is certainly not any doctrine of the Republican party, and it would be a very poor compliment to a body occupying such a position before the world as the United States Senate to say that its members did not understand the injurious effect upon the country. It is a pure case of weakness of defence against attack. The only hope now, and a faint one, is a veto by the President. The silver-men will take care to bring such pressure on him that he would be more than human to resist it. And even if he does, it leaves the field open for another attempt next year. How different it would have been if the official defender of the Treasury and of the national interest had followed every stage of the bill, open to cross-examination by independent members and looked to by the country to explain its effect.

(3.) Mr. Blaine has written a letter criticising the action of the Senate on the Tariff Bill, and the President has transmitted it to the Senate, which has received it with the most fatal of all weapons—silence. A bit of newspaper gossip quotes Mr. Blaine as saying that he would give two years of his life for a chance to debate the bill in the Senate. Why on earth should he not have it? We may not agree with him or his methods; but one or two days of open debate, with himself and Mr. Windom taking the lead, would do more to enlighten and arouse public opinion than years of the lobbying and intrigue which are now the only methods of settling the tariff question. Mr. Blaine could do no better service to the country or his own reputation than by giving those two years or more to an appeal to the people to compel the Senate to give to him, or to his successors, that chance which it will never give of its own accord. G. B.

BOSTON, June 28, 1890.

THE NATIONAL FINANCES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the almost universal complaint—more especially by the agricultural interest of the country—of the burden and inequality of Federal taxation, it seems important that certain points connected with the same, not immediately bearing on the questions of free trade or protection, should at the present time be especially pressed upon the attention of the American public.

The amount of money necessary to meet the expenditures of the Federal Government for the fiscal year commencing July 1, 1890, was estimated by Secretary Windom in his report for December, 1889, at $341,400,000. The appropriations already authorized by the present Congress, or certain to be authorized, will increase these figures to an excess of $400,000,000. But for the sake of argument, and in order to avoid anything of hypothesis, let $400,000,000 be assumed as the correct figures.

Now, as the Federal Government never has any money except that which the people give it through the agency of taxation, and as the people as a whole never have any money to give except what comes to them as the result of their work, or from an exchange of the products of their work, it is clear, as Mr. Atkinson has shown in one of his recent essays, that what the Government really wants of its people, when it calls upon them for taxes, is work, and that the methods of taxation are only methods for collecting and using the products of work. If we assume that the average earnings of the larger part of the people who work with their hands in the United States are one dollar per day (and this is an over-estimate, for the average wages of those who follow agriculture for a living are not in excess of eighty-five cents), then four hundred millions of expenditure by the Federal Government next year, will mean four hundred millions of day's work; or, in other words, for every dollar that the Government of the United States expends, somebody must do a whole day's work to furnish it.

Even if the highest estimate be put upon the per-capita product of the whole country—including a valuation of the domestic consumption of farmers and farm laborers—the average earnings of each person occupied for gain in all arts and all branches of mental, manual, or mechanical work cannot exceed two dollars for each working day, or $600 a year, on which three persons depend for their support, giving a gross product of sixty-six and two-thirds cents each. Deducting the domestic consumption of farmers, the cost of State and municipal government, and the necessary addition to the capital of the nation, the net average earnings of the whole population from which national taxes are to be taken cannot exceed fifty cents a day, or what fifty cents a day will buy. Multiply by three, and the maximum average wages or earnings of every one occupied for gain, from the president of the great railway system covering thousands of miles to the scrub who washes the floor of the station, cannot exceed $1.50 per day. How unequally this is divided every one may estimate. But is the burden of national taxation which takes six dollars' worth of work out of each one hundred and fifty of product, or thirty dollars' worth of the product of each family of five persons who live on an income of seven hundred and fifty dollars a year, apportioned equitably in respect to income? Far from it; for, as a matter of fact, the cost of the National Government, estimated at $400,000,000 per annum, represents not less than twenty days' work at $1.50 a day out of 300 days in the service of each family of five persons; and the less the income the greater the burden of work required.

The question which next naturally suggests itself is, What are the people who will work next year 400,000,000 days—in heat and cold, on the farm, in the forge, mine, factory, shop, and counting-room, in the cab of the locomotive, or on the deck of the vessel, with pick and shovel, hammer and shuttle, with nimble fingers, skilful pen, and educated brain—in order to give their Government the money it says it must take from them next year, to receive in return for such working? A correct answer, expressed in general terms, and which every citizen who keeps a general run of the details of government ought to be able to frame for himself, would be as follows:

Work contributed in the form of taxes to the Government, and wisely expended by it for the insuring of security to life and property, the administration of justice, general education, general health, and improved facilities for the intercommunication of intelligence and the reduction of the expenses of transportation, brings with it the fullest equivalent of recompense or profit to the individual or community contributing. But work performed and contributed to Government in the form of taxes which in turn are expended for other purposes—as for the building of enormous "iron clad" vessels which are likely to be obsolete before they are completed, and which, if the advice of Washington, to avoid intermeddling with foreign nations, is heeded, will never be wanted; or for the payment of pensions to persons who having no just claim on the Government, have other and adequate means of support, and no right to ask other citizens to work for them; or for the purchase and hoarding of enormous quantities of silver under the pretence that it is needed as the basis of currency, when an equally good and sufficient currency can be provided not only without expense, but with a profit to the people, by the Government; or for enabling people to make livings or fortunes by unnaturally advancing the prices of commodities—is work that entails unnecessary labor upon the worker, favors the unequal distribution of wealth, and in its influence is antagonistic to the principles and existence of a free and democratic form of government.

Let no man whose daily earnings are essential to meet his daily needs deceive himself with the idea, that because no Federal tax-collector makes a personal demand on him for taxes, he does not perform the labor that is em-

bodied in and produces them. With a very few exceptions, all the revenue—money—that the Federal Government receives is derived from taxes on commodities, or things which people consume in their living or use in their labor; and is paid, in the first instance, by those who consume or use them. And it needs no argument to prove that the burden of such taxes must be disproportionately heavier on the man who from necessity expends all or nearly all his earnings on living than on him who only expends one-half, one-third, or a smaller proportion of them for like purposes, and lays up the surplus for increasing his income. Neither should it be overlooked that, under the existing system of deriving revenue from taxes on commodities, the poor are not unfrequently required to perform proportionally more work to earn them than the rich, because the taxes levied on the articles of a given class of commodities consumed by the poor—as is notably the case with woollen goods—are much heavier than on those consumed by the rich.

But assuming that four hundred millions of dollars ($400,000,000) must now be annually collected of the people of the United States to meet the expenditures of the Federal Government, there will probably be a unanimity of public opinion that this amount should be obtained in the most economical and effective manner, and with the least burden and annoyance to those who are to be called upon to contribute work in the form of taxes. But to what extent can such a result be compassed by sure and simple methods? Let us see.

The revenue derived during the fiscal year 1889 from the existing taxes on distilled spirits and wines was $74,312,200 internal, $7,123,062 customs; total, $81,435,268.

From malt or fermented liquors $23,723,835 internal, $663,337 customs; total, $24,387,172.

From tobacco $31,866,860 internal; $11,194,486 customs; total, $43,061,346.

From sugar and molasses $55,995,137.

Here, then, from the above-enumerated four articles or classes of articles, $204,878,923, or a fraction over one-half of the $400,000,000 required to defray the annual expenses of the Federal Government, can be certainly and easily collected. In respect to three of these articles or classes of articles—liquors and tobacco—from which $148,883,786, or 37 per cent. of the required revenue of four hundred millions, is now raised, it is entirely optional with the citizen whether he will assess himself and act as tax-collector for the Government, or not. And in respect to the fourth article or class, namely, sugar, although the rate of taxation is high—70 per cent. in 1889—it would be difficult to name any commodity in general use which could be taxed with a view to revenue with so little of burden to consumers and so little of detriment to industry. It is so largely produced, dealt in, and consumed, and enters to so small an extent as a crude material into other industries, that it comes to the consumer less burdened with other than Government taxes, merchants' profits, and expenses of distribution than almost any commodity that can be mentioned. Of all articles retailed, sugar is the one whose cost is least augmented by retailing, and, in fact, is said to be often sold by grocers without any profit as a means of attracting other trade. And yet, by a not inconsiderable portion of the American people, it is believed to be good public policy to throw away all, or nearly all, the advantages accruing from retaining the above enumerated sources of revenue, by totally abolishing the internal-revenue system, and not only repealing the present customs revenue of $55,000,000 on sugar, but making the occasion of such repeal a reason for augmenting the existing taxes to the extent of at least seven millions of dollars in the way of bounties on its domestic production. Has there ever been in the whole history of taxation anything more palpably absurd, or such a demonstration, on the part of all responsible persons, of inability to exercise common sense?

Is it not self-evident, also, if four hundred millions must every year be collected from the people to meet the expenditures of the Federal Government, and if the consumption of liquors, tobacco, and sugar is to be no longer regarded and utilized as a proper source for supplying some two hundred millions of this requirement, that the immense sum thus diverted and abandoned will have to be collected just the same; and that, too, by spreading an equal aggregate of taxes over a multitude of other commodities, involving increased expense and annoyance in collecting, increased burdens upon domestic industries, and increased opportunities for using taxation for the promotion of private rather than public interests?

The increase in recent years in Federal expenditures, and consequently in taxation, is also worthy the attention of the American people. Between 1870 and 1880 the increase in the net ordinary expenditures of the Federal Government, exclusive of interest and payments on the national debt (which payments represent the legitimate continuing burden of the war), was less than 4 per cent., or from $164,421,000 to $169,000,000, while the increase during the same period in population was 30.08 per cent. But between 1880 and 1889, inclusive, the increase in the same class of national expenditures, notwithstanding a reduction in the annual burden of interest of $57,000,000, was over 42 per cent., while the increase in population during these same years could not have been in excess of 30 per cent.

A burden of annual taxation of $400,000,000 on a population of sixty-six millions is a little over $6 per capita, or $30 on every family of five persons; but the ultimate burden of a system of indirect taxation on imported commodities on the final consumer of such commodities is certainly considerably greater. Recent investigations in this matter instituted in the English colony of New Zealand, where the revenue of the State, derived mainly from customs taxes on imports collected from a sparse population, affords unusual facilities for investigation, indicate that the burden of such taxation is increased to the final consumers of the taxed articles to the extent of at least 33 per cent. In the United States the increment is probably much greater. The average burden of Federal taxation for the next fiscal year will therefore certainly be at least $40 on every family, and promises in the immediate future to be greater rather than less. To the man with an income of $20 per day, or some $6,000 per annum, this is not much, but to the farmer who is raising and selling corn for 15 cents a bushel, and to the operatives in the great leading mechanical industries of the country, whose annual incomes average less than $400, it means deprivation.

DAVID A. WELLS.

THE LOUISVILLE POST-OFFICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of some of President Harrison's recent performances as a civil-service reformer, I wish to call attention to the Louisville Post-office as furnishing an illustration of his sincerity, without which no collection of cases would be complete.

The term of the present Postmistress expired more than a month ago. She has held the office for twelve consecutive years, having been first appointed by Mr. Hayes. As far as one can judge, she has proved an exceptionally efficient and progressive official. There has been as little "politics" connected with her administration as has been possible under a "spoils" régime. It is true that, after her reappointment by President Cleveland, a few Republicans gave way to as many Democrats; and likewise, after the inauguration of President Harrison, these same Democrats were supplanted by their opponents. But, while the Postmistress cannot for these reasons be called a civil-service reformer, the changes in question have been comparatively few and have been slowly made; the damage has been perhaps as slight as possible, and her concessions to partisan spirit have probably saved us from a "clean sweep," such as a new appointment would have involved. Besides, her employees have never displayed offensive partisan activity.

The objections to her reappointment now, however, do not rest upon the pretence that she has been, on the one hand, an incompetent official, or, on the other, that she has not been an ideal reformer. The former would be manifestly false; the latter would not trouble the party leaders either here or at Washington. The sole ground, then, upon which she is opposed is this, that, under the management of a woman, the Louisville Post-office counts for nothing as a political factor; the chief point made by the other applicants, that they can make the office tell in favor of the party in general at all times, and in favor of Mr. Harrison in particular in 1892.

It is reported that the President personally favors Mrs. Thompson's retention; the Postmaster-General is supposed to differ from him. Now, admitting, as every one does, that nothing but a political consideration stands in the way of her reappointment, how long, I ask, would such opposition hinder a President honestly bent upon civil-service reform? Nay, more, would such an Executive suffer himself for a moment to be surrounded by advisers whose conduct in this case, as often before, betrays their complete contempt for the cause he has pretended to favor? Mrs. Thompson may, it is true, still be reappointed; but as her fitness has never been questioned, very slight weight can, in that event, be claimed for the fact that she has already proved a capable official. Luckily enough, she has warm friends among those classes of people in whom our pious Chief Magistrate especially trusts, and with whom he devoutly wishes to be numbered. Assuredly the friction of political activity must have worn off the fine edge of the Postmaster-General's religious feeling, else he too would certainly throw the weight of his influence with that of the rest of the godly. But, however Mr. Wanamaker's strange departure may be explained, the President is far more anxious not to offend Mrs. Thompson's friends than he is to give the people of Louisville a competent Postmaster. Were this last the sole consideration, Mrs. Thompson would have been promptly renominated; the delay in the settlement of the matter marks the painful process by which the Executive mind is trying to determine whether Mrs. Thompson's friendship or a politician in the Post-office will avail him most two years hence.

A. F.

LOUISVILLE, KY., June 20, 1890.

AN INQUIRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with great satisfaction your arraignment of certain pious humbugs as "book-thieves" and "pirates," and am astonished that such a Mount Sinai of morality as your valued paper undoubtedly is should print the following advertisement: "By putting a few chemicals in ordinary cooking gelatine we have enabled American publishers to sell a full set of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' for $38.50, while the English edition costs $190 per set." Why not advertise kits of burglars' tools accompanied by the information that they were used with great success in a recent well-known bank-robbery?

Very respectfully yours,
Charles Edward Stowe.

Lenox, Mass., June 27, 1890.

[We have already, in reply to a similar protest, given reasons for not attempting to discriminate, in our advertising columns, between the grosser and the smaller violators of the copyright principle. As regards the ingenious and useful invention by which whole books are now as readily reproduced as engravings hitherto have been, the abuse of it is again something that we must leave the public to correct. There is nothing in the process itself immoral, and, in fact, as we are informed, the illegitimate demands upon it are far behind the legitimate—as where a costly copyright book printed from type needs to be renewed in answer to a fresh call, which would not, nevertheless, justify the prime cost of manufacture; or where it is desired to avoid the errors of resetting, as in the case of logarithmic tables; or where the plates have been destroyed by fire, etc. Undoubtedly, the achievement of converting the 'Britannica' into a cheap and popular work is the best evidence of the excellence of the process, and as such is naturally put forward in an advertisement. We do not absolve the firm in question from the moral responsibility we lay upon their piratical patrons; but Mr. Stowe will see that he might as well exact of us exclusion of their advertisement because we *know* them to have made the 'Britannica' reproduction, as because they proclaim it themselves. As well might we turn away advertisements of Wanamaker's store, or of Funk & Wagnalls's *Literary Digest* or *Homiletic Review*.—Ed. Nation.]

SHORTENING THE COLLEGE COURSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion excited by the proposal to cut down the academic course at Harvard University from four years to three, the fact seems to have been overlooked that the collegiate course at the Johns Hopkins University has, ever since the founding of that institution, extended over but three years. The proposition is discussed with all the spice of a perfectly new subject, whereas it has been in successful operation for fourteen years, in one of the most progressive universities in the country.

The undergraduate department of the Johns Hopkins University, although less widely known than the graduate department, is no less thorough. Those pursuing the collegiate course are largely under the instruction of the same professors as the graduate students, and, what is more important, the same spirit of application and love of study is rife among both. If we were to test the feelings on the subject of those connected with the University, the unanimous testimony of all would, I feel sure, be that three years spent in preparation for the degree of Bachelor of Arts is ample, at least for the average student. There is nothing, however, to prevent his taking four, or even five years, to fulfil the requirements, if he deem it necessary.

Neither of the possible objections mentioned in your editorial is felt to have any weight. There has never been any "long-established custom" of having a four-year course, so that the three-year course is not thought of as an innovation. The other objection to the plan, that the "process of absorbing intellectual influence is thereby diminished," is, I think, more than obviated by a higher matriculation standard and increased application and concentration on a somewhat smaller number of studies.

The real meaning of the word "education" is kept in view, that it is not a mere cramming with facts, however useful and interesting, but a development of the human mind, so that it may be able to grapple successfully with the great problems of life which may in the future present themselves. And this, it is claimed, is accomplished at least as well in the three years of concentrated study in the undergraduate department of the Johns Hopkins University, as in many of the colleges which still retain the time-honored four-year course.

R. E. Carson.

Baltimore, Md., June 23, 1890.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a recent editorial you again discuss the question whether the course of Harvard should be cut down from four to three years, as President Eliot proposes. You say that the objections are raised on two grounds only: first, an unreasoning faith in the time-honored course of a Freshman, a Sophomore, a Junior, and a Senior year; secondly, the wish that the cultivating influence of the University should not last any shorter time than it does now, and the belief that less than four years will not exert a lasting effect.

My objections rest on entirely different grounds, and are coupled with a very tangible remedy for the supposed evils arising from the inordinate length of the present course.

For those who wish to devote themselves to a scientific or literary course of life, a study of four years after "ripeness" to enter Harvard, is not too much. Johns Hopkins has cut down her course to three years, and, as a consequence, has more post-graduate than undergraduate hearers. Even at Harvard there are many whom the four years' academic course does not satisfy. But men who wish, after taking their bachelor's degree, to study law, medicine, or divinity thoroughly—that is, to study one of those branches for three years—find that they are too old (about twenty-five or twenty-six) before they can enter upon a profession; eighteen *plus* four *plus* three being equal to twenty-five. They are perfectly right. But there is no reason in the world why any one who proposes to take the degree of M.D. or D.D. or B.L. should have his degree of A.B. in his pocket before entering upon his professional studies, except the notion prevailing in England and America, but nowhere else, that a degree in law, medicine, or divinity is no proof of learning in the holder, but only a certificate that he may earn his bread by healing people, attending to their lawsuits, or preaching to them. On the continent of Europe it is different, and no one there who prepares himself to become a lawyer, physician, or preacher ever thinks of first attending for four years or even for three years the lectures of a "philosophical faculty," which faculty corresponds in every way—especially in the age of its students—to a course at Harvard or Johns Hopkins.

It was not always and everywhere thus. Before 1848, the "Latin School" in Austria took boys from the age of ten to that of sixteen; they then were deemed ripe for the University, but had there to take a two-years' course in "philosophy" before entering the law, medical, or divinity schools. Now the "Latin School" of six years has been turned into the "Gymnasium" of eight years, and "philosophy" for law or medical students is very properly dropped. The old Austrian system was pretty much the same as that of Harvard of the same time; for sixteen was then the ordinary age for entering college, and a boy of that age might well go on for two or even for four years to broaden his general culture.

The Harvard catalogue of 1889 shows that nearly all the divinity students, 80 per cent. of the law students, and 47 per cent. of the medical students held a college degree. Under these circumstances it would be no hardship to demand of every one who wishes to enter any one of the three schools as a regular student, that he should be fitted for the *second* year of the academic course. The group of studies in the first year in which he should be examined on admission might be prescribed for each of the three professional courses: for instance, those who wish to enter the Law School must take the historico-political group of studies. This being done, the academic character of the students in the three "schools" would be guaranteed. There could be no boors among them simply trying to get to money-making in the shortest possible time. In the next place, no young men without culture being in the schools, a plan of teaching the three professions could be introduced, treating them as branches of learning. A source of legal lore, for instance, need not be neglected simply because it is accessible only in French or Latin. A physical demonstration need not be skipped in the Medical School because its proper understanding requires a knowledge of trigonometry. The comparative method, the true basis of all modern science, can be followed even in theology, when only men trained to the age of nineteen in scientific habits are to be dealt with.

But one thing more is necessary. The attendants at the professional schools ought to be made to feel that they are children, not mere step-children, of the Alma Mater. A first-year law student must be considered a Sophomore, a third-year law student a Senior. The degree from the professional schools should constitute its holder an alumnus of Harvard, upon an exact footing with the Bachelor of Arts, entitled in like manner with him to take a part in the government of the institution. Then the students of the three schools will no longer have any motive for wasting their best years in the academic course.

These very simple, and, in the present condition of things, easy and practicable changes would give to Harvard University, what it now lacks, a plainly visible purpose, making it a place to educate (1) literary and scientific men, (2) learned lawyers, (3) learned physicians, (4) learned ministers, and put it exactly on the footing with the universities of Germany, Austria-Hungary, France, Italy, the Netherlands, etc., to which it has gradually

been tending. The exclusion of law and medicine from the course of academic instruction at Oxford and Cambridge is one of the many accidents and peculiarities in English life and customs, of which America ought long ago to have got rid altogether.

Very respectfully, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., June 22, 1890.

Notes.

A COMPLETE catalogue of the late Dr. Döllinger's library is in course of preparation, and will be published at an early date. Copies of it may be procured by applying to Fräulein Döllinger, at No. 11 Von der Tannstrasse, Munich, Germany. It is to be hoped that some American university may be so fortunate as to secure this extremely valuable collection of books.

A new volume of Dr. Döllinger's academical addresses ('Akademische Vorträge'), containing among other discourses that on "The Influence of North America in Literature," is already in press. Also, a Life of Pius IX., a treatise on the Council of Trent, an essay on the Inquisition, and a correspondence with the Papal Nuncio, the Archbishop of Munich-Freising, and other ecclesiastical dignitaries, touching the Vatican decrees, have been found among his posthumous papers, and will shortly appear in print.

A second edition of 'Aryan Sun Myths: the Origin of Religions,' by Sarah E. Titcomb, will be published by the author herself at 83 Pinckney Street, Boston.

A revised edition of Prof. Jesse Macy's 'Our Government' is set down for July by Ginn & Co., Boston.

'Toxar,' by the author of 'Thoth,' is announced by Longmans, Green & Co.

A new translation from the German of W. Heimburg, by Mrs. J. W. Davis, 'Lucie's Mistake,' will be published immediately by Worthington Co.

The American Economic Association will soon have ready a monograph on canals, in two parts, viz., "The Canal and the Railway, with a note on the Development of Railway Passenger Traffic," by Prof. E. J. James, and 'Canals and their Economic Relation to Transportation,' by Prof. L. M. Haupt. It may be had of the Secretary, Prof. Richard T. Ely, Baltimore.

A work which it does not fall within our province to criticise, the 'Cyclopædia of Manufactures and Products of the United States,' published in this city by the Seeger & Guernsey Co., nevertheless has an interest for not a few of our readers, and deserves mention. The merest glance at it shows it to have been executed in a very orderly and painstaking way. The arrangement is alphabetical of departments, but there is also a copious index to articles which renders reference easy, whether one is in search of "Advertising Thermometers," "Films, Photographic," "Garments, Dress-Reform," "Quarter Sawed Lumber," "Teething Rings," "Yeast Cakes," or "Zinc Tubing," etc., etc. This is information convenient not only for shippers, but for the mass of private purchasers. The list of firms, though liberal, is not exhaustive, but selective—another merit in the 'Cyclopædia.' The volume is beautifully printed.

'Brown's Directory of American Gas Companies' (New York: E. C. Brown) comes to us in its third issue. The capital, financial condition, population supplied, rates, and other statistics are clearly tabulated for the northern continent. Electric light and power are often combined with gas in the enterprises recorded. Natural-gas companies are grouped by themselves.

No title could well be more obscure and misleading than 'Derivation of Practical Electrical Units,' by Lieut. F. B. Badt and Prof. H. S. Carhart (Chicago: Electrician Publishing Co.). Besides a table of these units, the little book consists mainly of brief biographies of "all the eminent scientists by whose names the practical units are or were designated," accompanied by portraits in every case except that of Coulomb.

The 'Musical Year-Book of the United States' reaches its seventh issue in recording the season of 1889-'90 (Boston: G. H. Wilson). New American compositions and American compositions performed abroad are carefully noted.

Dr. Francis H. Rankin's 'Hygiene of Childhood' (Appletons) is a wise, unpretentious little book that parents should like to read and its precepts follow. It is untechnical, but inspired with professional wisdom and experience; and the more widely such literature is circulated, the better for the generations that succeed. This combines good style and sound sense, and appeals to every head of a family.

Dr. Louis Barkan has added another item to the long roll of books about ourselves in 'How to Preserve Health' (New York: Exchange Printing Co.). Hygiene and morals have much in common; and this particular book, like some sermons, is excellent in matter, but not especially inviting in style.

The success of their popular edition of Charles Kingsley's works (of which 'Hereward the Wake' is last to hand) has encouraged Macmillan & Co. to put out a very large edition of 'Tom Brown's School Days' in the same style, but with illustrations. We regret afresh the necessity for such condensed typography.

The "German Webster," or Moriz Heyne's 'Deutsches Wörterbuch,' completes its first of three volumes with the letter G (Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: B. Westermann & Co.). The preface, reserved to accompany the last half of vol. i., states the author's conviction, as a colaborer on the Grimm Lexicon, that that work, when completed, will never have the domestic use anticipated for it by its projector. Hence his attempt to carry out the idea in his own way. Dr. Heyne omits provincial and obsolete vocables in order to bring his work within moderate compass, and technical expressions are sparingly admitted; on the side of etymology, ignorance is frankly confessed in cases of doubt. The references to the literary sources are exact, and a list of these sources will accompany the final volume. The examples cited are in Roman type. This does much to relieve the appearance of the page, of which the impression is noticeably distinct. Dr. Heyne has had the assistance of his wife as a literary reader in his ten years' labor.

A fourth volume of the Papers of the American Historical Association opens with the quarterly issues for January and April, containing official reports and the following papers: "Recent Historical Work in the Colleges and Universities of Europe and America," by President Adams of Cornell; "A Catechism of the Revolutionary Reaction," by ex-President White; and "The Origin of the National Scientific and Educational Institutions of the United States," by Dr. G. Brown Goode. This last is an historical inquiry of decided value, replete with curious information. Thus, in a foot-note to page 73, the rise of the "agricultural experiment station" is sketched, and we are told that no fewer than forty-six now exist (one State having as many as three), and employ nearly 400 experimenters. The origin of the National Observatory and John Quincy Adams's efforts towards it make one of the most interesting episodes in Dr. Goode's review.

Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett has supplemented his monograph on 'The Negro in Maryland: A Study of the Institution of Slavery,' with 'Notes on the Progress of the Colored People of Maryland since the War,' which appears as a triple number (vii–viii–ix) of the eighth series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies. It is, on the whole, a cheering exhibit. The admission of colored men to the jury-box and the bar is one of the greatest strides; and another is the abolition of color distinction in cases of bastardy.

The last Quinquennial Catalogue of the Officers and Graduates of Harvard University, which appeared in 1885, was, it is now to be seen, the last in which Latin was employed instead of the vernacular. The new Catalogue for 1890, which can be had of Charles W. Sever, Cambridge, sticks to the vernacular throughout, and for the first time the names are printed as they were borne by their owners. This reform is noteworthy as happening in the year when it is proposed to cut down the College term by one-fourth, in final breach with the domination of the classics, the excessive study of which we may fairly estimate to have involved the loss of a year. Another significant change is the abandonment of the use of italics to denote the clergy among the graduate bachelors of arts. This time-honored practice seemed in deference to the college motto, "Christo et Ecclesiæ," which is still retained on the seal, but henceforth with a very broad interpretation. Improvement is also visible in the more elegant typography.

Harvard's great genealogist, Mr. Henry F. Waters, has, in the London *Athenæum* of June 14, an elaborate defence of his Washington pedigree, which has been more plentifully than wisely impeached across the water.

In the Syracuse *Academy* for June, Mr. Henry L. Coar has a paper, "When and How Geometry Should be Taught," which is one more symptom of a drift of opinion in the right direction. Those who hold that the study of geometry is postponed too long, and should be, in the elements at least, a part of primary education, in conjunction with arithmetic and in advance of algebra, will read Mr. Coar's paper with interest.

— The July *Atlantic* has a list of articles of very even strength and interest. Mr. Cook's study of the character and career of Richard Henry Lee brings forward one of the most brilliant and effective figures of the Revolution, whose fame has hardly proved equal to his services. Chance deprived him of the honor of drafting the Declaration of Independence, and no other single occasion arose by which he might have been identified with a great historical moment, for his work of incorporating a Bill of Rights in the Constitution by the first amendments does not stand out as a conspicuous personal action. The oratory of Patrick Henry has eclipsed his own in the tradition of the country; and yet, whether as orator or statesman, or as a practical worker in Government business, he seems to have deserved more than he has received in the regard of history. His affinity with Sam Adams is remarked upon in this article, and his democratic principles in opposition to the aristocratic temperament of Virginia are strongly emphasized, from the moment of his maiden speech against slavery, to the latter days when he wished to emigrate to Massachusetts in order to live in a social order

consonant with his convictions. His life illustrates the accidental nature of posthumous fame, and its frequent dependence upon events more than on persons. Prof. Hart contributes a timely and very thorough article upon the present condition of athletics in colleges, and explains the growth of the joint control of sports at Harvard by the Faculty, graduates, and students; he takes a conservative and reasonable view. Prof. Carpenter writes with interest of the literary language of Norway. Prof. Shaler suggests an association for the systematic study of the negro in America. Mr. Merwin continues his papers upon horses, with a spirited account of Fire-horses, in which are several anecdotes of equine habits and character. No reader of this number of the *Atlantic* should overlook the exceptionally fine verses on Wendell Phillips by a namesake.

—*Scribner's* contains a curious piece of secret history in Dr. George Howe's narrative of the voyage of the last slave-ship. He shipped suddenly and unthinkingly, it would seem, as a doctor on board a ship which was to carry a cargo of emancipated slaves to Liberia, and only when on the open sea discovered that he was on a slaver, which had taken this cargo in order to get to the coast of Africa unsuspected. There was a scheme on the part of the captain to take the negroes they had and sell them, but this was not concurred in by the Spaniards in charge, and the ship went to its destination only to find that it was to be strictly watched. The doctor, who was just out of college, stayed with the ship, partly by accident and partly in a spirit of adventure, and landed on the Congo Coast, obtaining glimpses of the river and the tribes. At last, the cruisers being eluded, he saw the ship loaded with the slaves just in time to escape the *Vixen*, which had got within range but could not equal the speed of the vessel. They then sailed for an island south of Cuba, transferred the cargo to schooners, burned the ship, made Trinidad with the slaves concealed under the hatches, lay a night and a day in the harbor unsearched, and landed the slaves the night following, getting them into the interior and distributed among the planters in a very short space of time. Finally, the Americans got passports by a clever trick, and returned to New Orleans. The story is well told, and is an interesting account of the way the slave trade was managed, and of its necessary hardships even when, as in this case, the officers took better than ordinary care of the slaves. Other articles are upon the "Suburban House," "Surf and Surf-Bathing," and "The Rights of the Citizen to His Own Reputation." The poem by Robert Louis Stevenson, "The House of Tembinoka," is of amazing badness.

—*Harper's* continues the adventures of Tartarin, and follows them up with a sketch of the doings of Jonathan Wild. Travel is represented by a paper upon Baltic Russia, and cognate articles are upon the widely differing types of society in Texas (a very picturesque subject) and in Oxford, where the changes occasioned by permitting Fellows to marry, by the education of women, and in general by the Londonizing of the old academic régime, have been very marked. A paper of a sort not often to be found in this magazine is a literary study of Giosuè Carducci, whose reputation in his own country entitles him to the attention of foreigners, as a poet illustrating with some originality and force a modern literary movement. The author of the article seems to oscillate between admiration for the poet and doubt of the sufficiency of the philosophy incorporated in his verse; but he does his best to make Carducci understood. The difficulty of the case may be indicated by the fact that at the outset the critic has to raise the question whether Christianity is not something superimposed on the Italians and radically in conflict with their race-nature, which in the end may throw it off as a mere incident in the centuries of history. At all events he can point to a perpetually recurring revolt in Italy of the pagan spirit of adoration of this world's beauty and devotion to the joy of the senses, and he finds it renewed in "the Hellenic reaction," as he calls it, denoted by Carducci's verse. The philosophy of history, however, may be left to take care of itself, and the reader may attend to the translations, often excellent, from the whole range of Carducci, among them the notorious "Hymn to Satan." At the conclusion, the critic remarks upon the influence of court favor upon the poet, and also sufficiently expresses his own judgment that the pagan spirit, even in its ethical and æsthetic forms, does not comprehend enough of modern life to be equal to humanity. So, at least, we understand him. The paper is as conscientious as it is scholarly, and opens a refreshingly new subject.

—The *Century* contains an attractive colonial paper, by Edward Eggleston, upon Nathaniel Bacon, the Virginian adventurer who led the popular discontent and finally open rebellion directed against Governor Berkeley in 1676. The conditions of the time are graphically set forth, but the character of Bacon is the life of the article. His control of his men, his energy, the romantic words and the dramatic scenes that have come down to us, and his pathetic end, contribute to build up the ideal of the English adventurer, which we associate rather with the preceding generation. The present is the fullest account which has been given of him, and abounds in that picturesqueness which is not too common a quality of our early history. The principal paper in this number, however, is upon the theory of the Single Tax on Land Values, and is made up of a destructive criticism by Mr. Atkinson, a sarcastic reply by Mr. George, and a brief rejoinder by the first debater. Unlike most "modern symposiums," this presents many elements of a real discussion. Each intimates, and here and there directly states, that his opponent is, as a matter of fact, ignorant of what he is talking about, and there is no disposition on either side to suggest fallibility in the view held by it. Mr. Atkinson tends naturally rather to statistics, and Mr. George to philanthropic eloquence, and each deprecates the other's peculiarity in this regard. To the impartial spectator, the most obvious thing in the discussion is that there are two points of view and a debatable land between, where some discoveries may yet be made. The question is too large for the space given, and the treatment of it is no more than an opening skirmish. The most good it can do is to suggest the large issues involved in these questions, and to emphasize those conclusions, in respect to a reform of present taxation, in which both contestants agree.

—The ninth number of the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* (April-June) opens with two articles which will attract especial attention from anthropologists. The first of these papers, by Dr. Washington Matthews, U. S. A., contains an abstract of that part of the great creation and migration legend of the Navajos which gives an account of the origin and accession of the several gentes. The legend declares a period of seven lives of old men, or from 500 to 700 years, to have elapsed since the creation of the pair forming the nuclear gens of the present composite Navajo nation; during the subsequent history of the tribe, it is described as continually incorporating with itself additions from many quarters, forming new gentes. Among these, for example, after the arrival of the Spaniards, are said to have been the descendants of a Mexican captive, constituting a gens which received the name of People of the White Stranger. The writer believes these gentes to have been in the first instance only local exogamous groups, no man being allowed to marry in his own village. He remarks that among the Navajos both mother-right and father-right exists, and that descent in both lines seems to be recognized as determining consanguinity.

—In another paper, intended to accompany that of Dr. Matthews, Capt. John G. Bourke, U. S. A., discusses the Gentile Organization of the Apaches of Arizona. He gives lists of Apache gentes, adding those of the Moquis, of Zuñi and other pueblos. Examining the origin of the nomenclature, he shows the small number of animal titles included, while he observes that in the list of Dr. Matthews there is not a single such title out of more than fifty gentes. He concludes that the entire nomenclature of the Apache and Navajo gentile systems is topographical, and inclines to think that animal totemic designations may have been developed out of names at first local; for example, a people living near the Wolf Spring, and called after their dwelling-place, with natural taste for the marvellous, may have gloried in their association with the animal and in the distinction which they might derive from tracing their paternity to this source. "Primitive man," he remarks, "bothered himself very little about his ancestry. He gathered into little bands, and formed little communities for the great purpose of protection against human and animal enemies." In respect to the effects attributed to totemic belief, he doubts the connection of tabus respecting food with gentile titles, and thinks that observers have often confounded ceremonial fasts with general prohibitions. The effect of these articles, both as tending to overthrow a widely accepted theory of gentile origin and as militating against the recent extension of the doctrine of totemism as a ready explanation for the phenomena of primitive religion, will lead to an animated discussion, and cause a closer investigation of the gentile system of other tribes than these systems have hitherto received.

—The selection by the Senior Class of Harvard College of a colored class-day orator last autumn aroused much interest, which only seemed to increase as the time for the test of his mettle approached. In the meantime the commencement programme also bore the name of a black man, who had won his place on it by scholarship; and that both class day and commencement were this year more largely attended than for years past, was not a little due to public curiosity as to the real merit of the two speakers. The class orator, Clement Garnett Morgan, was the first to be tried. He had previously won a first Boylston prize for declamation, but otherwise had been little known in college. His very black, but not unpleasing face, looked singularly well under the Oxford cap of the day, and his scholar's robe lent a dignity to his naturally easy pose. He spoke to a critical, but very favorable audience, and received such applause at the beginning and end as very few class speakers ever win. This may have accounted for his embarrassment; for his evident nervous-

ness took away from his usual robust delivery, and his diminished voice was heard with difficulty in the remoter parts of the hall. The matter of his address was indifferent—no better and no worse than the conventional valedictory class oration.

— The commencement orator, on the other hand, achieved a distinct triumph. He had been twice a Boylston prize winner, but otherwise was no better known than Morgan. But whereas the latter's commonplaces were offset by the wit of two unusually bright men, the feeble and mediocre character of the other commencement parts served but as a foil to show off the striking quality of the colored man's. The scene, too, was more dramatic on commencement than on class day. Sanders Theatre was unusually crowded—largely on account of Mrs. Cleveland's presence; and the number of distinguished faces on the platform was also greater than common. When the name of William Edward Burghardt Du Bois was called, and a slender, intellectual-looking mulatto ascended the platform and made his bow to the President of the University, the Governor of Massachusetts, the Bishop of New York, and a hundred other notables, the applause burst out heartily, as if in recognition of the strange significance of his appearance there. His theme, "Jefferson Davis as a Representative of Civilization," heightened this significance. Du Bois not only far excelled Morgan in mere delivery, but handled his difficult and hazardous subject with absolute good taste, great moderation, and almost contemptuous fairness. He dwelt largely upon Davis's intellectual strength, personal courage, and private integrity, and passed over altogether those arrogant traits which made him enemies even in his own camp. In contrast to this strong man, this Teutonic type, as he called it, he then set up the patient, trustful, submissive African as a type of citizen the world would some day honor. For the moment the audience showed itself ready to honor this type as displayed in the orator.

THE FRENCH WEST INDIES.

Two Years in the French West Indies. By Lafcadio Hearn. Harper & Brothers. 1890.

NOT long ago an American newspaper, published in the interests of the commercial classes, alluded to the West Indian Islands as "a dumping ground for the refuse dairy produce of the United States." The Caribbee Islands are not, however, without other uses to the world at large. Since regular steam communication has been established between them and North America, numbers of Americans have taken a run down the islands—some with return tickets, while others, in want of change of climate or of scene, have dwelt awhile in those sunny lands. One of the results of this coming and going of Americans has been the publication, in newspapers, in periodicals, and in books, of descriptions of these newly discovered holiday resorts. Of these productions of our travelled thanes, the one which has hitherto proved the most popular, and which has found great favor with West Indians themselves, is that entitled 'Down the Islands,' a cheery, breezy volume, in which the author writes of his trip as if he thoroughly enjoyed it. And now comes Mr. Lafcadio Hearn, with his delightful account of his 'Two Years in the French West Indies.'

In the summer of 1887, Mr. Hearn started on a trip to the tropics. Apparently he went only for an outing. But, landing at the French island of Martinique, it so fascinated him that, after running down the islands, and proceeding to British Guiana, he returned to the *Pays des Revenants*, as he tells us Martinique is historically called, for a stay of "some months." He remained there for two years. Besides Martinique, the French own the West Indian islands of Guadeloupe and St. Bartholomew. They are also possessed of a portion of Guiana on the main, the name of a district in which, Cayenne, is well known for the pungency of its prepared pepper, and as a hot corner for convicts and *récidivistes*. Mr. Hearn's book deals almost wholly with the colony of Martinique, which is, indeed, the principal possession of the French in those parts.

Mr. Hearn rightly disclaims importance for his introductory chapter, to which he has given the title of "A Midsummer Trip to the Tropics." As a passenger on board of a merchant steamer which put into ports for a few hours at a time, or at most for a couple of days, to take in or to discharge cargo, what opportunities did he have for observing the inner life of the peoples of the various colonies? As it is, he has ventured to generalize upon "the visual and emotional impressions" of the moment. Thus, the notoriously rough boatmen and 'longshoremen of Bridgetown, Barbados, are taken as specimens of the Barbadian-African generally, and are then compared, with disadvantage, to the African of the French islands. By the way, Mr. Hearn credits the Barbadian blacks with speaking "excellent English." He says they speak English "with a strong Old Country accent." Their English neighbors in the adjacent islands say that Barbadians speak with an unmistakable American twang. It is not far from the truth to say that Barbadians speak English in an Old English way. They illustrate in their intonation of language the principle of survival, which in like manner may be identified on a market-day in an English country town. How is it, though, that Mr. Hearn does not notice the fact that George Washington spent some weeks in Barbados, when he visited it with his elder brother Lawrence, on account of the latter's ill health? Are there no records in the island of the Beefsteak Club to which the Father of his Country had admission during his stay, or must we content ourselves with the bare record of the fact as given by Sparks?

Again, is there nothing in the island to throw light upon the visit paid to it, in 1813, for his health's sake, by Light Horse Harry? Must we remain content with the paragraph in one of the old Barbados papers, which noted the landing there on the 21st of June, 1813, of Maj.-Gen. Henry Lee? Similarly of the other colonies. Facts are wanting to illustrate the years of the youth of Alexander Hamilton in his island home, Nevis, and in Santa Cruz and St. Kitt's. We want fresh details of Lawrence's fight in the *Hornet* with the British vessel of war *Peacock* off the coast of Guiana. Mr. Hearn tells us how Semmes escaped with the *Alabama* from Palmer in the *Tuscarora*, in the waters of Martinique, but he wholly omits mention of the fact that Semmes, in the *Sumter*, had before that evaded capture by Wilkes in the *Vanderbilt*, in those same waters. It would be well if our travellers took more note of the old associations between the British possessions in the Caribbean Sea and the great Republic, as numbers of families now rooted in the United States have sprung from forefathers who originally emigrated to Barbados and to others of the old English West Indian Islands.

In 'Two Years in the French West Indies' we have a study of life in a French tropical colony. Nature, also, is depicted for us in all her gorgeousness by the glowing pen of Mr. Hearn. He has caught the brilliance of tropical coloring and has impressed its hues upon his own pages. The chapters in which he paints for us the scenery of Martinique are the most successful attempt yet made to give word pictures of Nature arrayed in the luxuriance of tropical splendor. At the same time we have, with all the freshness of lifelike portraiture, a succession of vignettes of the work-a-day life of the laboring classes of Martinique. Mr. Hearn writes in full sympathy with these dusky toilers, and upon his narrative he engrafts incidents which are often deeply pathetic. These he relates with dramatic skill. In the French West Indies, as in the British colonies of Trinidad, Grenada, St. Lucia, and Dominica, the laboring classes speak a patois of the French language. So admirably has Mr. Hearn rendered his frequent quotations from this patois that we hardly think we do him an injustice in suggesting that, in the rendering, he may have received some assistance from his friend M. Leopold Arnoux, notary of St. Pierre, Martinique, to whom he has in fond terms dedicated his book.

Mr. Hearn is nothing if not æsthetical. His literary vice is in his sometimes letting the æsthetic sense run away with him. Life is too short for us to attempt to specify the quite too confusing varieties of blue that the author has noted in sea and sky. The differentiation of tints among the "fruit-colored populations" is overdone. Then how prodigious is the "tail of some unutterable bird"! The streets of St. Pierre are "lemon-tinted." The red limbs of the women carriers, locally called *porteuses*, take in the changing glow an "impossible tint." Of colored boys bathing, we are told that their "flesh does not look like flesh, but like fruit pulp"! All which reminds us of the æsthetical description of the intensely educated lower limbs of that eminent tragedian, Mr. Irving: "His right leg is limpid and utter; his left leg is a poem." While, however, the ordinary understanding reels in attempting to rise to the heights of our author's æsthetical furor, the book abounds with the charm of true poetical description. There is "an "indescribable caress in it," as Mr. Hearn himself says of the tropical breeze. If we have a fault to find, it is that there is not more of the book. Why has Mr. Hearn confined his studies to the life of the laboring classes? How delightful it would have been to have had some word-pictures of the life of the creole whites, whose power is passing away. Then, too, something fresh might have been gleaned about the risen and rising among the colored people. When the latter can supply members to the Chamber of Deputies in Paris—notably such a capable man as M. Vielle-Réache, a Deputy from Guadeloupe—there must surely be something to tell of the class whence they sprang. It is of this class that the outside world most needs to have correct information. Their white fellow-colonists will not, in many cases, get to know them, and hence are but too prone to misunderstand, to misjudge, and to misrepresent them. As, however, the men of color must year by year come more and more to the front, we hope that some of our travellers will yet discover that the whites and the laboring classes do not represent all the social forces in those colonies.

Those who know the West Indies, and those who wish to learn about the West Indies, will alike take pleasure in reading Mr. Hearn's book. He not only tells of the present, but gives glimpses of the past. A very pleasant account is that of Father Labat, both priest and planter, whose 'Voyage to the West In-

dies' is such a mine for those who write about the archipelago. Old Father Dutertre, too, has honorable mention. The description given in the chapter with the title "La Vérette," of life in St. Pierre in 1887 and 1888, when smallpox was playing havoc among the inhabitants, is a literary triumph. All, however, of Mr. Hearn's other pictures in words are done to the life.

Pure Logic, and Other Minor Works. By W. Stanley Jevons. Edited by Robert Adamson and Harriet A. Jevons. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

THOUGH called Minor, these are scientifically Jevons's most important writings. As when they first appeared, they impress us by their clearness of thought, but not with any great power. The first piece, "Pure Logic," followed by four years De Morgan's "Syllabus of Logic," a dynamically luminous and perfect presentation of an idea. In comparison with that, Jevons's work seemed, and still seems, feeble enough. Its leading idea amounts to saying that existence can be asserted indirectly by denying the existence of something else. But among errors thick as autumn leaves in Vallambrosa, the tract contains a valuable suggestion, a certain modification of Boole's use of the symbol + in logic. This idea, directly suggested by De Morgan's work, soon presented itself independently to half-a-dozen writers. But Jevons was first in the field, and the idea has come to stay. Mr. Venn is alone in his dissent.

The substance of the second piece in this volume, the "Substitution of Similars," is in its title. Cicero had a wart on his nose; so Burke would be expected to have something like it. This is Mill's inference from particulars to particulars. As a matter of psychology, it is true the one statement suggests the other, but logical connection between them is wholly wanting. The substitution of similars might well be taken as the grand formula of bad reasoning.

Both these tracts warmly advocate the quantification of the predicate—that it is preferable in formal logic to take A=B as the fundamental form of proposition rather than "If A, then B," or "A belongs among the Bs." The question is not so important as Jevons thought it to be; but we give his three arguments with refutations. First, he says the copula of identity is logically simpler than the copula of inclusion. Not so, for the statement that "man=rational animal" is equivalent to a compound of two propositions with the copula of inclusion, namely, "If anything is a man, it is a rational animal," and "If anything is a rational animal, it is a man." True, Jevons replies that these propositions can be written with a copula of identity, A AB. But A and B are not symmetrically situated here. They are not simply joined by a sign of equality. Second, Jevons says that logic takes a more unitary development with the proposition of identity than with that of inclusion. He thinks his doctrines of not quantified logic and the substitution of similars call for this copula, but this is quite an error. And then an inference supposes that if the premises are true, the conclusion is true. The relation of premises to conclusion is thus just that of the terms of the proposition of inclusion. Thus the illative "ergo" is really a copula of inclusion. Why have any other? Third, Jevons holds the proposition of identity to be the more natural. But, psychologically, propositions spring from association. The subject suggests the predicate. Now the difficulty of saying the words of any familiar thing backwards shows that the suggesting and suggested cannot immediately change places.

The third piece in the volume describes Jevons's logical machine, in every respect inferior to that of Prof. Allan Marquand, and adequate only to inferences of childish simplicity. The higher kinds of reasoning concerning relative terms cannot (as far as we can yet see) be performed mechanically.

The fourth paper advocates the treatment of logic by means of arithmetic—without previous logical analysis of the conception of number, which would call for the logic of relatives. To exhibit the power of his method, Jevons shows that it draws at once such a difficult conclusion as this: "For every man in the house, there is a person who is aged; some of the men are not aged. It follows, that some of the persons in the house are not men." Unfortunately, this is an exhibition not of the power of the method, but of its imbecility, since the reasoning is not good. For if we substitute for "person," even number, for "man," whole number; for "aged," double of an integer, we get this wonderful reasoning: "Every whole number has its double; some whole numbers are not doubles of integers. Hence, some even numbers are not whole numbers."

The remainder of the book is taken up with Jevons's articles against Mill, which were interrupted by his death. The first relates to Mill's theory of mathematical reasoning, which in its main features is correct. The only defect which Jevons brings out is, that no satisfactory mode of proving the approximate truth of the geometrical axioms is indicated. But this is a question of physical, not of mathematical, reasoning. The second criticism, relating to resemblance, seems due to Jevons's not seizing the distinction between a definite attribute, which is a resemblance between its subjects, and Resemblance in general, as a relation between attributes. The third paper concerns Mill's theory of induction. That theory may be stated as follows: When we remark that a good many things of a certain kind have a certain character, and that no such things are found to want it, we find ourselves disposed to believe that all the things of that kind have that character. Though we are unable, at first, to defend this inference, we are none the less under the dominion of the tendency so to infer. Later, we come to the conclusion that certain orders of qualities (such as location) are very variable even in things which otherwise are closely similar, others (as color) are generally common to narrow classes, others again (as growth) to very wide classes. There are, in short, many uniformities in nature; and we come to believe that there is a general and strict uniformity. By making use of these considerations according to four certain methods, we are able to distinguish some inductions as greatly preferable to others. Now, if it be really true that there is a strict uniformity in nature, the fact that inductive inference leads to the truth receives a complete explanation. We believe in our inferences, because we are irresistibly led to do so; and this *theory* shows why they come out true so often. Such is Mill's doctrine. It misses the essential and dwells on secondary features of scientific inference; but it is an intelligible doctrine, not open to the charge of paltering inconsistency which Mr. Jevons brings against it.

No doubt there is a good deal of truth in Jevons's criticism of Mill, who was a sagacious but not a very close thinker, and whose style, very perspicuous for him who reads rapidly, is almost impenetrably obscure to him who inquires more narrowly into its meaning. But Mill's examination of Hamilton has a logical penetration and force which we look for in vain in Jevons's articles on Mill.

When We Were Boys: A Novel. By William O'Brien, M.P. Longmans, Green & Co.

THERE are few more striking personalities in British politics than William O'Brien. Ten years ago, an unknown writer on the Dublin daily press; then sent abroad for his health and corresponding on Egyptian affairs; returning to throw himself into the Land League agitation, and be incarcerated with Mr. Parnell in Kilmainham (being separated from a dying mother, to whom he was tenderly attached); the editor of *United Ireland;* above all other members of the Irish Parliamentary party, the darling of the Irish people, perhaps the most hated by Mr. Balfour; a lion in the face of imprisonment and opposition, a very lamb in private intercourse; just married to Miss Raffalovitch, a French writer, an heiress, who, apparently for his sake, has joined the Catholic Church—he has now given us this novel. It was written during his last imprisonment, and is dedicated "To John Dillon, in memory of anxious years and glorious hopes." The scenes are laid in Ireland in the Fenian times of from twenty to twenty-five years ago. It is in the main a history of young Ken Rohan, from the day when he leaves his mother's side for school, until, sentence of death having been remitted, he is, as "convict 575," condemned to penal servitude for life, on account of participation in the Fenian movement—"and with this we reach what we at first suppose to be, but which we are assured is NOT THE END."

"Within our own generation, innumerable Irish hearts as young and lightsome as Ken Rohan's have been quenched in penal servitude, and innumerable Irish mothers, sweethearts, and sisters have wept at the prison gates. An Irish novelist, if he loved his youths or maidens, had only to make them die or suffer. The writer's besetting difficulty throughout was how to soften for strangers' ears those minor chords of sorrow which haunt Irish life like night winds sighing through one of our ruined shrines."

The 550 closely printed pages, with their redundancy of adjectives and proper names, and similes, and italicised words in French, Italian, German, and Irish, will not be generally attractive. The style is often careless, and there are many sins against good taste and defects of diction and construction. The chief characters are unreal, the action frequently unnatural. To the Irish reader it is redeemed as a novel by the remarkable reality and naturalness of the distinctively Irish characters portrayed, their conversation and ideas being true to the life. Doubtless many casual and busy readers will lay aside the book with a feeling of disappointment. Those, on the other hand, who have sufficient interest in Irish affairs, sufficient desire to understand Irish feeling and the springs of Irish thought, will have their reward in reading it. We know few works of a similar character throwing so much light on the subject. It is eminently fair-minded. Irish faults are portrayed as clearly as Irish virtues. Its perusal would be a good antidote to those who dread Papal aggression in Ireland. Catholicism is presented in its best and most spiritual aspects, while its political pretensions are freely reprobated. The author often recurs to and dwells upon the law of love:

"Do you suppose you would find a human heart anywhere—in a cabin or in a prison—that was not made for sunshine as well as yours or mine, if you could only release it from its dungeon of suffering and unkindness?"

"How much happier a world it might be if people would only do as much for kindness as they do for love, and how many a million loveless hearts would be the brighter!"

"One like you is never done with love until he is done with life. When you have done adoring young women, you will find old ones more adorable, and when the old ones disappear, you will find children the most adorable of all."

The general unpunctuality in Ireland is thus lightly touched off:

"If this British Empire was advertised to burst up spontaneous at an hour and place named in the bills, provided the Irish people was punctual on time just for that one auspicious occasion, darned but you'd have Mick and Paddy mounching along half an hour too late, hoping they hadn't kep' anybody waiting."

And we read of "that first treasure of happiness and fatal disqualification for successful ambition—an easy temper."

The Irish-American is one of the best characters in the book; almost everything he says is good. The talk at the Gouganebarra pic-nic between him, the priest, and the clergyman contains some admirable passages, but they are too long for extract. The following are worth quoting as putting the Irish question in so many nutshells:

"It is supposed to be vulgar for a man who lives by the country [Ireland] to do anything but abuse it."

"English policy in Ireland has always proceeded upon the principle of governing by bribing somebody—anybody except the people to be governed."

"What is all Irish history but a pile of coffins of the young and brave!"

"Hearts break and homes crumble any way in Ireland. Two million of hearts were broken in this small island since you were of my age. . . . Enough Irish lives have been thrown away in this generation to have purchased us a hundred Marathons or Bannockburns—and we have nothing to show for it but the famine pits of Skibbereen."

"Sentiment and the round towers have outlived twenty generations of Strongbows and Cromwells."

Again, the author speaks of "those secretive peasants, over whose hides caution and dissimulation had grown encrusted like the cuirass on the backs of palæozoic animals accustomed to be preyed upon." There is true insight into life in this: "Our lives pass in stumbling over the stocks and stones of the prosaic mountains which glowed in the distance like mines of amethysts."

That fire, so dangerous to the British Empire, which, under the present system of government, smoulders in so many Irish hearts, is often revealed to us by Mr. O'Brien, as in a conversation between Ken Rohan's father and the priest over the lad's Fenian proclivities:

"We have grown old and of the peace, Myles—you because of the children and the mill, I because the Papal Legate in Dublin is an Italian monk in the garb of an Irish bishop; but if the French were in the bay again to-night, with those 15,000 troops and the 100,000 stand of arms, do you think Master Ken's heart would beat a little more wildly than yours or mine, in spite of mills or cardinals?"

We doubt if this work will live as a novel; but there is so much feeling in it, so much life and truth and genuine Irish humor and poetry, that, in spite of its numerous faults, it will find a permanent place in many collections of books relating to Ireland. We are glad that a page remains between what is "NOT THE END" and the author's last word:

"Irishmen have discovered a saner resource than the wild weapons of boyish insurrection, and Englishmen a more glorious revenge than a handcuffed wrist and a convict's brand. The issue between humanity and barbarism—between love and hate—is even at this moment trembling in the balance."

We ought to add that the Messrs. Longman are the only authorized publishers of this novel in the United States.

The Art of Authorship: Literary Reminiscences, Methods of Work, and Advice to Young Beginners. Personally contributed by leading authors of the day. Compiled and edited by George Bainton. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

THE vanity of authors is proverbial, and their innocent unwariness is almost as well established in common belief. We owe the present volume, in about equal measure, to these traits in the literary class. The editor is not known to us, but it is plain that he uses a honeyed pen in correspondence, and in reply to his flattering appeal an unusually large number of the elect have fallen into the snare with a crowd of minor authors and authoresses from twenty years of age to fourscore. It seems that the entire craft in England and America, with representatives from Germany and France, was invited to tell the "young aspirant" how "to learn to write," and in particular to teach by example, confiding to the editor for publication the history of how each "learned to write" in his or her own case; and here we have the result made up of extracts from the letters received. There is, altogether, much agreement in the advice given. It appears that very many authors regard their "art" as, in one way or another, a "gift," which can be improved but never acquired; it is not only the poet, these affirm, who is "born, not made," but the three-volume novelist likewise. Many also unite in the opinion that the "young aspirant" should endeavor to make himself understood, should use easy words, short ones if possible, and should be "true to himself or herself." The method of learning "how to write" which has a large majority in its favor is—"to write." It seems that nearly all actually learned what they know of the art in just that way. Another bit of advice, reiterated so often that it must be of importance, is "to read good books." A few put much stress on this, and ascribe much to it in their own cases. Thus, the Lord Bishop of Carlisle thinks his style is chiefly due to reading mathematics at Cambridge, Ernest Myers owes very much to the Greek classics, and "Virgil did a great deal" for G. P. Lathrop. Mr. Lewis Morris, who remarks that he "generally fails to satisfy himself in prose and often in verse," acknowledges his indebtedness for clearness to his "experience as a conveyancing counsel of long practice in drafting legal instruments," and he seems to suggest that Robert Browning and George Meredith might have profited by his example. Sir Edwin Arnold says that the good writer "never commits the fault of tautology," or "employs redundant epithets" (speaking, of course, with an eye to his own style); Sir M. Monier Williams advises "abstemiousness in the use of adjectives"; and Sir J. Fitz James Stephen confines himself to denouncing with accustomed vigor "the misuse of pronouns." Cuthbert Bede says you should cross your "t's." There are over three hundred pages of these admirable counsels from distinguished gentlemen and others, all tending to show that a common-school rhetoric is to be trusted.

The well-meaning editor has not confined his extracts from the letters merely to the subject in hand. He has included a good share of autobiography in the way of "confessions." Mr. J. A. Symonds, for example, tells of his college days, John Boyle O'Reilly and Lew Wallace give some spice of adventure, and here and there a female novelist contributes reminiscences in a light and sparkling style. Marie Corelli relates how she "disburdened her mind of certain thoughts that clamored for utterance," and produced 'A Romance of Two Worlds,' the instant success of which gave her to literature. She has studied "Homer and the classics, the best French, German, and Italian authors, together with all the finest works in the English language," but as for newspapers, which she "detests," "the mere news stated in the telegrams has always sufficed for me." Naturally, she does not write for money or reputation, having the former "without exertion," and regarding the latter as "not worth a pin's point in the general economy of the universe"; and so she declares that "art always frowns on those who are too ready to barter her for gold." There is much more of her experience (at "four and twenty"), but we give so much as an example of the prattle (both masculine and feminine) that occasionally glitters on the page. It relieves Dr. Freeman's vehemence against those who think him diffuse, or Julian Hawthorne's lament that he has insufficient leisure and opportunity for producing the best literature, and Edgar Fawcett's regret that he "should be so ill-known amongst her [England's] vast throngs of intelligent readers."

But quotation fails us in the effort to do justice to upwards of 150 authors who have told here the secret of success in literature and much else. One gleans much from the volumes besides wisdom. The number of writers who had no training whatever is noticeably large—though few are so frank as Mrs. E. L. Linton, who declares that she is "always finding out some new error of style or syntax of which I am habitually guilty"; but such difficulties, it is clear, can be overcome, and altogether the volume is encouraging to the "young aspirant," whether he be educated or not, provided he has "the gift" that "clamors for words." The volume is, as will be seen, very various in matter, but one thing is constant in it—the good-nature of the editor, who was appreciative of every style, and of the eight-score authors who were willing to assist his laudable design of helping the "young aspirant" by talking about themselves.

Adventures in the Great Forest of Equatorial Africa and the Country of the Dwarfs. By Paul Du Chaillu. With map and illustrations. Abridged and popular edition. Harper & Bros. 1890. Pp. xviii, 476. 8vo.

IT is now nearly thirty years since Mr. Du Chaillu published the first volume of his travels in western Africa, containing an account of the gorilla, the cannibals, and the dwarfs. It excited much interest at the time, as well as a lively controversy, now happily well-nigh forgotten. This and the succeeding volumes, relating to his second expedition to the same region of the Gaboon and Ogoway Rivers, have been condensed as above. The story is always interesting and well told, but it has now only an historical value, the territory in question having been since thoroughly explored by the Marquis de Compiègne, Oskar Lenz, Savorgnan de Brazza, and many others. Considering Du Chaillu's age—he was not twenty-one when he started on his first expedition—his achievements were certainly remarkable and should give him a high rank among modern explorers. Though he did not penetrate much over 200 miles from the coast, yet he travelled nearly 10,000 miles on foot without any white companion. His collections consisted of 2,000 birds, including many new species, and 200

quadrupeds, of which 20 were new species. His description of the dwarfs whom he found in the forests of the Ogoway is so general that it is impossible to determine whether they have any race connection with the pygmies whom Stanley discovered in the great Aruwimi forest. They were certainly much larger, for the tallest of seven of the Obongos whom Du Chaillu measured was 60¼ inches, and the shortest 52¼ inches, the average height being slightly over 55¾ inches. Of fifty dwarfs captured by the Stanley expedition, only one reached the height of 54 inches, the others varying from 39 to 50 inches. In one important respect the two accounts agree, in stating that the larger natives tolerate the presence of the dwarfs because of their skill and usefulness in hunting and trapping birds and other game.

Diaries of Sir Moses and Lady Montefiore. Comprising their Life and Work as Recorded in their Diaries from 1812 to 1883, etc. Edited by Dr. L. Loewe, assisted by his Son. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xii, 389, x, 363. Chicago: Belford-Clarke Co. 1890.

SIR MOSES MONTEFIORE occupied a unique position among his contemporaries. Connected by marriage with the richest family in the world, he acquired an independent fortune early in life, and for nearly half a century devoted his restless energies to unremitting efforts at ameliorating the condition of his race in all parts of the world. The secret of the great success which so frequently crowned his efforts is to be sought in his habit of promptly repairing to the spot where anything required to be done and doing it himself, instead of sending some one else to do it. Thus, he made seven separate voyages to Palestine on errands of mercy, the last of them in his ninety-first year. What is more, in 1882, when the anti-Jewish riots in Russia aroused the indignation of the civilized world, and a relief fund of over half a million of dollars was raised in London, he offered, although ninety-eight years old, to journey to Russia to intercede with the Czar. In the course of the various missions he undertook he had interviews with nearly all the potentates of his time, and never failed of a favorable answer to his petitions for justice to his people. He was never discouraged or dismayed, and on more than one occasion proceeded calmly on his way when more timid souls scented danger and counselled him to retreat. The reports he made to the Emperor Nicholas in 1846 on the condition and character of the Jews in Russia disposed of many calumnies in regard to their industrial status, showed that much of what was objectionable was the direct result of cruel and oppressive legislation, and prevailed upon the Czar to suspend the ukase against the Jews. The numerous other concessions of liberty and legal equality which he obtained from the Sultans of Turkey and Morocco and from other monarchs are too well known to need recounting here.

His sincere piety, and the great strictness with which he observed the minutest ritual and dietary regulations of his faith, give an additional peculiarity to his character, and remind one of similar traits in the Earl of Shaftesbury, who was animated by the same philanthropic motives, and entertained so great an admiration for him whom he called "that grand old Hebrew patriarch," that he suggested to Disraeli and, later, to Gladstone, the propriety of raising Sir Moses to the peerage. Not the least interesting point in his life is its great length, as he presents one of the very few authenticated instances in modern times of an actual centenarian retaining all his faculties to the last day.

Altogether, here was a man whose career was worthy of being commemorated, and afforded abundant material to furnish forth an interesting and instructive record. His memoir now given to the public does not, however, fulfil any reasonable expectations. While omitting various particulars which might have been useful in bringing the individuality of Sir Moses out in bolder relief, it is extended to an inordinate length by the insertion of many trivial details, which might be acceptable if mentioned once, or even twice, but are repeated so often as to become intolerably tedious. The result is, that what is really important is swamped in a mass of dreary commonplace and misses its legitimate effect. Instead of digesting his materials and producing an organized book, the editor has simply pieced together scraps from the diaries which were placed at his disposal, and seems to have made no attempt at arranging them in any order except a chronological one. Of affording any literary aid to the reader through the resulting maze, he appears to entertain only the most rudimentary ideas. Such a simple expedient as printing the year at the top of the page or in the margin has not occurred to him.

It is perhaps superfluous to add that the book has no index. The illustrations are such as might have been passable a quarter of a century ago. What the American republishers mean by claiming copyright on the reverse of the title-page, is a mystery which we do not undertake to explain.

The Supplices of Æschylus. Edited by T. G. Tucker, M.A., Professor of Classical Philology in the University of Melbourne. Macmillan & Co.

FROM the opposite side of the world comes this elaborate and learned edition of the "Supplices," which the publishers present in one of those beautiful octavo volumes in whose praise we have several times had occasion to speak during the last two or three years. Within the memory of men still living and working, Melbourne was not. Now, Mr. Tucker, after enumerating near the beginning of his preface the various sources from which he has drawn, says that they "practically place the antipodean student on an equality of equipment with the European." He has only one complaint to make, one reason to ask for indulgence. That is contained in the closing sentence of his preface: "It is not so much that our literary stores and appliances are insufficient as that there is a want of that ready help and advice, and of that sympathy of pursuit, which the European student can enjoy so plentifully."

Of the thirty-two Greek tragedies that time has spared, the "Supplices" of Æschylus has come down to us in the most woful condition. Of the four MSS. on which the text of the drama is founded, one, the *Mediceus*, of the eleventh century, is generally acknowledged to be very corrupt, while the other three, two of the fifteenth and one of the sixteenth century, are by most critics regarded merely as bad copies of the first. Hence almost, perhaps quite, every line of the play has been the subject of conjectural emendation. In fact, a commentary on the "Supplices" is necessarily occupied not so much with explaining the meaning of the text as with constructing a text which shall have a meaning. Mr. Tucker gives, on the average, on each page five lines of text, in what he supposes to have been its original form. Beneath this are critical notes in Latin, which contain the results of the labors of all the previous editors—Hermann, Dindorf, Oberdick, Paley, and a long list of others; the remaining, and far the largest portion of the page, is occupied by his commentary in English. His critical notes also give the reading of the oldest MS. wherever it differs from his own, and of the other MSS. wherever they seemed worthy of notice. At the end is a literal prose translation of his own text and an index to his notes.

In his preface and introduction Prof. Tucker has stated very fully and illustrated by numerous examples the principles and rules which have guided him in his attempts to restore the text. He seems to have worked with the greatest care, diligence, and conscientiousness. But, after all, when we possess practically but one MS., and that contains many passages destitute alike of grammar, of metre, and of sense, however ingeniously an editor may "emend" them into something answering all these requirements, an impartial reader cannot help feeling that he is a long way from being certain that what the editor offers is what the author wrote; and whatever slight probability there may be that such is the case, that probability becomes infinitesimally small when we find three or four different editors, equally learned and ingenious, each attaining the same end in a different way. But, all this apart, the "Supplices" still resembles many of the remains of Greek sculpture which, though battered and mutilated, yet glow with beauty and grace. Prof. Tucker says (p. xviii) that vv. 604–688 are "the most beautiful lyric composition in Greek drama." We should certainly prefer to refresh our recollection of some of the other masterpieces of Greek tragedy before giving assent to this assertion.

We can notice but one more point. The date of the play is generally fixed at 461 or 462 B. C. Prof. Tucker places it thirty years earlier, in 491 or 492 B. C., when Æschylus was thirty-three years old. We have no room to state Prof. Tucker's arguments or additional reasons of our own, but with his general conclusion that it is the earliest extant Greek drama we most unqualifiedly agree. On the whole, we think Prof. Tucker's edition of the "Supplices" the most useful at present attainable. That it is the handsomest there can be no doubt.

The Prophet of Palmyra: Mormonism reviewed and examined in the life, character, and career of its founder, from "Cumorah Hill" to Carthage Jail and the Desert. Together with a Complete History of the Mormon Era in Illinois, and an exhaustive investigation of the "Spalding Manuscript" Theory of the Origin of the Book of Mormon. By Thomas Gregg. New York: John B. Alden. 12mo, pp. xv, 552.

THIS seems to be an honest effort at compiling the history of the growth of Mormonism, and its progress in this country down to the establishment of the Mormons in Utah. The writer is a citizen of Illinois, whose memory reaches the period of the heyday of prosperity at Nauvoo, and the murder of Joe Smith and his brother by the mob at Carthage. His personal knowledge, however, is limited to the general public feeling in Illinois at the time, for he does not seem to have been a witness himself of any important events in the history. It can hardly be said that the book bears out the pretensions of the title-page, for it is not a complete or exhaustive investigation of Mormon history or doctrine. It is rather a taking popular treatment of the story, and, in the matter of the Spalding manuscript, has some valuable original evidence. For serious historical pur-

poses it lacks evidence of the searching care and full investigation which the subject demands; but perhaps it is more likely to suit the popular taste than if its grasp were stronger or its research more exhaustive.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Register for 1889. London: Rivingtons.
Azarias, Brother. An Essay Contributing to a Philosophy of Literature. 6th ed. New York: P. O'Shea. $1.60.
Balzac, H. de. The Devil's Daughter. Am. News Co. 50 cents.
Bates, Katherine L. Hermit Island. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Björnson, B. In God's Way. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Brooks, E. S. A Son of Issachar. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Brown, E. C. Directory of American Gas Companies: Gas Statistics. New York. $5.
Caldwell, Rev. S. L. Cities of Our Faith, and Other Discourses and Addresses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Campbell, Prof. D. H. Elements of Structural and Systematic Botany. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Cary, Rev. H. F. Dante's Paradiso. Scribner & Welford. 60 cents.
Clendenin, Rev. F. M. Idols by the Sea, and Other Sermons. 2d ed. James Pott & Co.
Cutler, Julia P. Life and Times of Ephraim Cutler. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.50.
Cyclopedia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States. Seeger & Guernsey Co. $6.
Dietrich, O. Introduction to Grammar. Milwaukee, Wis.: 90 cents.
Feuillet, O. An Artist's Honor. Cassell Publishing Co.
Fitzgerald, P. King Theodore of Corsica. Scribner & Welford. $4.
Ford, P. L. "The Sayings of Poor Richard." G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Fraser, Prof. A. C. Locke. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Freeman, A. C. American State Reports. Vol. XII. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Funny Stories Told by Phineas T. Barnum. Geo. Routledge & Sons.
Gallavardin, Dr. Homœopathic Treatment of Alcoholism. Philadelphia: Hahnemann Publishing House.
Gems from the East: A Birthday Book. New York: W. Q. Judge.
Hallock, C. The Salmon Fisher. New York: The Harris Publishing Co. $1.
Harmony in Praise. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hartshorne, Dr. H. Bertram the Prince: An Idyl. Philadelphia.
Hatch, Mary R. P. The Bank Tragedy: A Novel. Welch, Fracker Co.
Haynes, Mary S. The Crown of Life. From the Writings of Henry Ward Beecher. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Heyne, Dr. M. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Ehe—G. B. Westermann & Co. $1.25.
Howells, W. D. The Shadow of a Dream. Harper & Bros.
Hughes, T. Tom Brown's School Days. London: Macmillan & Co. 25 cents.
Jackson, F. G. Decorative Design: An Elementary Text-book. London: Chapman & Hall.
Kingsley, C. Hereward the Wake. Macmillan & Co. 25 cents.
Lankester, E. R. The Advancement of Science: Occasional Essays and Addresses. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Laurie, Prof. S. S. Lectures on Language and Linguistic Method in the School. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Macquoid, Katherine S. The Haunted Fountain, and Hetty's Revenge. John W. Lovell Co. 30 cents.
Masson, Prof. D. Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. 8. Speculative and Theological Essays. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
May Blossoms: Poems by Lilian, G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
McCarthy, J. H. The French Revolution. Vol. I. Harper & Bros.
McGovern, J. Burritt Durand: A Tale of the Middle West. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Memorial Meeting of the Syracuse Browning Club. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Fardeen. $1.
Muir, T. Theory of Indeterminants, in the Historical Order of its Development. Part I. Determinants in General. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Musical Year-Book of the United States. Vol. 7. Boston: G. H. Wilson. $1.
Nettleship, Prof. H. The Moral Influence of Literature: Classical Education in the Past and at Present. London: Percival & Co.
Nichol, Prof. J., and McCormick, W. S. Questions and Exercises on English Composition. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
O'Brien, Rev. C. Aminta: A Modern Life Drama. D. Appleton & Co.
Page, T. E. P. Vergili Maronis Aeneidos Lib. III. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Payn, J. The Burnt Million. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Philips, F. C., and Fendall, P. A Daughter's Sacrifice. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Rathbone, W. History and Progress of District Nursing. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Remains, Historical and Literary, connected with the Palatine Counties of Lancaster and Chester. Vol. 18. Manchester: The Chetham Society.
Richards, J. The Law of Wages, the Rate and Amount. San Francisco: Industrial Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Ruskin Library: Sesame and Lilies, Ethics of the Dust, Crown of Wild Olives, Queen of the Air. John Wiley & Sons. $4.
Rutherford, W. G. First Greek Grammar Accidence. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Scheffel, J. V. von. Ekkehard: A Tale of the Tenth Century. 2 vols. W. S. Gottsberger.
Schrader, Prof. O. Prehistoric Antiquities of the Aryan Peoples. Scribner & Welford. $6.75.
Smith, A. Dreamthorp. Rochester, N. Y.: Geo. P. Humphrey. $1.25.
Smith, G. G. The Days of James IV. (1488–1513). Scottish History by Contemporary Writers. London: David Nutt.
Stokes, W. Lives of Saints from the Book of Lismore. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $8.
Syllabus of Elementary Dynamics. I. Linear Dynamics. Macmillan & Co. 30 cents.
The Church of the British Isles. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.25.
Wentworth, Prof. G. A School Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Wheelbarrow: Articles and Discussions on the Labor Question. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.
Wheeler, J. T. Indian History, Asiatic and European. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.

FOR SUMMER.

Entomology for Beginners.

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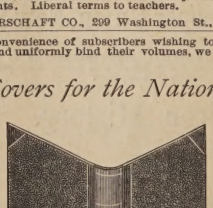

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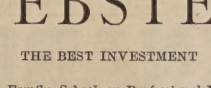

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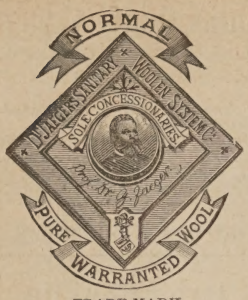

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1890.

The Week.

SPEAKER REED has forced through the Federal Election Bill, as it has been expected that he would do ever since he had it made a caucus measure. Many Republicans were opposed to this policy, but only three had independence enough to array themselves against the bill on the final vote. The measure is one of the most revolutionary in its character ever proposed, inasmuch as it takes the control of the Congressional elections from the States, which have always exercised it, and gives it to appointees of the Federal Government—in other words, of the party in power at Washington. This would be the longest step towards centralization ever taken since the foundation of the Government.

It is gratifying to learn, upon such good Republican authority as the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press*, that Senators Allison and Aldrich, upon the Republican side, and Mr. Gorman and other Senators upon the Democratic, express the opinion that their branch of Congress will be ready to adjourn by the 1st of August; "and three Republican Senators, who did not care to be quoted, privately expressed the opinion that 'the Election Bill would not be considered by the Senate at this session.'" It is obvious that the bill could not be passed in the Senate without a change of the rules, inasmuch as the Democrats would talk it to death if it should be taken up, and Mr. Edmunds has given notice that the rules shall not be changed so as to infringe upon the present freedom of debate. The idea seems to be to let the House pass the bill and get whatever political credit it is supposed may be thus secured, and then have the Senate assume an air of magnanimity. As "a prominent Republican," quoted by the correspondent of the *Press*, puts it: "It may be that the Republicans will not care to put the Election Bill through the Senate at this session, in order to give the Democrats an opportunity to redeem their promise of fair play at next autumn's elections. They insist that elections in the South are fair, and we will accept next fall's results as a test, putting aside their past well-known record. If, however, the same old means are employed in the South to carry the elections, the Senate next winter can pass the bill." So long as the bill does not become a law, the public will not care much what theories Republican Senators construct to explain their inaction.

The *Valley Virginian*, published at Staunton, and the ablest Republican journal in Virginia, while admitting the constitutional right of Congress to pass a Force Bill, holds that the main question is its expediency—whether anything would be gained by its enactment, and whether it could be enforced were it enacted. This question it proceeds to answer as follows: "We are very sure it would be followed by strife and contention and bloodshed. We know generally who get hurt in such issues. Taking the past as a guide, the record would be a sensation about negro aggression and a 'negro rising,' a conflict in which one or two white Democrats would have their shins skinned and a dozen or two negroes killed, and in the long run as many Democrats elected as has been the case in the past. Indeed, we believe the passage of the Lodge bill would reduce the number of Republican Representatives; throw some of the Southern States into turmoil and disorder; material progress be arrested, and harm generally be effected." The Force Bill was bound to go through the House because Speaker Reed had made up his mind to have it, but such arguments as these of the *Valley Virginian* ought to have some effect in the Senate.

Another "mining camp" becomes a State, the Senate having last week passed the House bill admitting Idaho to the Union. The Republicans in Congress thus add two more votes in the Senate for free silver coinage and against sound money; and when Wyoming is made a State, as it will shortly be, the Republican majority in the Senate will be increased, by the admission of the four new Senators, to fourteen, which it is hoped will prove large enough to offset any possible Democratic gains in that body for at least four years to come.

The Pennsylvania Democrats in their State Convention on July 2 had the wisdom to do exactly what their opponents did not want them to do, and to do precisely what the friends of pure government the country over hoped that they would do. A week ago, in the face of the many influences at work for Wallace—all the forces of Quayism on the Republican side being exerted in that direction—Pattison's nomination seemed improbable. Even his success in Convention is proof that the political immorality which placed the Harrisburg Convention in the control of a public thief, does not sway both parties in Pennsylvania, and if his nomination shall be followed up by his election, Pennsylvania will give Quayism a rebuke such as would not even have been administered by the defeat of Quay's candidate by the Republican Convention. Pattison and Black are a platform in themselves, and the brief resolutions adopted by the Convention cover the issues of the campaign. The Philadelphia *Press*, while conceding that the ticket "is probably the strongest the Democrats could put in the field," says in criticism of Mr. Pattison's course while Governor: "His restless ambition seemed always on the alert to find something in the nature of a corporation at which to strike. That was his capital and stock in trade, and it is *this dangerous and communistic trait*, doubtless, which will be pressed most zealously as his chief claim to public favor." If the Republicans will keep up their defence of Quay (silent or outspoken), and make their attack on Pattison on the ground that his zealous efforts as Governor to compel corporations to observe the Constitution and laws of the State were dangerous communism, there ought to be little doubt about the outcome of the campaign.

The report on the Patent Office just made by a committee of the National Civil-Service Reform League teaches a self-evident lesson. That lesson is, that no Administration can secure the credit and the benefits of a service founded on merit whose reform policy is made up of pieces. President Cleveland, coming into office as he did after his party had been long out of power, and finding nearly every Federal place filled by his political opponents, had a task of the most difficult kind to be consistent as regards the merit system and not stir up a party mutiny. What he did accomplish, therefore, in enforcing that system was doubly valuable as an example. But he detracted from his own good repute in surrendering certain branches of the Government, like the Patent Office, to the spoilsmen, and in every instance of this kind he injured the public service and weakened himself. President Harrison's support of the merit system is rather in the way of an exception than as a rule, the Patent Office being one of the marks to his credit. But no one would think of classing him as a civil-service reformer solely because of these exceptions, with such examples to the contrary as the census, the Wanamaker selection, and his subservience to Quay and the other bosses ever in sight. If the merit system is a good one, it is good for the whole Government service; and if the spoils system is a good one, the whole service ought to have the benefit of that. When we get a President who will hew to this mark, we shall get very near to the solution of the whole problem.

When our Minister to France was here negotiating with his party friends for a little reciprocity treaty with France, in which works of art should be admitted by us free of duty and the French prohibition of American pork products should be removed, he was told that the McKinley Administrative Bill would prove fatal to his project. The cable now informs us that a deputation has waited on M. Roche, the Minister of Commerce, to remonstrate against any relaxation of the French decree against American lard. The Minister replied that the vote on the McKinley Bill had changed the attitude of the Government towards America in a com-

mercial sense, and that France would not meet America's declaration of economic war by making concessions. That M. Roche referred to the McKinley Administrative Bill is altogether probable, since it is not customary for one Government to refer to the measures of another Government which are pending and incomplete. But whichever bill he may have had in mind, the prosperous negotiation of our Minister, upon the supposed accomplishment of which a banquet was recently given in Paris, is nipped in the bud. M. Roche was candid enough to say that the prohibition of American lard might have been one of the motives for passing the McKinley Bill. We do not think that it was, but if it had been, France would have no right to complain. Both countries are seeking a fool's paradise—striving to get rich by crippling trade. Both are sacrificing the consumer for the sake of the producer, and the many for the benefit of the few. It might be hard to decide which was most to blame.

The failure of Mr. Blaine's appeal for reciprocity with South America to awaken any response or even interest in Congress shows that the dominant party is not likely to be moved by any talk about pork duties or pork prohibition in Europe. What they want is less trade, not more trade. If there could be such a thing as selling without buying, that would suit our statesmen well enough. Senator Hiscock told us the other day how splendidly it would work. But since that cannot be, he prefers a system in which there is a minimum of either selling or buying. The eventual cure for both France and the United States is to be found in the most rigid adherence to the system, and its extension to as many articles of commerce as possible. Its ideal development would be the prohibition of international trade altogether. We hope that France, instead of wasting time in fruitless negotiations, will adopt all the "reprisals" against the McKinley Bill that her ingenuity can devise, and that the two republics may gradually close their ports against each other just as Fooltown and Boytown did in Bastiat's fable. In this way a starting-point may be found for the emancipation of the human intellect in both countries, which is of more importance to them than the selling of pork or of dry goods.

Mr. Columbus Delano celebrated the Fourth of July by issuing in behalf of the wool-growers a pronunciamiento against Senator Hale's amendment to the McKinley Tariff Bill. This amendment is designed to carry out Mr. Blaine's idea of reciprocity with South America. This, Mr. Delano says, "would work absolute ruin"; it would admit clothing-wools free of duty, and "your industry would perish." He warns the wool-growers, also, that other amendments are to be proposed in the Senate which will work a vast deal of harm. One of these amendments is to allow the "sorting" of carpet-wools, which Delano thinks ought to be sternly prohibited. Another proposes to omit "charges" in foreign ports as part of the dutiable value of carpet-wools. If charges are omitted, the dividing line between the two grades of carpet-wool will be lowered, to the great detriment of home industry. "We have thus," continues Delano, "briefly presented the difficulties and dangers which threaten the most important industry of the nation, *and which must be protected if our protective policy survives.*" Here is the point of the stiletto again. Give us what we want, or down comes your whole establishment.

While Mr. Delano was celebrating the Fourth and showing his dagger to the trembling carpet-manufacturers, the French Senate was drawing a knife also, much to the same purpose. It voted a prohibitory duty on Indian corn and corn meal, the same having previously passed the Chamber of Deputies. During the debate on this measure M. Foucher de Careil avowed that the prohibition of pork and that of corn rested on the same basis. Both were intended to protect French agriculture and both were right. M. Millaud called attention to the fact that American pork was only prohibited on account of its alleged unhealthfulness. He declared that that was merely a pretext. Corn could not be unhealthful even if pork was. Nevertheless the bill passed. The next measure will probably be an extra subsidy to the French steamers to compensate them for the loss of corn freights. This would no doubt give new encouragement and a fresh argument to Senator Frye in favor of subsidies to American steamers. First prohibit imports, then pay your ships for running empty, and call the whole thing a Restoration of Commerce. Who shall say that this is not an age of progress?

The State of Kansas is making a hard fight against the authority of the Federal Government. Under the "original-package" decision of the United States Supreme Court, sundry dealers began the sale of liquor in the capital of Kansas, as they undoubtedly have the right to do until Congress passes a bill giving the States authority to interfere with such traffic. The Kansas officials, however, attempted to usurp the power of overruling the Federal Court, and arrested the dealers; the Attorney-General contending that the packages were not "original" because they were small enough to suit retail purposes. This claim was absurd on its face, and Judge Foster of the United States Circuit Court has made short work of it, pointing out that the dissenting judges of the United States Supreme Court had made the scope of the decision and of the law as it now stands very clear, having expressly declared that whiskey and beer might be imported from one State into another and sold by the keg, case, bottle, in any quantity, large or small, provided it remained in the shape in which it was put up for shipment. Kansas has been very emphatic in maintaining that the States must yield to the authority of the Federal Government, but it is a disagreeable surprise to find that she must mind the Supreme Court of the nation when she does not like its orders.

The investigation of the lobby in the Massachusetts Legislature has had a lame and impotent conclusion. The Committee reserved most of its censure for the public-spirited member of the House who brought the scandal to light, and let off the offending corporation with this mild censure: "Although it is true that applicants for important financial legislation have sometimes refused to employ the services of the lobby, and have still succeeded in obtaining what they asked, the Committee is not prepared to find that, under the conditions as they now exist, it would have been reasonable to expect the officers of the West End Company to risk, perhaps, the passage of their bill, by a refusal to employ any lobbyists at all; but the Committee does feel that it cannot but condemn the company for the extent to which it employed persons to influence legislation, and for its lavish expenditure of money for their services." After this, there was, of course, nothing left to do except to pass the corporation's bill, and the Governor's signature was duly affixed. The whole incident constitutes a startling proof of the lowering of legislative standards.

Seeing a chuckling announcement by Wanamaker that he has sold nearly all the copies of the 'Britannica' which he undertook to "handle" and "push," we cannot help asking Dr. Funk whether he has had the same experience, and whether, therefore, his refusal to take any more orders is a real sacrifice on the altar of virtue, and a sign of genuine repentance, or merely a tub thrown to the whale? He has said that he would do nothing more than to execute contracts already made; but would not this be all he ever expected to do? Besides this, we must observe to him that contracts for the delivery of stolen goods are not valid in law, because they are *contra bonos mores*. He has, therefore, nothing to fear from a refusal to carry them out, so far as the courts are concerned, while he has much to fear for his moral standing if he continues to carry them out. All good men would applaud his repudiation of them. Nobody believes in a man's repentance as long as they see the money from his sin going into his bank account.

The canvass made by a correspondent of the *Evening Post* of the Philadelphia and Pittsburgh clergymen about the Quay matter has shown that none of them had any intention of denouncing Quay from the pulpit. This was not to be expected; but it was desirable to notify them directly that the secular world was deeply moved by the fact that the man who was principally instrumental in putting Mr Harrison, an Elder of the First Presbyterian Church in Indianapolis, in the Presidential chair, and to whom large sums, to be used for that purpose, were confided by John Wanamaker, the Proprietor and Superintendent of the Bethany Sunday-school, and a conspicuous Presbyterian exhorter, had no defence to a charge of theft

from the public treasury. This is important because the Harrison Administration has been much helped in certain circles by the religious professions and activities of the President and his Postmaster-General, and because the clergy took a very active part in trying to discredit the last Administration by the circulation of stories intended to depreciate Mr. Cleveland personally. Their reluctance to discuss politics in the pulpit is very defensible, but it must not be supposed that this always indicates a position of neutrality and detachment outside the pulpit. On the contrary, ministers have of late years, through private gossip, exerted a very strong and very unfortunate influence on public opinion about public men. The inquiries were more than ordinarily useful in Pennsylvania, owing to the muzzled condition of the Republican press in that State, the like of which, we think, has never been seen in a free community, unless we call the Southern States during the days of slavery free communities. The correspondent found some ministers who had never heard of the charges against Quay, owing to their confining their newspaper-reading to two newspapers, one of them, we regret to say, a journal which we greatly respect—the *Ledger*.

The election at Barrow-in-Furness, in England, which took place last week, was an extremely important one, as foreshadowing the fate of the Liberal Unionists in case Parliament should be dissolved. The vacancy was occasioned by the resignation of the sitting member, Mr. Caine, for the express purpose of taking the opinion of his constituents on his recent course in Parliament. Caine was elected in 1885 as a Gladstonian, but in 1886 as a Liberal Unionist. He is an able man, and very prominent as a temperance advocate and as a foe of the publicans. But he seceded with Chamberlain and the others on the home-rule question, and continued to give the Tories faithful support till they brought in their License-Compensation Bill. This was more than he could stand, and he joined in the opposition which led to their recent abandonment of that measure. His situation thus became so complicated that he thought it behooved him to find out what his constituents thought about it. He accordingly offered himself for reëlection, and the result was watched with great interest. Caine was one of the least objectionable of the seceders. He had not been rancorous or abusive of Gladstone, and had not given himself airs about his superior morality, and he had strong hopes that, as he had turned against the Tories, the Liberals would take him up again and return him once more. To his great chagrin he found them implacable. They would not renominate him; nor would they refrain from nominating a third candidate, even at the risk of giving the seat to the Tories. They ran a new out-and-out Gladstonian, and not only beat the Tory candidate, but put Caine at the foot of the poll. Of course this will cause a fearful looking for of judgment among his brethren of the Hartington persuasion.

The importance of the London police strike is mainly political. We believe its only precedent is a threat to strike made by the Dublin city police in 1882, during the troubles following on the Phœnix Park murders, and for similar reasons—the hardness of the work and the poorness of the pay. The Dublin police were, however, brought to reason before they actually struck, and were probably restrained by the fact that their places could have been readily supplied, temporarily at least, by the constabulary, the semi-military force which polices the country districts. Of course London could also have been temporarily taken care of by the troops and by the swarm of "special constables," who always offer themselves on such occasions from among the sporting men and athletes with whom the British capital at this season abounds, and who are always eager for a chance to cudgel somebody. What has precipitated the crisis is the fact that the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Monro, who has just resigned, sympathized with the grievances of the men, and had to resign because he could not convince Mr. Mathews, the Home Secretary, of the justice of their demands. Of course this gave a great deal of substance to the discontent and spurred the men on into overt demonstrations. They were probably still farther exasperated by the fact that the new Commissioner is a military man, whose whole experience as a commander has been acquired in India, and who is, therefore, expected to subject the force to a harsher and more arbitrary discipline than has hitherto been known in an English civil force. But, although the House of Commons accepted Mr. Mathews's explanation of his differences with Mr. Monro as satisfactory, the disturbance can hardly fail to increase the discredit into which the Ministry is falling, and under which Mr. Mathews in particular has long lived. Frightened shopkeepers do not try to distribute blame impartially, and they will probably set down the demoralized condition of the police force as another of Mr. Mathews's blunders.

Among the disagreeable surprises turned up in the report on the Panama Canal is a statement that some of the contractors, whose names are given, received payment for 100 to 150 per cent. more work than they had done, but were not required by the Judicial Administrator to repay any of the money overdrawn. The report says also, in a comprehensive way, that the amount of money raised was 1,530 million francs, of which there was an effective expenditure of only 700 millions. In other words, something less than one-half of the money contributed by the French peasants, shopkeepers, and chambermaids was actually spent on the canal. But it makes little difference whether it was wasted in one way or the other. The fact that some of the contractors had been largely overpaid was known in New York before the work was stopped. Those thrifty individuals saw that the end was coming. They considered that they had a vested right to a certain aggregate amount of profit. They reasoned that it would be a waste of capital to prolong the digging after abandonment of the work had become inevitable. Indeed, the whole affair looks now like a prearranged swindle—the most gigantic one the world ever saw. M. de Lesseps himself may have been one of the victims of it.

A sudden and as yet unexplained change of Ministry, on the eve of a general election, occurred in Spain on July 5, bringing the Conservatives and extreme protectionists into power, with Canovas del Castillo at their head. It was this event which Castelar, on giving in his positive adhesion to the Liberal cause, recently declared would be a calamity for Spain. The present state of Europe, he says, calls more than ever for the application of that political paradox which demands that republics be ruled by monarchists, and monarchies by republicans. Since France has left off something of its narrow Republicanism, and given a share in its Government to an Orleanist like Ribot, and a believer in central power like Constans, the stability of the republic, Castelar thinks, has been made much greater. For analogous reasons, the Spanish monarchy ought to seek its expansion on the Left, as a conservative monarchy would be a hindrance to the development of the people, and a prematurely realized republic would run everything off the track. Both reason and patriotism, then, in Castelar's opinion, call for a strengthened Liberal administration. If this should be secured, Ruiz Zorrilla would return from his voluntary exile, and, abandoning his revolutionary programme, thus proved chimerical, would lead the small band of Radical Monarchists, while nearly all the Republicans would give in their adherence to the Liberal régime.

Only a few days after these utterances were made public, on June 5, 500 Republicans met in the Alhambra Theatre, to form a new Republican party. The leading spirit of the gathering was the veteran Salmerón, and the lines upon which the new party was to be organized marked it off at once from the revolutionists on the one hand and the Castelar type on the other. Indeed, not a little bitterness towards the apostasy of the latter, as it was called, appeared in the speeches, and the meeting itself was in a sort a protest against his assertion that the Republicans as a party had no mission in Spain. Salmerón summed up the four hours' speaking, and marked out the objective points of the new organization, namely, the abolition of a hereditary Senate with life tenure, emancipation of the House of Deputies from Executive domination, home rule in provinces and municipalities, abolition of the spoils system and bosses, reform in the methods of legal procedure, and a new Constitution admitting of amendments, as the present one does not. He declared, in conclusion, for union with Portugal, and said that the labor question could be solved by a republic alone.

THE SILVER COMPROMISE.

THE report of the Conference Committee on the Silver Bill contains some features that were not embraced in either the House or the Senate bill, and that tend to make it a better measure than either of them. These may be enumerated as follows :

(1.) It is declared to be the "established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio, or such ratio as may be established by law." This amounts to a direction to the Secretary of the Treasury to keep the two kinds of dollars at par with each other; in other words, to maintain the gold standard. Since the Resumption Act of 1875 requires the Secretary to redeem United States notes in coin continuously on and after January 1, 1879, and gives him unlimited power to sell bonds for that purpose, this additional direction suffices to maintain the gold standard as long as the credit of the United States suffices for the purpose. If the silver-men intended to force the silver standard upon the country, their purpose is foiled by this provision.

(2.) The Secretary is not absolutely required to coin more than $2,000,000 per month of silver, and this requirement is to cease on the 1st of July, 1891. Thereafter he will coin only so much as may be needed to redeem silver Treasury notes presented for the purpose. Another provision repeals the present two-millions per month law from the date of the passage of this act, while this act does not go into effect until the expiration of thirty days. Thus at least one month of the two-millions law is cut off, leaving eleven months of absolute coinage at that rate.

(3.) The bill does not require the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver absolutely, being limited by the words, "or so much thereof as may be offered in each month at the market price thereof." The determination of the market price is necessarily left to the Secretary, and if he exercises his discretion impartially, there will be no reason why silver bullion should be offered to him rather than to any other purchaser.

(4.) The silver Treasury notes are a new and distinct form of currency, differing from silver certificates in some particulars. They are to be legal tender, while silver certificates are not. The national banks are not required to receive them on deposit, but if they do receive them, they may count them as part of their lawful reserves. Looking at all the features of the bill, including the one which directs the Secretary to maintain the gold standard, we perceive no reason why the banks should not receive the notes on deposit, like any other current funds.

(5.) The Treasury will buy silver bullion at the market price and pay for the same in Treasury notes, making the same profit that it now makes on silver certificates. If the amount of silver offered is no more than sufficient to meet the requirements of the public for circulation, there will be no drain on the Treasury. If the offerings should exceed the public demand for circulation, the drain on the Treasury would be measured by the excess, and the Secretary might be compelled to sell bonds to replenish his gold balance. The act of 1882 establishing the greenback-redemption reserve of $100,000,000 gold remains unrepealed. Logically, all the acts taken together require the Secretary to sell bonds to replenish this fund whenever it is reduced below $100,000,000. It is not impossible that resort may be had to this power before President Harrison's term expires, especially if the requirements for new pensions exceed the estimates of the Pension Committee of the Senate, viz., $43,000,000.

Looked at from the standpoint of the science of finance, the bill is tremendously absurd, but that is not the true point of view. The bill is a compromise of conflicting whimsies and conflicting interests. We doubt whether the Senate will accept it, but if it does so, the country may be congratulated on not getting a worse measure.

SENATOR FRYE ON SUBSIDIES.

IN his speech in favor of steamship subsidies Senator Frye relied upon two assumptions : first, that those nations which have outstripped us in maritime progress have achieved success by means of donations from their governments to private ship-owners ; second, that American wages and style of living prevent us from competing with foreigners, since sailors determine their own pay and subsistence not by the amount or kind of work done, but by reference to the flag flying over their heads. On the latter point he was severely "winged" by Senator Morgan, who said he understood the argument to be that, inasmuch as our ship-owners cannot afford to pay the difference between foreign wages and American wages, we must collect the money out of the people to pay the difference. To this Mr. Frye replied brokenly :

"Well, that is hardly a logical conclusion, I take it, from what I said ; because the higher wages and the increased cost of living do not account for this enormous difference. I say we have no protection for our ships. If anything, we are discriminated against by our nation in this matter of carrying the mails. The Senator knows it is true that we are not paying the actual cost of carrying the mails to-day; that these foreign countries, in addition to paying lower wages for their sailors and their officers and a lower cost of living, have these enormous subsidies, and those, coupled with the other things, make the difference which I have stated."

Mr. Frye had much to say about the want of protection to our ships, and about the protection extended to foreign ships by their governments, but did not define the meaning of protection. The received economic meaning of the phrase is the enactment of laws which compel or impel the citizen who wishes to buy anything, to buy it of an American instead of a foreigner. As applied to navigation, it would require the establishment of toll roads to the docks at all seaports, and compel passengers and shippers to pay something for the privilege of going or sending their goods on board a foreign ship, while allowing them free access to the American ship. This is the only thing that is entitled to be called by the sacred name of protection. But this is not what Mr. Frye meant. Nor did he mean merely pay for carrying the mails when he said protection. He meant subsidy, and he meant to say also that it was subsidy that had enabled other countries to outstrip us in the ocean carrying trade.

It would not be profitable to thresh over the old straw of British and French subsidies. The question whether Great Britain does or does not pay subsidies may be answered either way without touching the question whether subsidies are the cause of her maritime supremacy. It is acknowledged that France does pay subsidies, but it is denied that they have been of any advantage to her shipping or to her commerce. There is one country, however, that has confessedly made great strides in the ocean carrying trade without subsidies, namely, Norway. She is now only second to Great Britain as a maritime Power, and is supplying us with a larger proportion of our hired steam marine than any other country. A few days ago a statement was published that forty-five Norwegian steamers were under charter to American merchants during the months of May and June, 1890, carrying goods to and from Central and South America and the West Indies, and of course without any subsidy, large or small. We adverted also to the fact that the little town of Bergen has 119 steamers engaged in the ocean carrying trade, all making satisfactory profits without any governmental aid.

These facts effectually rebut the assumption that foreign nations have achieved maritime importance by reason or in consequence of subsidies. Subsidies they may have, but it does not follow that their shipping as a whole is benefited thereby. The Hamburg-American Line is a case in point. This company runs to New York, the West Indies, Mexico, and South America. It has no subsidy, and wants none, yet it is a prosperous line, and is constantly adding to its magnificent fleet. German subsidies, so far as any are paid, are coupled with conditions which leave no profit to the subsidized line. The ships are bound by iron-clad rules as to times of sailing, as to ports to be touched, as to rate of speed, etc., and these rules are enforced by fines for any deviation or shortcoming. In the same way the British mail steamers are held rigidly to the terms of contract. They are subjected also to competition with the steamers of all other countries in the bidding for contracts, and this fact alone takes the mail payments out of the category of subsidies. Senator Frye cannot fairly point to Great Britain in justification of his measure unless he admits British, Norwegian, and German steamers to competition with our own in mail-carrying, and awards the contracts to the lowest bidder. But this is no part of his plan. The plan is simply another raid on a Treasury already threatened with a deficit.

CONCIO AD CLERUM.

Now that the popular conscience is in a way to be aroused upon the subject of copy-

right, it is of the greatest importance that there should be no misunderstanding of the nature of the proprietary right involved. Fortunately, it happens that this right, far from being mysterious and questionable, is one of the clearest and simplest with which jurisprudence can deal, and is, moreover, exactly defined by the term in common use, "copyright." It is the right to copy, to imitate, to consciously repeat what has already been done, and negatives the idea of originality in labor, in thought, or in discovery. The expression "property in ideas" is a peculiarly unfortunate one to apply to this right. It implies either that the holder of copyright and his assigns are the only persons entitled to think certain thoughts, to entertain certain ideas, or that they alone may practically apply the thoughts or make use of the ideas. Neither of these implications has the slightest support in the facts of the case.

This expression is not improperly applied to the right conferred by letters patent, which is of an entirely different character from copyright. Nothing but confusion can result from attempting to consider the two rights together. The holder of a patent cannot, it is true, prevent others from thinking his thoughts and having his ideas, but he can prevent them from making any practical use of these thoughts and ideas. He can prevent them from moving portions of matter in a particular manner—that is, in conformity to certain ideas; and as all labor consists in moving matter, he has a legal monopoly of certain modes of labor. Property in material things exists when one person may move certain portions of matter in such ways as he chooses, to the exclusion of other persons, but this right, though called absolute, is subordinate to patent right. The owner of a patent, it is true, would not be able to use it unless he were at the same time the owner of matter; but the owner of matter may not use it in any novel manner if this novel use has been patented. There may have been a hundred men working independently, to each of whom the same idea would have occurred at almost the same time, but the one that patents it may forbid the rest of mankind from applying it in the use of their property. The idea may have come to the discoverer by accident, and without labor on his part, while accident has prevented those who sought for it from finding it; that makes no difference with his legal right. The invention may have been one that every one would have thought of when a certain stage of invention was reached, but the man that gets a patent on it holds it against the world. The application of the idea might relieve hundreds of thousands of men from burdensome toil; it might save many from suffering, some from death; but the law gives to one man absolute power to forbid every human being from enjoying the fruits of this knowledge.

If we turn to copyright, we see at once that it confers no such monopoly. The ideas contained in a copyrighted book are no one's property. They may be every one expressed in other words, which may be printed and published; they may be memorized; they may be applied to any use by any person, and the right of the author is not infringed. By this right no human being is prevented from making any use of his mind or of his property that he pleases, while it may suggest to him novel uses of both. By it no man is hindered from doing what he would have done did it not exist. No man can say that by it he is deprived of the use of any of the advantages that Nature has to offer to her children, or restrained in the use of any of the faculties that God has given him. As to property in ideas, in themselves, it is plain that they are not limited in quantity and not susceptible of appropriation; and as to property in the application or use of ideas, it is plain that copyright does not confer it.

Every objection that has ever been raised in any quarter to the right of property rests ultimately upon the ground that the subject of property—matter—is, in relation to the possible owner—the present or future generations of men—limited in quantity. Hence, the possession of one may necessitate the exclusion of another who, on the assumption of the equal rights of mankind, is entitled to his share of the common heritage. In short, the whole pother arises from the fear that there may not be enough matter to go around. No such objection can be raised against copyright. That right simply means that if a man has arranged words in a certain order, no other man shall arrange the same words in the same order. Now, although the number of words is limited, the number of possible combinations of words is, compared with the numbers of mankind, practically infinite. If all the writers of English since the language was written had been steadily writing down to the present day, not one of them would have written the words of one of Shakspere's sonnets in the order that Shakspere wrote them, unless he copied from Shakspere. If all the human beings that ever existed were to write from the creation of the world to the crack of doom, the probability that any one of them would, without copying, produce "In Memoriam," or even a single stanza of it, is about as great as that of the earth's presently colliding with one of the other planets. But if there is no possibility of the right of one excluding the equal right or another, copyright involves no interference with natural liberty.

Why, then, is copyright not acknowledged without question? Because of the natural rapacity of mankind. Covetousness will not suffer it. Property in material things became established in illiterate days by the might of its possessors. The conception of right in an arrangement of words would have seemed absurd when our fundamental laws were formed, and authors have never had the physical power to enforce their claims to a species of property that is peculiarly difficult to protect. As a result, those men whose glory is imperishable, whose services to mankind are perennial, who have added to our poor human life an ideal counterpart that has been a refuge for all who are overcome by the miserable reality, have been compelled to beg from their rulers some temporary shelter from the baseness of human ingratitude. They have enriched the world, and have been robbed for doing it. They have labored for the delight of others, and have been told with a malignant irony that on that account they should ask nothing for themselves. They claim no monopoly. They do not, like the laborer upon matter, appropriate what may be needed by others. They do not, like the inventor, prevent others from making use of the common gifts of nature. Their material—language—is not exhausted, but strengthened by their use of it; it is enriched and not impoverished for posterity. Their appropriation of words is as harmless to others as the appropriation of light by their eyes or music by their ears. They ask for no property in ideas; they write that others may share them; but they do ask that sneaking curs, without pretence of excuse except their greed, may not purloin the product of their labors. It is not very much to ask, for it is even doubtful if it would cost the public anything to grant it. It would, perhaps, amount only to the payment of the price of a book to the man whose labor produced it, instead of to the rascal who stole it from him.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF TO-DAY IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, May, 1890.

THERE is an amusing illustration of the way in which, in the early days, say 1873, the new ideas were carried out. At an election in Shimane *ken* for school officials, one of the countrymen refused to vote because he knew no one whom he thought worthy. The Governor insisted that he must vote, whereon he cast his ballot for the Governor himself. Enraged at being considered low enough for such a position, the insulted Governor ordered the offender to prison. The man appealed, however, and was released by the Government, who severely rebuked the touchy official. New institutions could not be made to work smoothly in a day, and from the state of things at that period much progress had to be made. Taking our stand at the present time, let us look briefly, first, at the people themselves, secondly, at their assemblies.

In the year 1880, an acute writer, Nishi Sensei, published an essay in which, analyzing the Japanese character, he noted two great influences, one political—the despotism of feudalism—and one moral—the Confucian principle of obedience to superiors; and two minor ones—the fidelity of the *samurai* to his lord, and the national complaisance of behavior—the combined effect of which was inevitably a deep-seated spirit of political inertness, of obsequiousness to authority, which formed the great obstacle to the success of representative government. That such has been a characteristic of the mass of the people is undoubted. To what extent have they risen out of it?

So far as comparative statistics of elections are of value, we are left with little material to judge from. Strange to say, neither the Home Department nor the *ken* offices have kept a systematic record of the voting figures since 1878. In Niigata *ken*, however, this has been done, and the Governor, Mr. Chida, has kindly sent me these figures:

	Electors.	Votes cast.	Per cent.
1880	51,088	27,732	54
1886	52,949	22,403	42
1890	48,932	30,122	61

It seems difficult, however, to draw any general conclusions, as the following figures from two *gun* (counties) show: (1.) Percentage in 1880, 22; in 1886, 44; in 1890, 68. (2.) Percentage in 1880, 48; in 1886, 43; in 1890, 29. Probably the explanation lies as a rule in local causes, each community having an electoral history of its own. So far as I can judge from reliable testimony apart from statistics, the last four or five years have seen a distinct advance in the interest taken by the mass of the people in the management of their affairs. Officials from various sections tell me that at present the vote does not as a rule fall below 50 per cent. of the electorate, while in many places, where cause for special interest exists, it runs as high as 90 per cent.

Figures showing the percentage for the whole country are not easily obtainable, as they are not forwarded from the *ken* to the Home Department. I can judge only by the following figures (election of February-March, 1890) kindly furnished by governors and others and coming from representative parts of the Empire:

	Electors.	Votes cast.	Per cent.
Tokio (*fu*)	12,281	4,845	40
Kioto (*fu*)	28,276	9,391	33
Awomori (*ken*)	18,556	13,394	72
Niigata (*ken*)	48,932	30,122	61
Chiba (*gun*)	2,410	1,522	63

There is a marked contrast here between the proportion in the metropolitan cities (*fu*) and that in the provincial regions. The percentage in the latter is on the one hand much better than that in Massachusetts in "off" years (52 per cent. in the period of 1871–'89), but not as satisfactory as that of New Jersey, Michigan, Wisconsin, and some other States (ranging, I believe, from 75 to 90 per cent. in the period 1876–'88). The *fu* seem to be distinctly behindhand in the interest shown by their citizens. Individual wards (*ku*) make an even more deplorable showing. In four wards in Tokio the percentages were respectively 10, 13, 16, and 17. Indeed, it was only by the aid of the suburban (rural) districts (one of which cast a vote of 75 per cent.) that the average was brought higher than 25 per cent. In Kioto, matters were little better: three wards returned percentages of 16, 19, and 19, respectively. The same lack of interest may be gathered from what one observes in mingling with people. For example, when inquiring the date of the Tokio election, I found at least four intelligent and highly educated gentlemen—men, too, who take a deep interest in the national progress—who could not tell me. Another, when I referred to the election in conversation, did not know it had occurred. "The Assembly?" one said; "oh, nobody pays much attention to that." I cannot venture to indicate with certainty the influences that produce this state of things; the fact is there plainly enough. Evidently Japan, like our own country, finds that in large cities the problem of local government develops special phases.

The proportion between electorate and population depends on the pecuniary voting qualification, already explained in your columns by an able correspondent. The notable fact is the repeated fluctuations in the size of the electorate. The figures for the Empire are as follows: 1880, 1,513,308; 1885, 1,637,137; 1887, 1,486,107; 1889, 1,602,249. Of course the causes of this are economic rather than political, and cannot be gone into at length in this place. Apparently the *fu* have on the whole been the losers. Thus:

	1880.	1885.	1887.	1889.
Tokio..	12,100	12,000	12,200	12,300
Kioto..	31,100	28,900	28,400	28,300
Osaka..	48,000	63,200	36,900	39,800

Probably the resumption of specie payment in 1886, the imposition of special taxes, and migration have contributed to the result. I am told, moreover, that in many districts financial distress, arising from various causes, has tended to make the rich richer and the poor poorer, thus thinning the electorate.

The three ranks are represented in the electorate as follows: *kwazoku* (nobles), 298; *shizoku* (corresponding to the old *samurai*), 63,337; *heimin* (commoners), 1,541,614. As to their relative influence in local politics, some inferences may be drawn from the statistics of membership of the assemblies. This is divided as follows: *kwazoku*, 1; *shizoku*, 508; *heimin*, 1,617. But the different sections of the country differ widely, and must be noticed separately. In the metropolitan cities the upper-class contingent is 17 per cent. of that of the commoners; in such old homes of clan feeling as Kagoshima (Satsuma) and the neighboring region, 678 per cent.; in the country districts elsewhere 13 per cent. The whole electorate in these different sections is divided about as follows: metropolitan cities, upper classes, 2.3 per cent.; Kagoshima, etc., 21 per cent.; other districts, 1 per cent. Making the necessary comparisons, then, we see that in the first section the upper classes, when it comes to the choice of members for the assemblies, wield an influence greater than that to which their mere numbers entitle them by 7.4 times in the first instance, by 34.2 times in the second, and by 13 times in the third. This indicates that, by reason of various historical influences, we cannot expect to find uniform progress throughout the country. It is, too, an instance of what may be frequently noticed in dealing with Japanese institutions, that, notwithstanding the comparatively small area of the country, there exist, as in our own country, in different sections widely different conditions, that in different regions may be found different solutions of the same problem, and that general truths must be laid down with hesitation.

The local political parties furnish another instance of this. In some districts parties exist, in others not. They separate usually on some question of local expediency. Not unlike the Athenian parties of the Mountain, the Shore, and the Plain, the lowlanders are frequently found fighting against taxation for mountain roads, and the mountaineers against the burden of dike and irrigation expenses. In Gumma *ken*, if not elsewhere also, the abolition of licensed prostitution has created two political camps. In Chiba *ken* for a long time the citizens have been divided over a certain Government-fathered bank, whose affairs were not satisfactorily managed. In Yokohama the merchants and the land-owners have been at odds, the disposition of some public property being at the root of the dissension. As to nomenclature, however, they have in many cases developed the custom, which so harms our own politics, of fighting local battles under national standards. Partly because the leading national parties have a widespread local organization, partly because prominent partisans become identified with opposing sides in local controversies, partly for other reasons, one finds the *Kaishinto* (Progressists) and the *Jiyuto* (Radicals), for example, contending in Chiba or Yokohama over questions that have not the remotest connection with their national platforms.

Party feeling often runs high, though here, too, it is impossible to make general statements about particular provinces, or even counties, much less about the Empire at large. In the town of Chiba, for example, I saw a very quiet and orderly election, while a small town only sixteen miles away has been notorious as one of the most turbulent places in the country. In the past few months the papers have reported at least half-a-dozen instances of violence. In Niigata *ken*, a few years ago, a too outspoken editor was decoyed from his sanctum and ducked in a muddy ditch. In Kagoshima a political murder occurred in March last. The country is troubled in various parts with young hare-brained *soshi*—a cross between hoodlum, anarchist, and reformer. Their creed is political liberty, but their methods are detestable and their character misguided.

As for the assemblies themselves, almost everything good can be said of them. To begin with, there is, according to universal testimony, none of our cheap jobbery and noisome corruption. Whatever exists is as yet sporadic. Tokio has furnished the only scandal I have heard of, an alleged bribery of members by proprietors in the Yoshiwara to obtain a diminution of the licensed prostitution tax. The members as a rule are of respectable, even of high standing, particularly in the country districts. From an examination of a small book giving the name, age, etc., of every member of the provincial assemblies, I find the average age to be as follows, with no special differences to be noted in different localities: 25 to 30 years 9 per cent., 30 to 35 30 per cent., 35 to 50 46 per cent., 50 to 70 15 per cent. In a country where young men, even youths, are so important an element among the educated classes, and are found so much at the front, this is certainly a very conservative showing. The occupations of the members are as follows (though these returns are not complete): Farmers 1,227, merchants 309, lawyers 64, physicians 59, bankers and brokers 17, printers and booksellers 3, liquor-brewers and dealers 10, pawnbrokers 11, journalists 10, teachers 16, corporation officers 5, artisans 2, local officials 16, miscellaneous 59, no business 192. The small number of journalists and the large number of those described as having "no business" are the peculiar features.

In the general conduct of the assemblies, entire decorum is the rule. Here and there one hears of a turbulent session or factional quarrels. In Niigata *ken* on one occasion a member of the Opposition was unceremoniously ejected by the angry majority. In another *ken* a member, who had fallen out with the presiding officer, took a somewhat erratic method of showing his disrespect by entering the Assembly wearing a mask. A spirited discussion ensued, which ended by the voluntary removal of the mask by its wearer and the restoration of harmony. *Hara-kiri* has long been abolished, but one notices now and then that, on the occasion of a supposed insult, or at a moment of uncontrollable indignation, the offended member will leave the Chamber, or even resign his seat out and out.

In the majority of cases the relations between Governor and Assembly are harmonious. The popular Governors seem to be more numerous than the unpopular ones. The personality of the official, the temperament of the community, the difficulty of the special problems of the district, all enter into the question. There seems to have been but one genuine failure, Gov. Mishima of Fukushima *ken*, in 1883. It may be noted that the first public criminal trial in the country was that of some young men who were goaded by his conduct into a defensive league and were charged with conspiracy. Two years ago the Governor of Awomori *ken* (apparently a man not easy to get along with), in a report not intended for the public, referred to his constituents as "doltish." The word got abroad, the provincials stormed, the local officials resigned in a body, and the Governor's recall was demanded. His place is now filled by another.

Outside of the metropolitan cities, the assemblies seem to be really representative—to be, in truth, the mouthpieces of the people. They lead as well as express the public opinion of the community. Considered, too, merely as a measure for keeping the people contented, they are a success. Officials tell me that under the present system taxes are collected of a kind and amount that would otherwise be cut of the question. That they are not always representative, however, in the sense of standing for all classes of opinion, is probably true. In some places, one is told, the educated and intelligent do not take part in politics. In some the mere politicians, not the sober citizens, preponderate. There is, however, as yet no antagonism between rich and poor or capital and labor. Great differences in wealth, where they exist, are not politically of consequence.

One characteristic, not easy to set forth briefly, stands out in contrast with the old attitude of thought. The difference between the law and government of former days and of to-day is the difference between precept and legislation. The people have emerged from a communal into a political system. Everything with them now is decision, law, statute—not mere custom or the unfettered discretion of an official. Apparently they are developing that habit of attention to exact expression, of drawing distinctions, of insisting on strict interpretations, which in modern times is characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon race. Take this incident for example. A few years ago, the Governor of an interior province obtained a two-weeks' furlough and was replaced by a deputy. Fretting over affairs, however, he returned unexpectedly in a few days, entered the Assembly, where his deputy presided, and took an outer seat. It chanced that the Assembly was taking the occasion of his absence to criticise his conduct, and that, too, without gloves. Angered at last by a specially severe hit (for the debaters continued, unawed by his presence), he jumped up and ordered the speaker to be silent. Nothing daunted, the member craftily inquired: "Do you speak as Governor or as an individual?" "As your Governor, sir, of course," indiscreetly replied the furloughed official. The debate over, the member made complaint to the Home Department, and the upshot was that the Governor was fined 100 yen for assuming to exercise the official prerogative while off duty. Now, the taking of such a distinction may appear to us natural enough, and hardly worth the mention. But here such incidents are much more than trivial. That such lines of reasoning have occurred, and have been accepted, is significant. That they should ever become general would denote a change in modes of thought which would be no less radical than subtle.

In the general management of business, conscientiousness and intelligence usually characterize the assemblies. A journal of the last session of one of these bodies lies before me, and, so far as can be judged from extracts, the debates are sensible and to the point, with perhaps a tendency to go a great deal into trivialities. The best opinion seems to be that the special need, if any, is greater experience and wisdom. Two extremes—a younger generation, visionary and unpractical, and an older one, conservative and behind the times—too often find a representation. In an interview with several Governors, which Count Yamagata, the Prime Minister, courteously procured for me, they said: "On the whole, we are satisfied. The assemblies suit the times. Give us ten years, when the old generation has gone and the new one has grown up. Then we will show you something better."

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

A DUTCH WATERING-PLACE.

SCHEVENINGEN, June, 1890.

Do not falter at the above apparently formidable name. You have only to make a skip between *sh* and *k*, and there you are! The place itself is so beloved of Hollanders that the harsh name trips lightly over the tongue of one to the marshes born, and there is an air of easy superiority about the speaker that quite puts down all claims of rival watering-places. But Scheveningen has truly a charm possessed by no other seaside resort. The North Sea itself has a character—gray and sullen in calm, terrible in rage—that at once fascinates and repels; and it is easy to account for the reverential fear with which it inspired the adventurous mariners who first trusted themselves to its dark waters.

The fishing village—for Scheveningen is a fishing-port as well as pleasure-resort—lies below the level of the sea, but is defended from it by a bulwark of dunes. It has told many a tale of devastation in the past, but, thanks to the skill and untiring energy of the indomitable Holland people, it has now little to fear from any onslaught its old enemy may make. It is exceptional in that it possesses the virtue of cleanliness along with the charm of picturesqueness, a combination one does not always find in a fishing village. As we walk through its narrow lanes it seems to be always washing or scrubbing day, for on every available projecting point are hung flannel garments, red and blue, bright-colored aprons and gorgeous kerchiefs that, together with the pots of blooming roses and geraniums in the windows, make fine bits of color in which to revel. But one must frequently dodge the deluge of water that might fall upon the too oblivious color-dreamer, for, when possessed by the scrubbing mania, Holland maids, though otherwise kindly natured, are no respecters of persons.

Up from the village towards the sea, we climb by a gentle ascent to the fashionable *Nordseebad*, situated on the dunes and commanding a fine expanse of sea and sky. Along the slope are gayly painted villas bearing Dutch and French feminine names, or inscriptions indicative of the joys to be found therein—such as "Rest and Pleasure," "Friendship and Society," "Sea Rest," etc. Extending along the high embankment, which is built of the most solid masonry, fronting the sea, are the "Kurhaus" and other bathing establishments, gay with flags and streamers of bright orange, filled with the wealth and fashion of northern Europe, and enlivened by a constantly moving stream of people from all parts of the world. The sea upon which these pleasure-seekers look is never a smiling one, and one can fancy the contempt it must feel for the chattering crowd that ranges along its strand. Sullen it lies in the bright sunshine, and when the late twilight steals over its wastes, it covers itself with a mantle of pale gray mist and moans sadly, or, rising in rage, beats against the solid wall of rock built by human hands to withstand its power. Meanwhile, bright lights flash out from the pavilions and gay music mocks the sea's moaning; only when weird notes sound forth inspired by German myth or some Viking-haunted soul do man and nature seem to interpret each other.

But the days, long though they are in midsummer, seem all too short for the delights of this Holland seaside. We wander down to the end of the strand nearest the village, where lie high and dry the broad, ruddy-brown fishing vessels waiting for the tide that shall launch them off to their labors along the north coast of Scotland. Picturesque groups of women, busily knitting, sit on the sand, under the lee of some old weather-beaten boat, waiting for the husbands and lovers who are to embark for a long voyage. As the fishermen arrive the boat is rolled into the water, the men jump aboard, the women and old men, who are to remain on shore, wade out along the shelving beach and slowly and laboriously push off the clumsy concern, while a few belated sailors, who appear with their belongings tied up in gorgeous handkerchiefs, are carried out safe and dry astride the shoulders of some stalwart old salt. As the brown sails catch the breeze and the boat plunges through the surf, good-bys are shouted, while, loath to leave, the women stand and wave their hands until there is nothing to be seen but a dark speck on the far horizon. Then, with grave faces and slow footsteps, the women go homeward, and the old men repair to a seat overlooking the sea and sit silently in a row while the smoke of their meditations rises heavenward. Later on we see the women at their net-mending, and a striking picture they make in their scarlet lined blue cloaks, sitting on the vividly green grass busily at work on the brown nets spread over its surface.

Down at the other end of the strand there is a different world of life and movement. Over the broad stone steps that lead to the beach a smiling throng of well-dressed people is constantly passing. On either side the walk are booths flying gay streamers and displaying heaps of red cherries, purple plums, and yellow apricots, with piles of the famous Dutch gingerbread, sweetened with honey and ornamented with generous slices of citron. From shining brass reservoirs there flows at call a stream of delicious milk, the product of the sleek cows we saw feeding in the green meadows on our way to The Hague; while the sign "Diverse Bieren" proclaims that one need not go thirsty. On the smooth broad beach, in cosey neighborly groups, the beach chairs invitingly stand, *windstoelen*, as they are aptly called; made of stout willow and having a closely woven back, with top shaped like a chaise, they effectually keep out wind and sun. For the price of about four cents of our money one can rent one of these chairs for half a day; receiving a yellow check, bearing a figure of a stork and the word "windstoel," together with the price and the length of time for which the check is good. Here sit dowagers and maidens reading, sewing, gossiping; while happy children build dykes of sand against the incoming tide, and gayly chatter to

one another in Dutch, French, and German, often asking rapid questions in French and being quickly answered in Dutch, with that childish facility for languages that grown people can only envy. Gallants in immaculate suits of white flannel hover about the chairs of the young maidens, and pretty boys in sailor costume go in and out among the people with waiters full of clinking glasses, the very sound of which wakens thirst. Now and then an officer in brave uniform, from the station near by, gallops along the hard sand, and the donkey-drivers with persuasive cries urge on the plump little animals with their joyous burdens.

And so the day melts insensibly away, and, while it is yet light outside, the "Kursaal" is brilliant with many gas jets, and music-lovers from The Hague come by carriage and tram-car and fill the large hall, while the symphony orchestra of eighty musicians interprets the great composers with faithfulness and delicacy. In the middle of the hall, immediately in front of the orchestra, there are comfortable, high-backed chairs for those who really come to hear the music; and up to five o'clock these may be reserved, in which case the word "Besproken" in large letters is pasted on the backs. All around the hall are small tables and chairs for those who wish to season their music with a social cup of tea or coffee, or perhaps something stronger—Schiedam not being far away. In spite of the many people, and the social element, there is little confusion, and the waiters are requested not to move about while certain pieces are being played. The love of music, as of color, seems to be spontaneous with the Holland people, and while there is little noisy demonstration, there is, apparently, fine appreciation. Love of country was evidenced by the whole audience rising to its feet when the national hymn was being played, and standing until the last note had sounded.

During the long twilight, the day's labors being over, the women from the village stroll in groups along the esplanade, grave and dignified in bearing, little heeding the gay world about them. They are uniformly dressed in black stockings, white wooden shoes, short skirt, of red or blue serge, puffed out—so we have been told—with twenty petticoats. A shawl of bright color is pinned across the breast, and a close, white cap covers the head, to which on Sundays and holidays are added, on each side above the temple, the heirlooms of gold spirals and pendant ornaments so dear to the heart of the Netherland peasant woman. With the exception of the gold ornaments, the children are exact copies in miniature of their elders, making in the distance a droll appearance; but on a nearer approach we see sweet, serious little faces with honest blue eyes; and if the stuff of the dress were of richer quality, we could fancy that the little figures had just stepped out of their frames from the galleries of The Hague or Amsterdam. On every occasion both women and little girls are engaged in knitting long black stockings. As they sit along the sea wall, or stroll along the strand, or walk by the side of the little dog-carts delivering milk, fruit, or vegetables, the stockings grow rapidly under their busy fingers, and we wondered where could be the market that required such countless pairs of hose. But we wondered no longer when we saw the favorite pastime of the children. Using their wooden shoes as toboggans, these apparently sober little creatures slide recklessly down the slippery stone embankment and in their stocking feet scramble back again with shouts and laughter; and as the woollen material is unhappily not so well suited as the wooden to withstand the wear and tear of contact with the stone, an explanation was soon found for the eternal knitting.

As we leave the gray sea, the lovely dunes, with their purple shadows, the sober fishing-folk and the crowd, to go on to The Hague, we note how the sand has drifted over the track since the last train has passed over it, so that laborers are engaged in shovelling it away. Along the track for many yards the sides of the great dunes have with infinite labor been paved with cut stone, and where it was impossible to do this a coarse grass is sown to keep the sand within bounds; and yet the fine white particles come swiftly and silently drifting in, blown by the fierce winds that sweep over these lowlands until, accumulating, they play an important part in the struggles of the people to maintain existence. If it be true that we love most what costs us pain and labor, then we need not wonder at the ardent love of the Hollanders for their country. The spongy soil, needing constant draining; the daily and hourly watching that the insidious sea does not undermine those great monuments of skill and industry, the dykes; the still more patient labor required to combat the seemingly inoffensive particles of sand—all serve to endear this little strip of watery land to its saviours.

Correspondence.

THE POINT OF ATTACK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This week the text is furnished by Mr. David A. Wells. A foreigner reading his letter in your last issue, clear, crisp, and convincing, must ask himself whether the people of the United States have lost their senses, or really enjoy being put through the process which Mr. Wells describes. He could not see that in this country, which he supposes to be a pure democracy, the authority to which Mr. Wells's letter is addressed—that is, the mass of the people—has no more voice in the matter than the mass of the British people had as to the Corn Laws before the first Parliamentary Reform Bill, and that this country is governed by a combination of private interests to which Mr. Wells's letter is merely a subject of amusement.

I remember hearing Mr. Bryce say that he had not dwelt very much in his book upon the lobby because he was not sure that he quite understood it. And our foreigner may well be puzzled by this mysterious and self-constituted organization, which surrounds not only Congress, but every State Legislature and every City Hall in the United States. Yet the origin and structure of the lobby is the simplest thing in the world. Given a legislative body of some 300 members, for the most part strangers to each other, all precisely equal, all representing localities, with nobody to represent the general interest, and no official guide or leader of any kind—in short, a regiment of privates without any officers. When this body assembles, there is absolutely no business prepared for it, but it may take up any earthly subject which any of the 300 members may choose to propose, and may treat that subject in any way it pleases. The problem is how to get such a body to do any work. The natural way would be to let the Chief Executive—President, Governor, or Mayor—elected by and responsible to the whole people, prepare the business, submit it to the Legislature, and guide the latter in its deliberations. This, however, is strictly prohibited, the executive being limited to that which any other citizen can do just as well—written communications—to which the Legislature pays no attention whatever.

How, then, does the body get to work? It first splits itself up into a large number of committees, appointed by an officer elected for that purpose, a process by which, if the whole body is not at the outset converted into a hot-bed of corruption, it is because the popular control still keeps the men a great deal better than the system. The committees are no better off than the main body. There is no initial force whatever. What subject they may take up and how they may deal with it depends first upon chance, and then upon outside manipulation. This manipulation is equally open to any one of the sixty millions of inhabitants of the United States, and the exercise of it, of course, falls to those who have the largest capital and the most determined will; while, to make the conditions as unfavorable as possible, all the influence and all the negotiations are carried on in secret; every question is settled by dead weight of party majority and minority, with a complete gag upon anything like public debate, with no personal responsibility anywhere, and no protector of the public interest.

This is the origin of the lobby, which grows and flourishes with increasing vigor, as I have said, around Congress, every State Legislature, and every City Hall in the United States. It goes so far as really to create both Legislature and Executive, the people having no choice except between the candidates offered them by the two great parties, differing only as to which lobby manages them, if, indeed, the same lobby does not manage both. Under the "Trust" principle this is likely to take place before long if it has not already.

We have just had in Massachusetts a splendid specimen of this lobby product. It has culminated in that report which the State offers to an admiring world, and in which the Investigating Committee cordially agrees with the officials of the West End Railroad Company, that nothing can be done at the State House except through the lobby, and, therefore, that nobody can be blamed for making use of it, though such use should always be restrained by considerations of propriety.

The political future of this country depends upon whether it is to resign itself hopelessly and helplessly to this rule of the lobby. The only hope of escape from it lies in providing a substitute in a strong and responsible executive power instead of the caricature now called by that name, and in giving to it the conduct of business in the Legislature with such order and system as to enable the people to understand and control what is going on. At any rate, till this problem of the lobby is grappled with, Mr. Wells and Mr. Atkinson may continue to furnish, as they have done for the last twenty-five years, the most exhaustive demonstrations of economical problems with no more practical result than if, instead of printing them, they had stood on their front door-steps and talked to the north wind. G. B.

Boston, July 5, 1890.

POLITICS IN COLORADO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Editorial comment in your issue of June 26 contrasting the speech of Senator Wolcott of Colorado at the New England dinner in 1887 and that recently made by him on silver in the Senate, puts him too much in the guise of a natural partisan undergoing for the first time an inchoate shock of reason. He said: "We find all the excitement we need in the two great parties, and we rather look upon the talk of anybody in either party being better

than his party as a sort of cant. The hypercritical faculty has not reached us yet, and we leave to you of the East the exclusive occupancy of the raised dais upon which it seems necessary for the independent voter to stand while he is counted." Drollery lurks in this masked confidence.

At that time the Senator was the most brilliant "kicker" in Colorado. The defeat of the Republican nominee for Governor in 1882 is acknowledged to have come from the Wolcott kick. It was fortunate; but the motive has been ungraciously ascribed, by friends as well as foes, to pique rather than to principle. It is, likewise, not denied that he voted for Cleveland on his first candidacy. Those trusting newspapers can learn from the Denver *Republican* that he cares not a fig for his party, and never did.

The question of punishing or rewarding a kicker turns on the significance of his pedal endeavors. The Republican party of Colorado rewards the Senator because he has kicked it successfully. The "hypercritical faculty" has never bothered him. That the Republican campaign at Denver in the fall of 1888 was one of unmatched sin is a part of the unwritten history of that city.

From that speech, one would suppose that the deep-chested, firm-striding, brawn-loving, lynx-sighted, hard-smiting, bold-thinking, and hope-wagering Man of the West, before all others, is abundantly content to scent his way blindly along the beaten path of party superstition. A protest should be entered against that inferable slur upon the Coloradans of rococo party servility—a slur seemingly convenient, however, for securing a glowing effect upon that occasion before the festive New Englanders. The "scratchers" in Colorado began to be feared long before that time. There is nothing in the geography of the "vasty West," or in the influence of the setting sun, to prevent an elector from siding with the struggle for good government rather than crawling in the party gutter and voting for the "yellow dog." The last Legislature in this State was unspeakably bad, and the present condition of the Executive Department is heartrending. So, just now, notwithstanding the boasted area of the State and its comparatively scant population, it would be hard to find another containing more Mugwumps per acre.

O. F. A. Greene.

Boulder, Colorado, July 2, 1890.

THE WEST END RAILWAY INVESTIGATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in your last issue entitled "A Study in Legislative Morals," doubtless written before the report of the Investigating Committee appointed by the Massachusetts House of Representatives reached you, contains some errors which I trust that you will permit me to correct. Perhaps the fact that I served as a member of that Committee, and that I voted against the bill on account of the methods disclosed, may be a sufficient guarantee that I am neither ignorant of the evidence presented nor disposed to distort it in favor of the railway company. The facts as found are sufficient to furnish you with a text without needing the exaggerations or perversions of the truth into which you have unwittingly been led.

It has not "been shown that, in getting their project to the point at which Mr. Williams stopped it, the company spent $113,516." The Investigating Committee, upon which were four lawyers, unanimously found from the evidence that the company had spent in round numbers $21,000, including the $7,500 paid to the newspapers, and that the amount still to be paid to legislative counsel and lobbyists, so far as it could be fixed by the testimony, was $10,500. A further considerable sum, not based upon agreements, and therefore impossible to determine, was also to be paid for the same purpose, but, judging by the scale of prices disclosed, the total amount, including a liberal estimate under this head, must fall short of $50,000. This is high enough without swelling it to $113,000.

Nor did the evidence show that "eight eminent legal lights of the Boston bar," including two ex-Governors, were retained as counsel in connection with the legislation petitioned for. While a number of lawyers of no special eminence as members of the bar were retained for purposes which did not seem to be of an altogether legal character, there were only two, outside of the regular counsel of the company, who could possibly come within your designation.

There is no foundation for your statement that "great efforts were made to 'fix' the Railway Committees of the two houses in the interest of the company," and very little for the statement that the company "put out money freely" to counteract the efforts of a rival applicant for a charter during the campaign. There are other minor inaccuracies that might be pointed out, but I will not trespass further upon your space.

Altogether I regret that you did not have fuller information upon which to base your article. We may be bad enough in Massachusetts, but you have painted us blacker than we are, so far as this matter is concerned.

I am, etc., Josiah Quincy.

Quincy, July 7, 1890.

TROS TYRIUSVE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the classic *Spectator* there is an account, by Addison, I think, of the writer's meeting a party of young men on horseback, one of whom impresses him as insignificant and effeminate-looking. The group shifts, and he sees that the supposed cavalier has a side-saddle and skirt—is, in fact, a lady; whereupon she strikes him as bold and masculine in her bearing. Some such modification may occur in your view of 'Les Américains chez eux,' noticed in your number of June 19, when the mistake is corrected by which this book has been announced in this country as the work of the Marquis San Carlos de Pedroso, and it is known to be by the Marchioness, who was in her girlhood a beauty of Parisian society not long before the fall of the late Empire.

Yours respectfully, S. B. W.

June 30, 1890.

[Not at all. Our opinion remains quite unchanged.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press 'The Trees of Northeastern America,' by Chas. S. Newhall, with illustrations made from tracings of the leaves of the various trees; 'Among Moths and Butterflies,' by Julia P. Ballard; 'Dust and its Dangers,' by T. M. Prudden, M.D.; 'The Jews under the Romans,' by the Rev. W. Douglas Morrison; 'Gustavus Adolphus, and the Struggle of Protestantism for Existence,' by C. R. L. Fletcher; and the late G. P. Putnam's 'Tabular Views of Universal History,' continued to date by Lynds E. Jones.

Scribner & Welford will shortly publish 'Sanity and Insanity,' by Charles Mercier, and 'Hypnotism,' by Dr. Albert Moll.

'Language and Linguistic Methods in Schools,' by Dr. S. S. Laurie; Robert Drury's 'Journal in Madagascar'; and 'Glimpses of Old English Homes,' illustrated by the late Miss Elizabeth Balch, are on the list of Macmillan & Co.'s forthcoming publications.

Benj. R. Tucker, Boston, publishes this week a translation of the late Félix Pyat's 'Rag-Picker of Paris.'

MM. Hachette & Cie. announce, in their list of new publications of June 15, the first volume of M. Ferdinand Brunetière's "L'Évolution des Genres dans l'histoire de la Littérature." This volume is introductory, and bears the title: 'L'Évolution de la Critique depuis la Renaissance jusqu'à nos jours.' It will be rather a general view than a complete history of criticism. M. Brunetière says, in an extract from his preface which is given with the above announcement, that he shall strive to bring out his entire work in the course of the next eighteen months or two years. The second volume, which will take up the general question of the evolution of literature, and especially the evolution of *genres*, will appear next December. The third, 'Exemples et Applications,' will doubtless be ready by the month of May, 1891, and the fourth and last, 'Conclusions et Méthodes,' will come out in the winter of 1891–1892. MM. Hachette also announce that the seventh volume of their new edition of St.-Simon's 'Mémoires' has been put on sale.

The reprint of German literary monuments of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries ('Deutsche Litteraturdenkmale'), supervised by Bernhard Seuffert, which already extends to thirty-two volumes, has passed from the publishers Henninger of Heilbronn to the house of G. J. Göschen in Stuttgart. The series will be continued with the complete poetic works of Johann Peter Uz (1720–1796).

"Speculative and Theological Essays" make the eighth volume of Prof. Masson's 'Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Macmillan). The frontispiece, a view of the nebula of Orion, is supplied to aid as it may the comprehension of De Quincey's essay on the "System of the Heavens as revealed by Lord Rosse's Telescopes." Prof. Masson remarks, with regard to the essay on "Plato's Republic," that De Quincey by exception ranged himself among the anti-Platonists or Aristotelians, for "if any man ever had the Platonic thumb, or whatever else is the true physiological indication, it was De Quincey." "Flat, spatulous, prosaic thumbs," it appears, predestine their owners to be followers of the Stagirite.

The scheme of presenting history in a compilation from contemporary writers gives us, for Scotland, 'The Days of James IV. (1488–1513),' edited by G. Gregory Smith (London: David Nutt). The period is not completely reflected in the extracts, for want of the proper narrative material; but the handy little volume is readable like its predecessors.

Book-buyers whose purchases have reference to the author's welfare may promote this and their own pleasure by buying 'A Japanese Boy, by Himself,' newly reissued by Henry Holt & Co. Mr. Shiukichi Shigemi is a student at New Haven, and his little book is a means to the prosecution of his studies. We have already spoken of it in praise, but we again commend it as an interesting example of the mastery of English by an Asiatic, and a

charming and naïf account of child and family life in Japan, with such power of description, especially of nature, as to make one feel very near the springs of Japanese art.

Corpulence is a sufficiently common infirmity in this country to make welcome such an attempt at its rational relief as Mr. N. E. Davies, an English surgeon, presents in 'Foods for the Fat' (J. B. Lippincott Co.). The sugars and starches, not fat itself, are the great formers of fat, and practicable substitutes are the great desiderata. This little book is the first we have seen that systematically replaces sugar by saccharin as a sweetening principle. Saccharin is a coal-tar derivative, nearly three hundred times as sweet as its weight of cane sugar, having none of the fattening properties of the natural element and harmless as a diet. It should be very precious to the corpulent and the diabetic. The essay is a very sensible one, with copious diet tables and numerous cooking recipes for the infirm; but to American eyes the elaborate provision it makes for alcohol in some form looks odd. This is done not because wine is antagonistic to fat, but because it is assumed to be necessary for comfort. A luxury is one thing, but such careful arrangement for a doubtful luxury for those who are physically unbalanced is another. The incidental allusion to the ordinary diet in Guy's Hospital, where "there is also a daily allowance of one-half pint of porter and two and one-half ounces of milk," more than three times as much porter as milk for the average patient, gives a clue not only to the drinking habits, but to the prevalence of corpulence, among middle-aged English. This is an American edition not edited except in name, for the editor appears to have regarded his duty done when he remarks that the seasons and the markets differ in the two countries. He complacently leaves on the list for the reader's selection, month after month, turbot, soles, plaice, skate, whitings, brill, cockles, barbels, crayfish, and what not, while our magnificent array of vegetables, covering the year, receives no word of commendation or warning.

Simultaneously with Harvard's Quinquennial Catalogue appears the 'General Catalogue of Dartmouth College,' less full, of course, than its elder sister's, less elegant in its typography, but in two respects more biographical. Not only is the date of a graduate's decease set down, but, close beside it, his age; and where his occupation is known, that too is briefly designated. There is even a difference in recording totals. Thus, of the class of 1848, the Harvard Catalogue reports *30+32=62, showing that 30 have died and 32 survive out of a total of 62. The Dartmouth Catalogue reports 53—*22, leaving the number of survivors to be computed by performing the subtraction. But whereas these two classes, selected at random, agree very nearly in total strength and in survivors, the class of 1888 at Harvard was 240 strong, at Dartmouth 63; and a graduating class of the former institution is larger than the four classes of the latter added together. The Dartmouth class of 1878, consisting of 74 members, seems to have been the largest on record; that of 1879 fell to 46, or below the figures for 1848, and fluctuations are still noticeable.

Mr. Horace E. Scudder has succeeded to the post of editor of the *Atlantic Monthly* upon the resignation of Mr. T. B. Aldrich, whose Pegasus is now unyoked.

The late Henry B. Dawson is commemorated, with portrait and text, in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. Further correction of Knapp's untrustworthy "Life of Lord Timothy Dexter" is made by Mr. Wm. C. Todd. Mr. R. H. Greene sums up for six of the earliest American colleges the interesting statistics that have appeared in the *Register* as to high public positions held by them. Mr. Waters's "Gleanings" among English wills and records relate mainly to the family of Brett; but in an appendix the ever-growing Washington discoveries are recorded with the aid of illustrations.

Mr. J. R. Tutin of Hull, England, has just made the discovery of a variant and earlier form of Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty." It appears in a cancelled sheet of printed matter which Mr. Tutin found in a copy of the 1807 edition of Wordsworth's 'Poems,' in two volumes. The *Academy* of June 21 prints the first stanza of this earlier form, which, altered and improved, corresponds to the second stanza of the ode as we now know it. It is as follows:

"There are who tread a blameless way
In purity and love and truth,
Though resting on no better stay
Than on the genial sense of youth:
Glad hearts! without reproach or blot;
Who do the right and know it not;
May joy be theirs while life shall last,
And may a genial sense remain when youth is past."

Oud Holland, that handsome Dutch quarterly magazine devoted to the history of the art, literature, and industry of the Netherlands (Amsterdam: Gebroeders Binger; New York: F. W. Christern), enters upon its ninth volume during the present year. Among the articles promised is one on Kiliaen van Rensselaer and his American colony, by Mr. N. de Roever.

The office of *Artistic Japan* has been removed to No. 304 Fifth Avenue. The monthly issues of this unique publication have now been brought as far along as April, and the variety and quality of the plates are well sustained; in the matter of stuffs, particularly, the force of imitation need no further go. Since the new year came in, Mr. J. Brinkmann's discourse on "The Poetic Tradition in Japanese Art" has given way to "Animals in Japanese Art," by Ary Renan, and to an account, by Louis Gonse, of the master decorative draughtsman Korin, or Hotshiku (1661–1716), whose designs freely adorn the text. The colored covers of *Artistic Japan* are of a different pattern each month.

A discovery has been made on the site of the ancient Mendes which may be of more than mere Egyptological importance. A building has been partly unearthed, consisting of several rooms containing what was apparently a library of the Ptolemaic period. More than five hundred rolls of papyrus have been found in a carbonized condition, the building having evidently been burned. These papyri are written in Greek, and, so far as can be seen, are of the Ptolemaic or Roman age, and not Byzantine. There is a chance, therefore, of finding some works of value. But it will be necessary to spend several hundred pounds in excavation, and the Museum is just now without funds. Then comes the slow work of unrolling and deciphering, for which it will be necessary to employ one of the experts at Naples. Here is an opportunity for an exploring society to turn its funds to the best possible scientific account.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we receive the first four out of fifteen sheets of a map, by Dr. Heinrich Kiepert, of Western Asia Minor on a scale of 1: 250,000. In this work the veteran cartographer, now just completing his seventy-second year, returns in part to an early task. Half a century ago, as he relates, Moltke and other Prussian officers, on coming home from the Turkish service, intrusted to him the geographic data amassed in their official military journeys in Asia Minor, to which he added his own recent observations in the western portion of the peninsula, and, availing himself of all extant literary sources, produced in 1844 a map of Asia Minor on a much smaller scale than the present fragment (1:1,000,000). This map, repeatedly copied, and which has been of the greatest utility to travellers, has hitherto not been superseded, though the Russians have for political purposes within twenty years constructed a larger one (1:840,000). Dr. Kiepert has now used a great deal of unpublished material, and has received much aid from the labors of archæologists like Profs. Ramsay and Sterrett (who repay their debt to him), especially in the identification of places; all which he acknowledges most conscientiously and in detail. It is needless to add more to this account of Kiepert's always authoritative work. He has supplied the Turkish and the classical names, using for the former the transliteration recommended by a committee of the Paris Geographical Society. French and English equivalents are often annexed.

After twenty-five years of active service, the executioner of Prague, Seyfried, has just been celebrating his jubilee. A serenade was to make part of the programme, and it was a matter of some delicacy what song to select. A friend and admirer suggested that the "Lob der Polin" in the "Beggar Student" was just made for this occasion. It was adopted, and from a choir of twenty manly voices rang forth the words:

"Ich knüpfte manche zarte Bande."

A Society of Contemporanecus History has been founded in Paris under the auspices of the Bibliographical Society, and whereas the Société de l'Histoire de France drew the line of *ne plus ultra* at 1789, the new Society takes its departure from that date. A live society of this kind in the United States might be of the greatest utility. On payment of twenty francs one may become a member of the Société d'Histoire Contemporaine, whose headquarters in Paris are at 5 Rue St.-Simon.

The thirty-ninth meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Indianapolis on August 19–27. The local Secretary is Mr. Alfred F. Potts.

—A remarkable collection of American colonial laws, and early Americana illustrative of these rare books, made by the late Charlemagne Tower, has been presented by his widow to the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. His son has added greatly to the value of the gift by his admirable catalogue, beautifully printed at the Lirpincott Press, and presented to the Historical Society for the use of its own members and of those of kindred bodies, and of other persons interested. The elder Mr. Tower was greatly assisted in forming his collection by the indefatigable labor of one of our best American bibliographers, Mr. Charles M. Hildeburn, Librarian of the Philadelphia Athenæum, and the son very wisely secured Mr. Hildeburn's help in making the catalogue, in which, characteristically, his name nowhere appears. It is an exhaustive description of each of the 942 numbers that comprise the early laws, and the 87 numbers that include the most important illustrative works. The catalogue is prefaced by a capital sketch of Mr. Tower's life, an eminently characteristic instance of American enterprise. Born in New York of good old New England stock, graduating at Harvard in 1830, in the class of which Charles Sumner was the chief pride, Mr. Tower practised law in New York, then went to Pennsylvania, where he married and settled, and gained the leadership as an authority on land and mining laws and titles. Retiring from active practice in 1875, he went to Philadelphia and at once became engaged in

the Northern Pacific Railroad and other great enterprises. Almost alone he developed the mineral resources of Minnesota, and finally transferred to a great and successful corporation the mines, roads, wharves, and other improvements which he had made. A few years of rest and tranquil enjoyment were granted him, and he died in July, 1889, in his eighty-first year, at his country-seat, near Waterville, New York, his birthplace. For forty years he had been gathering the collection now catalogued. It contains the first edition extant of the laws of almost each of the original colonies, supplemented by all the revisions down to 1800, and, the rarest of rare books, the original sessions laws. The set of Pennsylvania laws is unequalled, that of Massachusetts is the finest and most complete gathered together, and that of New York has the edition of 1789 in the copy specially bound for presentation to Washington, with his autograph and book-plate in each volume. The Americana are general histories, books on America printed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, a fine series of the Eliot Indian Tracts, and other curious books relating to the Indians. All of these are bound in the best style, and are interesting as fine examples of the bookbinder's art, with some characteristic touches, for each colony has its distinctive color and each book its appropriate decoration. Altogether the Tower collection is a monument eminently worthy of the man.

— Few persons of New England origin are unable to trace their lineage through a half-dozen generations. Many can point to their first-comers within two or three decades of the *Mayflower*, and perhaps name the vessels in which they came. For this ability they owe a world of gratitude to James Savage and to the *Genealogical Register*, already approaching its fiftieth volume. But while well-nigh all the first-comers were from England, it is hard to say from what shire. Ten times more difficult is it to ascertain the cities, towns, hamlets, and especially the families from which early Americans emigrated. The last-century mistakes concerning the Washington pedigree, and the often-baffled endeavors to correct them, furnish one example among many of the labyrinths on which our family historians enter as soon as they cross the sea. In such mazes every clue which gives promise of sure guidance is worth consideration, especially if it is a new departure. Hence the following suggestion in a letter from Mark N. Bullen of Barnard Castle to an American friend is worth noting:

"The connection," he writes, "of American families with families in England will be best elucidated if your historical societies would combine and print our *Hearth Taxes* for circa 1660. You would thus have a most minute return by counties and villages of every inhabitant of England at that date who had a roof of any sort over his head. Our population was then not more than one-sixth of what it is now, and it was practically stationary [knowing few removes from shire to shire]; so in seventy-five per cent. of the cases I am certain an immediate clue would be given to the locality an American had emigrated from. Such a work would no doubt be heavy—the tax-roll for my own county, Cambridge, for 1664 covers one hundred and four skins of parchment; but I can speak positively as to its wonderful minuteness. It names, I am quite sure, every person who had so much as a hovel. This work should be done by us; but whenever an Englishman is curious about his family, he knows in what locality he is to look, and so goes to the Record Office and makes research for himself."

Such a publication is greatly to be desired as affording a base of operations abroad analogous to what James Savage and the *Genealogical Register* have provided for inquirers at home. If sister societies will associate in this publication, we are informed that the State Historical Society of Wisconsin will be prompt with its quota of pecuniary aid.

—The period covered by the fourth and fifth volumes of Sybel's 'Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches,' although confined to a few years, comprises events of immense moment for the political development of Germany. Bismarck's diagnosis of the chronic malady which, he had declared, in his famous letter from St. Petersburg to the Minister von Schleinitz, must sooner or later be healed *ferro et igni*, had proved to be perfectly correct. This heroic and radical cure by bleedings and burnings now began in good earnest, much against the will of the rather obese and lethargic patient, but with excellent results. "Beneficia obtruduntur," the motto of Sybel's fourth volume, expresses exactly the relation of the surgeon to the sick man who, unconscious of the cankerous nature of his disease, loudly protests against the use of cauters and lancets, which are now the only means of restoring him to health. This bold method of procedure was thoroughly disapproved of by other influential councillors of the monarch, and met with strong opposition in the royal palace. The Crown Prince, Frederic William, feared lest a war with Austria should foment intestine disorders, and, by provoking foreign intervention, lead to a permanent dismemberment of Germany; and all the political principles, family affiliations and traditions, and personal relations of King William combined to render such a rupture extremely painful to him, especially as it seemed to involve the disagreeable necessity of a nearer approach to Napoleon and a possible alliance with France. The masterly diplomatic skill with which Bismarck avoided these dangerous complications appears especially in his negotiations with France and Italy, the description of which occupies a considerable part of the fourth volume. The fifth volume, which bears as its motto the words of Oliver Cromwell, "Pax quæritur bello," is devoted entirely to a history of the war of 1866 and the formation of the North German Confederation. Von Sybel excels in the clear and comprehensive survey of great military movements, and possesses the rare faculty of making plans of campaigns and battles intelligible and interesting to ordinary unprofessional readers. A masterpiece of this kind of narration is the description of the Bohemian campaign culminating in the battle of Königgrätz. According to Von Sybel, "the German Empire was founded in the autumn of 1866"; he therefore regards the task which he had undertaken as completed by the publication of the last of the two volumes now before us. Frederic William urged his father to assume the imperial title as early as 1867; but Bismarck opposed such a step as premature, and King William unhesitatingly rejected the proposal, declaring that he was content to be "the commander-in-chief of the Confederation and the first among his peers." Indeed, the proclamation of a North German Empire would have awakened no enthusiasm, and might have imperilled the ultimate achievement of national unity, whereas a North German Confederation under the hegemony of Prussia, and with the South German States bound by military treaties to recognize the supremacy of Prussia in time of war, furnished a firm and sufficiently elastic basis upon which to rear the permanent structure of a pan-German Empire. Von Sybel proposes to trace this natural and inevitable process of transition and development in three additional volumes, which will be published in the autumn of 1891, and will bring down the history of Germany to the conclusion of the Peace of Frankfort on the 10th of May, 1871.

—Since the effort to internationalize Egypt as distinguished from Anglicizing it, the claims of national right to places and positions go very far. Here is an instance: The present director of the Khedivial library, Dr. Vollers, is about to retire to accept a professorship at Tübingen. The pay is small, but there are several candidates for the place, the most important of them being Mr. Edward A. Van Dyck, an American. But the appointment of any one not a German will bring about a diplomatic storm, unless by any chance the German Government has *no* candidate. What is needed to make the library useful is a scholar already up to his work, and not a man sent out to make himself acquainted with colloquial Arabic. That principle might be well enough were it a German and not the Khedivial library. Dr. Vollers has probably justified his tenure of office by his dictionary of colloquial Egyptian Arabic now printing at Beirut. Mr. Van Dyck is the son of Dr. Van Dyck, the well-known Arabic scholar and missionary at Beirut. As he was born and has passed all his life in the East, he has a thorough knowledge both of colloquial and literary Arabic, to which he adds most of the European languages. Specimens of his serious studies are a careful monograph on the capitulations with the Ottoman Empire, a translation from the Italian of Gatteschi's 'Real Property, Mortgage, etc., according to Ottoman Law,' and translations from the French of 'The Right of Landed Property in Egypt,' and 'Public Instruction in Egypt,' both by Yakub Artin Pasha, and the latter recently reviewed by us. Such work ought to be encouraged, and the fact that Mr. Van Dyck has been in our State Department and our consular service and is now Professor in the Khedivial high school would, under ordinary circumstances, tell in his favor. But in Egypt!

—Another example. The Society for the Preservation of the Monuments of Ancient Egypt, of which the Earl of Wharncliffe is President and Mr. E. J. Poynter, R.A., Secretary, was founded about two years ago, not for the purpose of exploration and discovery, but for rescuing the monuments already discovered from further ruin and destruction, while there is still time. Any one who has travelled on the Nile will admit the urgent need of this society. The Egyptian Government does something, for it levies a tax of £1 a head on each Nile traveller for this purpose, and the receipts this last season must have amounted to fully £7,500. But this is insufficient. Moderate estimates of what is urgent and should be done soon surpass $37,500, without including the clearing away of rubbish and houses in the temple at Luxor at $7,000 more. Nor does this sum include anything for guards and enclosures, and of these the mutilations and robberies last autumn at Beni-Hassan and Tell el-Amarna show the absolute necessity. This society, therefore, last year proposed to spend $2,500 a year to begin with for props and repairs, but asked that the money might be spent under the supervision of some Englishman. Then politics came in. The French, with their sentimental ideas about Bonaparte's expedition, and Champollion, and Mariette, and Maspero, claimed the Museum as a purely French institution, and refused to accept an Englishman there in any capacity. "Rather a German!" The director, M. Grébaut, was ordered to resign at once if any such thing were attempted. This

would have been in many senses very satisfactory, except that the French would have attempted to put more spokes into the British wheel than they do now. So Egyptology and the Museum are sacrificed to politics to humor France. It can no longer be concealed or disguised that M. Grébaut is an indifferent Egyptologist and a poor museum director, and that there exist differences among the authorities which are bad for the Museum. He was bred to the law, somehow became a member of the French Archæological School in Egypt, and succeeded Maspero because there happened to be no other Frenchman available. This French school is, however, a very useful and creditable institution, though it has of late given its work chiefly to Coptic antiquities. In connection with the proposed English official, the name of Mr. Budge of the British Museum has been much mentioned.

PALFREY'S PEOPLE OF NEW ENGLAND.

History of New England. By John Gorham Palfrey. Vol. V. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890.

Dr. Palfrey's diligence has not added much that is essential to what was known about the period covered by his fifth volume. The field had been too thoroughly reaped for profitable gleaning, and his views on American history too often expressed to warrant expectations of novel treatment. It is a compact and convenient résumé of the history of the "Great Awakening," the "French Wars," and of the events which led to the outbreak at Lexington in 1775. And it is something more: it completes Dr. Palfrey's 'History of New England,' one of the most considerable historical works coming from any American. Few historians have shown greater industry in gathering original materials, or a firmer grasp of complicated masses of facts, or greater skill in arranging them in perspicuous order, and presenting them in a narrative always clear and often felicitous.

Dr. Palfrey's scheme of a history of New England was full of difficulties. The people of the New England colonies were of the same race, it is true, and doubtless of a similar way of thinking on political and theological questions; but from the outset diversities of opinion or interest, or both, led them to seek different localities in which to develop their several autonomies. Nevertheless, from the coming of the Pilgrims to the withdrawal of Washington's army from Boston in 1776, the watersheds of New England's history inclined towards Boston Bay, and in Massachusetts was the main stream to which all other streams were affluent. But Dr. Palfrey's purpose was wider than is implied by his title: not merely to write a history of the several colonies as organized political bodies, but "the history of the people of New England," and, as we learn from the preface of his last volume, to show that "the work which in five generations was done in New England for the continent and the world, was done by Englishmen of Puritan training," and that, "as far as human judgment may trust itself, no other class of men contemporary with them was equal to the achievement."

For writing their history Dr. Palfrey possessed many qualifications, but his defects were serious. Without originality or special historical insight, he accepted the conventional theory of New England civilization, and did not go very far beneath the surface, or deal satisfactorily with facts which did not agree with his preconceived notions. The history of the New England colonies rests on patents, charters, or royal commissions; and for the interpretation of these, legal training, or natural legal insight, such as Belknap, Trumbull, Ramsay, and Deane possessed, is indispensable. Dr. Palfrey lacked both, and his constitutional discussions do not command respect. His imagination formed no pictures of domestic or social life, and we turn his pages in vain for the causes which in five generations changed Englishmen to Yankees, or to learn how, for example, living amid scenes of danger, they lost their inheritance of British pluck, and at the same time managed to preserve their moral courage and stamina unimpaired while acquiring wealth by slave-trading, piracy thinly disguised as privateering, and smuggling. He says of the Puritans that "the rank, the wealth, the chivalry, the genius, the learning, the accomplishments, the social refinements and elegances of the time were largely represented in their ranks. . . . The Earls of Leicester, Bedford, Huntington, and Warwick, Sir Nicholas Bacon, his greater son, Walsingham, Burleigh, Mildmay, Sadler, Knollys, were specimens of a host of eminent men more or less friendly to or tolerant of Puritanism." The wealth of England, he adds, was on the side of the Puritans, and so were many of the landed aristocracy, many of high rank in the army and navy; and, if few of the Elizabethan dramatists or writers of lighter literature are found among them, they may justly claim such names as Selden, Lightfoot, Gale, and Owen, and such poets as Spenser, Milton, and Marvell. Nor were they wanting in the amenities and graces of social life; and he records with satisfaction that Col. Hutchinson could dance and fence, loved music and played the viol, shot guns and bows, and delighted in painting, graving, and liberal arts. He completes what he has to say about the Puritan by adding that he was "a Scripturist," "a strict moralist," and, "in politics, the liberal of his day."

Doubtless Puritanism divided English society by a vertical line, on both sides of which were men of all classes and conditions. So far Dr. Palfrey is accurate. But there was difference in Puritans. Those who came to New England formed a horizontal stratum, not a vertical section, of English society. They were selected Puritans: above them, the nobility and gentry; below them, the peasantry and the rabble. Among them were two or three families of rank, and a few conventional gentlemen, who either died early or returned to England. No poets came; none addicted to art, science, or literature, save theological; none distinguished in statesmanship or arms, and but few who led the social life of Lincolnshire or of Suffolk. Some of their leaders were men of affairs and acquainted with law; a larger number Calvinistic clergymen, and a half-dozen with some pretensions to gentility; but mainly they were yeomanry, trades-people, mechanics, and servants.

Dr. Palfrey says that "the spirit of Puritanism was as old as the truth and manliness of England." This is quite true. Dr. Storrs has just told us that Moses, and several of the patriarchs, and Christ, and many notable pagans were Puritans. This is also true. But such truths do not describe the character or the work of those who came to New England. We may imagine, if we will, the statesmen, poets, and divines whom Dr. Palfrey has mentioned, engaged in ordaining party fences, the ringing of swine, or in an expedition against the Pequots, and burning them when found, or trying Mrs. Hutchinson for heresy, or inspecting her exhumed monstrous birth for evidence of a special providence, or we may imagine Col. Hutchinson and his family dancing and playing cards about Boston Bay; but such imaginings are not the history of the Puritan New England. Puritanism there was "the truth and manliness of England" specially vitalized and intensified by the Five Points of Calvinism enforced by the Synod of Dort. There were "State Puritans" and "Doctrinal Puritans" in old England, but only the latter found their way to New England. When Calvinism came into England, Armenianism came also; and between these two grew up a deadly hostility which did much to form the New England Puritans for their work, civil as well as ecclesiastical. King James, a renegade from Calvinism, allied himself to the Armenians; and so did Laud and his party who hounded the non-conforming clergy—a strange conjunction of liberalism in creed with absolutism in politics, which cost Charles I. his head, and, with other causes, George III. his colonies. All this and more Dr. Palfrey knew, but it was not an agreeable phase of his subject, and he left it alone.

The New England Puritans were narrow and intolerant, not because the age was narrow and intolerant; they were so from choice. They discussed the matter, and knew the difference between tolerance and illiberality quite as well as we do. Their testimony on this point is clear and explicit. Conscious of their mission, they made no apology for their principles; but they wished to be understood. It was their singleness of purpose, their absolute sincerity of belief, their utter conviction that happiness here and hereafter depended upon the acceptance of the Calvinistic scheme, which gave the New England Puritan his power and his success where others failed. Dr. Palfrey's misapprehension of this vital quality of New England Puritanism pervades his whole work, and no part of it more than the fifth volume. He treats "The Great Awakening" with entire candor, but as he would treat a modern revival of religion. He sees in it no connection with primitive Puritanism, or permanent influence upon other events of that day or of later days. He has noted in the second generation a declension from the high political spirit of the emigrants, apparent in the rise of parties at the revocation of the first Massachusetts charter, and during Dudley's administration, and he attributes this to the influx of commercial adventurers and the increase of wealth and luxury; but he fails to notice that this declension was rather in their theological belief, as is evident from the fact that the Mathers, Danforth, and others, the champions of civil and ecclesiastical liberty, and who as such merit and receive his commendation, were "faithful among the faithless found" in asserting and maintaining, with pathetic earnestness, the old Calvinistic doctrines.

There can be no doubt about the declension. It was manifest among the godly in the acceptance of the half-way Covenant and in some departures from discipline. Ratcliff, the Church of England chaplain of Andros, had preached in the Old South, and not without hearers; King's Chapel, Christ Church, and Trinity marked the growth of Episcopacy; Harvard College, having repudiated the Mathers, relegated herself to the mild doctrines of the "Dudleian Lectures," whose founder scrupled not at "Episcopal ordination"; and even more alarming to those of the ancient faith was the circulation of a book inculcating whispered belief in the salvation of all. To arrest "the great and visible decay of piety," a synod was called in 1725; but the

Episcopal clergy of Boston, through the Bishop of London, invoked the royal interdiction. There was no mourning in Zion, nor comfort, until Edwards, at Northampton, seizing live coals from the altar of Calvinism, touched the hearts of his own people. Then came Tennent and Davenport in New England, and Whitefield from Georgia to Maine, preaching predestination, election, free grace, and the wrath to come upon the ungodly. The effects were instantaneous. By estimation there were 40,000 converts in New England alone. Old professors were quickened to new life; Calvinism had free course. And to Dr. Palfrey this was the end of it.

But it did not end thus. One of its later effects was manifest in the expedition against Louisburgh in 1745—more like a crusade than a military movement—when the undisciplined yeomanry of eastern New England, inspired by the preaching of Whitefield, who inscribed their banner with "Nil desperandum sub duce Christo," attacked the French Catholics behind the bastions of Louisburgh with the zeal of the Christians against the infidels in the Holy Land. And there was still another effect. Calvinism in New England, differing from Puritanism in old England, was much more than a creed. It formed a habit of mind which, becoming hereditary, has survived to the present day as character. The creed has changed, but character remains; and the constancy, zeal, and singleness of purpose, and intolerance already spoken of—in a word, the Calvinistic spirit—of the remote ancestor reappears even in those whose measure of liberality is the intensity of their dissent from opponents, or who limit the universality of salvation to such as accept the doctrine. Character thus formed was the greatest legacy of the New England Puritans to their descendants, for by that they have prevailed. Of this transforming and sustaining power of Calvinistic Puritanism Dr. Palfrey gives us no hint. As he frankly informs us, with Geneva he had no sympathy. It may be so with us, but the facts remain.

More than half of Dr. Palfrey's fifth volume is given to the causes and events which led to the American Revolution. It affords little evidence of insight, and is disfigured by singular misstatements of essential facts. No doubt the causes which led to forcible resistance, whether originating in Great Britain or in the colonies, were earlier and more effectively operative in New England than in the other colonies. But it is nowhere noticed by Dr. Palfrey as extraordinary that, on the arrival of the news of the passage of the Stamp Act, months before it was to take effect, and therefore not as against "intolerable oppression," as he says, the people from Maine to Georgia declared their determination to resist it by violence to persons and property which there was no effort to prevent or arrest. It is obvious, therefore, that there must have been other causes operative anterior to that event, and not confined to commercial centres quick to discern whatever was likely to interfere with their interests, but pervading agricultural communities remote from centres of business or intelligence. Another interesting fact not adverted to by Dr. Palfrey, notwithstanding his frequent reference to events passing in England, was the contemporaneous English Revolution, going forward almost with equal step, and with the same general purpose of enlarging popular liberty against prerogative, which reached results more surprising, if possible, than those which followed the American Revolution. In both countries the revolution was brought about by agencies acting efficiently in the British Parliament as in the colonial assemblies.

Still more extraordinary is it that Dr. Palfrey nowhere thinks it necessary to state that the American Revolution—as was the case with the contemporaneous English Revolution—was the result of party action, not of unanimous popular action. He has, indeed, something to say about Government officials, placemen, and commercial adventurers opposing what he would have us think was the grand movement of an entire people towards their objective point—colonial independence. This view of the Revolution may have arisen from Dr. Palfrey's theory respecting the New England settlers and their descendants. In his judgment the work was mainly theirs, and one which no other contemporary generations of men could have done. At times they may have been a little too strenuous, a little inclined to magnify small causes of discontent with the mother country or her representatives; but even in these respects it was an excess of a noble spirit of liberty without taint of self-interest, or an unwillingness to share common burdens with others, or to submit to regulations necessary and reasonable for the commerce and government of an empire of which they were parts. On the other hand, they were loyal and dutiful subjects, glorying in the name of Britons, and "without the most distant thought of independence." But when, after the close of the French war, the British Government unconstitutionally undertook to tax them, then, and for the first time, as one man, on axiomatic principles of English liberty enunciated by Hampden, Sidney, and Locke, they resisted the King and Parliament, and took the field for a seven years' war.

This is the old, conventional theory of the origin of the American Revolution. But, by the estimate of John Adams, two-fifths—some others say three-fifths—of the colonists, including a large proportion of the cultured classes, were Tories, who, by an organized system of terrorism not easy to be understood in these days, were obliged to flee the country or to fall in with measures of the Whigs. Free speech was not allowed, nor would silent adherence to their convictions answer. They must speak—speak loudly, and only in one way. They must act—act promptly in accordance with the most vehemently expressed sentiment. Now it agrees neither with reason nor with the facts to represent this party, as Dr. Palfrey does, as made up of British placemen, colonial office-holders, mercantile sojourners, and a few men like Hutchinson, Oliver, Samuel Quincy, Jonathan Sewall, Daniel Leonard, Timothy Ruggles, and the greater part of the Episcopal clergy, who malignantly sought the destruction of their native land, which they had done much to improve, and in which were their dearest interests. Yet such is the general impression one gets from his history.

The degree of Dr. Palfrey's partisanship would be incredible without proof, but a few examples must serve. The Seven Years' War had added more than 300,000,000 to the British debt; and "was it not equitable," Dr. Palfrey represents the British Government as asking, "that the North American colonists, as subjects of Great Britain, should pay their proportion of it?" especially since the argument might be plausibly maintained that part of it had been incurred in their defence. Dr. Palfrey ought to have known—and with the statutes before him, it would seem that he must have known—that the British Government never asked, nor, so far as appears, ever contemplated asking, the colonists to do any such thing. They were asked to pay one-third of the estimated expense of their future defence. The preamble of the first revenue act of 1764, and that of the Stamp Act, set forth the purpose to raise money "towards defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the colonies and plantations." Such was the purpose—not to pay the British debt, or any part of it; and neither in the Parliamentary debates nor elsewhere is there any warrant for Dr. Palfrey's amazing statement. Of like nature is his assertion that the duties collected from the Sugar Act, after certain deductions, were to be remitted to the royal Exchequer in hard money, thereby draining the colonies of their specie. Not a penny was to go abroad. The sums collected were to be paid into the receipt of his Majesty's Exchequer by certificates to be entered apart from all other moneys, and applied from time to time by Parliament to defraying the expenses above mentioned.

Of wilful perversion Dr. Palfrey was utterly incapable. On the contrary, no historian ever wished to be more accurate. He had his theory of New England history, and, according to that, the prevailing party at every stage of it were right in their principles, purposes, and mainly in their measures; and the other party were entirely and malignantly wrong, with nothing to excuse or palliate their conduct. The history of New England neither requires nor will it bear such treatment. It will bear telling in its entirety from 1620 to 1787. It has its seamy side, as has the history of every period, however glorious; and this it is neither wise nor necessary to conceal as Dr. Palfrey occasionally does; nor to place it in a wrong light, as he frequently does; nor to apologize for it, as he invariably does—sometimes on grounds of necessity, which has always been made to condone some of the most flagrant acts of political and ecclesiastical tyranny recorded in history.

Dr. Palfrey's insight into the essential character of men is no more reliable than his insight as to the causes and relations of events. Nor is he impartial. He conceals the well-known blotch on the character of Samuel Adams, and dwells upon charges, now known to be false, against the character of Hutchinson. He performed a great service in writing the history of the New England colonies so that it need not be rewritten; but the history of "the people of New England" requires an historian of a different order.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF PHILOLOGY.

The American Journal of Philology. Edited by Basil L. Gildersleeve. Vols. I–X. Baltimore. 1880–1889.

THE completion of the first ten volumes of the *American Journal of Philology* is an event which deserves to be marked. The establishment of such a quarterly journal ten years ago was a daring enterprise. The English *Journal of Philology* was dragging out a sluggish existence, with occasional intervals of a year between the appearance of its parts. The American Philological Association was kept alive only by a few faithful members; it had listened to many wild vagaries during its early years, and had not yet settled down to its most sober work. The American classical scholars who were most interested in the new developments of their science took in French and German periodicals, to which some of them contributed.

Philology in this country is not so old as many suppose. Latin, Greek, and mathematics were so long the staples of the college curriculum that many believe college graduates of a

hundred years ago to have been more widely read in the classics than men of to-day. This is a mistake, however. Latin was, indeed, the scholastic language, and was used on many occasions where men now use English; but that Latin was in quality not unlike the French of those boarding-schools where "no language but French is allowed at the table." The MS. of the Latin valedictory of Jonathan Edwards at Yale College in 1720 is in existence, and its Latinity is (to say the least) no better than that of the average "Latin salutatory" of 1890. No Greek but the New Testament seems to have been read in the regular course at Yale College until after the beginning of this century. "Previously to 1803," says the admirable Answers of the Immediate Government to questions proposed by a committee of the Overseers of Harvard College, in 1824, "candidates for admission were examined in Tully [Cicero], Virgil, the New Testament [in Greek], the rules of grammar and prosody, and the writing of Latin." In 1803, "the four fundamental rules of Arithmetick and Proportion, Sallust, and Collectanea Graeca Minora" were added to the requirements for admission to Harvard. In the college itself, for "several years prior to 1805, the course of Greek study consisted of about six books of Homer's Iliad, with a collateral translation in Latin, and about six books of Xenophon's Anabasis." Thus the Greek course of Harvard College at the beginning of this century was not broader nor more thorough than that of the best academies of the present time. And let no one think that the extra time was spent on mathematics. The extract quoted just above shows that the requirements for admission were raised in 1803 by the addition of the elements of arithmetic, but in the College only one recitation a week was given to mathematics, "except in the elements of geometry." In the Yale catalogue of 1833, candidates are asked to "observe that arithmetic is no longer studied in college, and an examination for admission is therefore held in both the theory and practice of arithmetic."

In Latin, the course at Harvard was confined to Livy, Terence, and Horace, until 1824, when "Terence is discontinued, and the following books are added to the Latin course, viz., Grotius de Veritate Religionis Christianae, 300 pages of Excerpta Latina, Cicero de Oratore, and two of the three volumes of Tacitus; besides Juvenal and Persius for those who choose Latin as a substitute for Hebrew" in Junior year.

The same year, 1805, which saw the improvement in the classical course at Harvard College, saw also the election of James Luce Kingsley to the Chair of Ancient Languages in Yale College. This scholar was one of the honored three (Day, Silliman, and Kingsley) whom the elder President Dwight gathered about him in the conduct of the College, and who made Yale what it was during the first half of the nineteenth century. Jeremiah Day was actively engaged in the service of Yale College as instructor for forty-eight years; Benjamin Silliman, for fifty-four years; Kingsley, for just half a century. Without being versed in many of the niceties of modern philology, Kingsley was an acute and broad-minded scholar, who did much for the breadth and accuracy of philological study in America.

In 1815, John Snelling Popkin, D.D., of whose oddities tradition has still much to say, the most thorough Greek scholar of his time in this country, was elected College Professor of Greek at Harvard, while Edward Everett was made Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in the same college. These were the first permanent appointments for Greek instruction in that institution. Everett never did much teaching, but the professorships of Kingsley and Popkin were no sinecures. The former, in addition to his duties as Professor of Greek, Latin, and Hebrew, was also the incumbent of the Chair of Ecclesiastical History. Dr. Popkin taught all the Greek that was taught to the three lower classes at Harvard at a time when that college had 300 students, or about as many as Williams College has now. While Everett had between forty and fifty hours of instruction (mostly lectures to the Senior class) each year, Dr. Popkin had 785 hours, or half as many each week as Everett had in the whole year. Classes were taught in largish divisions, divided alphabetically, not according to scholarship. Considerable quantities of Greek and Latin were read, but in general all students covered the same ground. Under such circumstances, advanced work in the classics was impossible. The necessary apparatus for scholarly work was lacking also. The country did not contain needed books. Among the thousand volumes given to Yale College by Bishop Berkeley, in 1733, was an excellent collection of classical books, unquestionably the best in the country. But in that collection, as it chanced, was no complete copy of Æschylus, and, a hundred years ago, neither Yale nor Harvard had a copy of Æschylus, and there is no evidence of the existence of a copy of that "father of Greek tragedy" in the libraries of Columbia or Princeton at that time. Harvard seems to have had no complete copy of the Attic Orators in 1790.

What has been said above indicates the rudimentary stage of classical scholarship in this country at the beginning of this century. Woolsey doubtless had more influence than any one else in setting a higher standard and giving a more vigorous tone to these studies. Hadley and Whitney were his apt pupils. Soon after the middle of this century two young Americans, Goodwin from Harvard and Gildersleeve from the University of Virginia, studied in Göttingen. These two scholars have been for years the unquestioned leaders of classical studies in America. Prof. Gildersleeve was called in 1876 to the first chair established in the Johns Hopkins University.

The combination of Prof. Gildersleeve's energy and a grant of assistance from his university was necessary for the establishment of the *American Journal of Philology*. No other university had funds for such a use. No other scholar was better fitted for the work by thorough training, by familiarity with all foreign work in his department, by broad interests and exact knowledge in a great variety of philological subjects, by a keen linguistic sense, and the sharpest eyes for typographical errors. With the best of German scholarship, Prof. Gildersleeve is never heavy nor dull. No one ever complained that the editor wrote too much for his *Journal*, and most readers have turned at once, on opening a number, to any article or note from his pen.

The *American Journal of Philology* has never lowered its high standard in order to present popular statements of philological truths. Perhaps it might have been more useful to the ordinary teacher in high schools and academies if it had not aimed to publish only what would be recognized as good original work. Of the 550 pages of the yearly volume, about 300 pages are devoted to original articles, and the remainder to book notices, reports (summaries) of philological periodicals, and bibliography. Almost exactly half the space, on the average, is given to articles of special interest to classical scholars. The rest of the space is devoted to articles and reports on linguistics, Sanskrit, Semitic languages, Teutonic languages, Romance languages, English, etc. Of the classical articles, about half have to do with Latin and half with Greek. The latter seem, in general, the more able—largely because of the editor's own series of articles on Greek syntax. But it is noteworthy that most of the articles on Latin subjects have to do with out-of-the-way authors, like Verrius Flaccus, Nonius Marcellus, and Maximinianus—not with the great authors—and that so few of our Latinists have contributed to the *Journal*. No article has treated of Cæsar, Catullus, Cicero, Ennius, Horace, or Ovid, and but two of Vergil. In linguistics, the reader finds valuable articles by Prof. Whitney on "What is Articulation," and "Logical Consistency in Views of Language," and by Prof. Bloomfield (Whitney's pupil) on the Greek accent and the "Ablaut of Greek Roots." Prof. J. Rendell Harris contributes studies on stichometry which make the *Journal* a store-house of information on that subject.

In general, the range of topics treated in the *Journal* is wide, from "Recent Platonism in England" to the "Reduction of EI to I in Homer"; from five articles on the "Pennsylvania-German Dialect" to the "Babylonian Woman's-language," from "Charleston Provincialisms" to the "Harbors of Ancient Athens" and the Revision of King James's New Testament. Only one article is to be found, in the ten volumes of the *Journal*, on the aboriginal languages of America, few articles on antiquities (a province which now may be left in part for the *American Journal of Archæology*), few on exegesis, few (and these mainly by Englishmen) on textual criticism. The department of book reviews is not so complete as it should be, but such reviews often have a money value, and are not easily obtained for such a periodical as the *Journal*. The reports of periodicals contain a great amount of philological information in a condensed form. The bibliography is important for those who do not have at hand the fuller German bibliographical publications.

The last number of the tenth volume contains a closely printed index of 44 pages to the work of these volumes, and is an index not merely to the philological work of this country, but to much of the best work in this department abroad, for ten years. The *Journal* has had in all 133 contributors, but several of these have furnished only reports. The only contributor to the first volume who has an article in the tenth volume is an Englishman—Robinson Ellis. The list of contributors to the first volume contains better-known names—Gildersleeve, Goodwin, Packard, F. D. Allen, Carter, Whitney, Toy, Nettleship, C. D. Morris, Ellis, Campbell, etc.—than the present list. Evidently the editor has not received such scholarly support as he had a right to expect. In the first volume four articles were by scholars at Yale and two by Harvard professors. In the last three volumes no article has appeared from either of those institutions. A fairly careful survey does not find in the ten volumes of the *Journal* a single article by any one at the colleges of Amherst, Brown, Dartmouth, or Williams. And yet this has been a period of unexampled philological activity. Very recently University Studies have been published at Harvard, Cornell, the University of Nebraska, and the University of Texas, while the *Journal of Archæology* and *Modern Language Notes* take much that would have gone to the *Journal of Philology*, and the *Classical Review*, which is lighter in its tone and aims

to give a survey of work in classical philology, has been introduced to this country—to say nothing of the Transactions of the Philological Association, and the "Papers" of the Archæological Institute and the School of Classical Studies at Athens. There are manifest inconveniences in this scattering publication of American philological work, which perhaps overbalance the additional stimulus that is afforded by so many media.

The first ten volumes of the *American Journal of Philology* contain plenty of sound learning—a mass of valuable philological facts, of which many are not yet brought into ordinary hand-books. Few scholars would fail to profit (as the reviewer has profited) from the study or review of the back volumes of the *Journal*. For the honor and welfare of his science in this country, we trust that the editor will not weary of his efforts, and that he may obtain more abundant support.

BISHOP SIMPSON.

The Life of Bishop Matthew Simpson of the Methodist Episcopal Church. By George R. Crooks, D.D. Harper & Bros. 1890.

Bishop Simpson's fame as a preacher was without a second in the Methodist Church. He had also great administrative ability and high personal character. Moreover, his full maturity coincided with great national events, in which he bore an honorable part. Hence it is not strange that his biography has been written. It will be especially welcome to those who were of the same household of faith, and will make others pleasantly acquainted with his life. The reader is warned in advance that there are no letters or papers illustrative of the Bishop's relations with public men. This is the more to be regretted as he saw much of Lincoln and Stanton during the period of the war. But we get no new light on either of these men; no trait, no anecdote comes out, as might be expected from a relation that is represented to have been extremely intimate. There is significance in the absence of any religious expressions on the part of Lincoln in harmony with the Bishop's views. It was Bishop Simpson's lofty privilege to make the address at Lincoln's burial in Springfield, Illinois. The address, as given, is a very slight performance for an occasion of such transcendent interest. There is a flavor of apology in what is said of Lincoln's religious life, but the statement is made that "he believed in Christ the Saviour of sinners," which will probably go with the glozings and suppressions of Messrs. Hay and Nicolay, in their endeavor to improve upon the actual features of the man. The truth would seem to be that Lincoln, beginning with an "infidelity" comparable to Thomas Paine's, came afterwards to be extremely sympathetic with the opinions of Channing and Parker, rejecting the supernatural theory of Christianity, and especially the idea that Jesus was the sacrificial Saviour of mankind. His ideal church was one that should, without theological obscurity, stand for the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man.

Bishop Simpson was born in Cadiz, O., June 21, 1811. He died in Philadelphia, June 18, 1884. The pious memory of some venerable Methodist assigns his baptism to the sainted Asbury, but his mother's memory could not confirm this honor. The father, dying in Pittsburgh, Pa., soon after his son Matthew's birth, the family returned to Cadiz, where the future Bishop's youth was spent, with the exception of two months at Uniontown College, where he was teacher as well as scholar. Fortunate in a local academy and an uncle Matthew friendly to his aspirations, he could do better at home than the Western colleges of that time could do for him, and few Methodist preachers of his generation were so well educated as he. His conversion was singularly devoid of any spasm of emotion for one whose nature was so emotional. He studied medicine, and had begun to practise it when his thoughts turned to the ministry, agreeably to his mother's hopes and prayers. There is no pleasanter page in the book than that which bears the picture of her face. He entered the ministry only to leave it shortly for the chair of Natural Science in Allegheny College, at Meadville, Pa., an humble institution, preaching meantime in the vicinity, and enjoying mightily the college library. This was a good library for the time and place, a remarkable collection of books that had belonged to quaint old Dr. Bentley of Salem, Mass., being a part of it.

In 1839 the young teacher was invited to the presidency of Asbury University in Greencastle, Ind. The outward and visible sign of this institution's existence was a two-story building some forty feet square. The faculty was stronger by one person than that reported to Mr. Bryce by the president of a Western college — "Mrs. Jones and myself"—and there were but eleven students. There was, however, plenty of hard work to do, with much anxiety, and a full share of the preaching excursions hither and thither which were the order of the day. In bodily presence Simpson was weak, and was seldom recognized by strangers as the expected man; once getting the corner of the table for his solitary meal, because President Simpson was expected. His presidency lasted ten years, when he became editor of the *Western Christian Advocate*. He held this position till 1852, and took an honorable part in the discussion of the compromise measures of 1850, winning the golden opinion of S. P. Chase, and the "curses not loud but deep" of a good many of his Methodist brethren.

One of the most interesting chapters in the book is that giving an account of the General Conferences of 1844 and 1848. The former was the Conference which dealt with the case of Andrews, the slaveholding Maryland bishop. The author's style perceptibly warms and quickens in narrating the events of that exciting time. There is a refreshing frankness in his dealing with them: "Mr. Calhoun trod in the footsteps of the Southern Methodist leaders"; "for the claim of the inherent right of slavery to go anywhere in the Church, in the person of a slaveholding bishop, was followed by the claim of the right of slavery to go anywhere within the limits of the nation." The indictment of the Church as "the bulwark of slavery" gets several counts in the course of the narration. President Simpson was "in delightful obscurity" at this Conference. He was interested in the examination of the titles of church property and in the preparation of historical records. But in the Conference of 1848 he took a leading part in repudiating and stigmatizing the action of the Southern Methodist Church. In the Conference of 1852 he was actively opposed to lay delegation, of which he was one of the most powerful advocates at a later time.

In this year he was made a bishop without any log-rolling. Doubtless the temptation was less then than now, but the man would have been equal to a greater strain. His episcopal tours made him a frequent traveller, and his journeys took a wide range and were enlivened with a good deal of various incident. From such a record it is evident that the Bishop's office was no sinecure. We follow him to Oregon and California, and to the Holy Land in search of his lost health. He made good use of it, when found, in the endeavor to make the Methodist Church a compact Unionist and anti-slavery body. His special task was to hold fast the Methodists of the border States. He was often in Washington, and his relations with Lincoln were of the most cordial character. The two men were much alike in the homely simplicity of their manners and their discourse. Bishop Simpson made powerful speeches on great public occasions, taking an active part in Sanitary Commission work, being deputed by Lincoln to speak for him at Philadelphia, and putting forth all his strength for him in 1864. The battles of the war were succeeded in the Methodist Church by the battle for lay delegation, which was crowned with victory in 1872. It was in the earlier stages of the final conflict that Bishop Simpson did his most effective work for the good cause. At the time of Garfield's death he was in London, and spoke impressively at the memorial meeting best remembered for the address of Mr. Lowell.

There is a lack of definition in Dr. Crooks's account of Bishop Simpson's episcopal career. The multitude of incidents obscures the general impression. It was probably the routine work of a bishop, reinforced by preaching of uncommon brilliancy and force. There was so little in his dress or manner to suggest episcopal dignity that sometimes he preached as "Brother Simpson" and got found out as he went along.

"To move among his countrymen as an unpretending, equal fellow-citizen was the study of his life. His dress was wholly unclerical, not even the customary white necktie indicating his vocation. Besides, there was ascribed to him at this period of his life [1853] an ungainliness of manner which gave him the air of a good, wholesome lay preacher from a rural district. [This is the man of the frontispiece portrait.] A certain lack of grace must have been visible, for it is a point of frequent mention in the newspaper notices of the period. It must be admitted that in hats he was always weak."

Sometimes he wore a hat so bad that he had to be taken with gentle violence to the hatter's for a more respectable article in that kind.

His voice, also, was against him till it was clarified and inspired by his emotion. Evidently his preaching was of that kind which cannot be reported. Something of the man went into it to make it great. What we can see, at this distance, is that it was perfectly simple, that it abounded in vivid illustrations, and that its aim was never to instruct, but always to persuade. Dr. Channing, advising a young preacher, said: "Never preach on any but great subjects." This was Bishop Simpson's rule. His subjects, as given by his biographer, are always large and general. His preaching was purely extemporaneous; he did not believe in any other. He scribbled a few notes beforehand, and left them at home. Such preaching lives in lives made better by its influence, if it lives at all. Bishop Simpson's sermons aimed to excite emotion—to shame, to shock, to terrify his hearers; to allure them, by a vivid presentation of the love of God, to repentance and a virtuous life. If his biographer has not done him great injustice, the Bishop's preaching was fairly representative of his life in its lack of any thoughtful quality. If ever any of the great questions in science, in philosophy, in criticism, in theology, which agitated his time, engrossed his interest, his biographer gives no sign of it. It is likely that he knew

the measure of his strength, and preferred to do his own work in his own way to bungling at some other man's.

After the formation of the Christian Commission it would appear that Bishop Simpson lent his zeal to it, but in this connection everything is very loosely said. What is told of the formation of the Sanitary Commission is erroneously if not deliberately unjust to the personal head of that great enterprise. The date of Lincoln's anticipatory proclamation is given as September 28, 1862, a mistake for September 22. The extracts from Bishop Simpson's correspondence are almost without exception from his domestic letters, and they reveal the warmth and steadiness of his affections in no doubtful manner. The illustrations of the volume are a valuable addition to the text. The Bishop's "skeleton" on page 296 is that of one of his most famous sermons, and the bones are very few. The picture of the original "Asbury University," a one-story school-house (not the building of 1839 above mentioned, a picture of which is also given), is calculated to provoke a quiet smile. Best of all are the two pictures of Bishop Simpson. They are evidently the work of the publishers' best engravers. The treatment of the second is very different from that of the first, but which is the better it would be difficult to say.

TAYLOR'S ORIGIN OF THE ARYANS.

The Origin of the Aryans: An Account of the Prehistoric Ethnology and Civilization of Europe. By Isaac Taylor, M.A.; Litt.D.; Hon. LL.D. [Contemporary Science Series.] Scribner & Welford. 1890.

"THE whilom tyranny of the Sanskritists is happily overpast, and it is seen that hasty philological deductions require to be systematically checked by the conclusions of prehistoric archæology, craniology, anthropology, geology, and common sense." Such are the words with which Canon Taylor closes his industrious, but ambitious, attempt to give a summary of the speculations of several recent scholars upon the vexed question, Who were the so-called Aryans, and where did they originate? It is plain that a very wide range of special knowledge is needed in such an undertaking to pass judgment upon the force of the various arguments urged; and it may well be questioned whether it will be any gain to human knowledge to have "the tyranny of the Sanskritists" replaced by that of "the craniologists," when we call to mind Oscar Peschel's caution that "craniological characters alone are not to be relied upon."

Dr. Taylor is a well-known and learned philologist, but his competence in the other departments of science to which he has referred has yet to be proved. That he is not proficient in prehistoric archæology, the first which he calls upon to check the conclusions of his brother philologists, is evident from his remark that "the flint flakes which constitute the earliest evidences of the existence of man in Europe, afford no criterion of language or even of race" (p. 55). Every prehistoric archæologist knows that "palæolithic implements" are not "flint flakes"; while that the former, only, "constitute the earliest evidences of the existence of man in Europe" is the opinion of all of them, except the few believers in the existence of the Tertiary man. Dr. Taylor quotes archæological statements without noticing their inconsistency with each other, and proceeds to draw important inferences from them. After having informed us that "the stone implements from the kitchen-middens, or shell-mounds, of Denmark are more archaic in character than those from the Swiss lake-dwellings" (p. 60), he states that "one of the oldest lake-dwellings is that of Schussenreid, on the Feder-See, in Würtemberg, which, from the character of the flint implements, has been thought to be coeval with the Danish kitchen-middens" (p. 153). Subsequently this becomes: "The types of the flint implements found in the lake-dwellings of Schussenreid are thought to be more archaic than some of those from the kitchen-middens" (p. 242). When it is known that, in the very passage quoted from, Dr. Keller informs us that among the remains found at Schussenreid were beautifully made arrow-heads, fabricated out of various silicious materials, the prehistoric archæologist may well feel inclined to question inferences made to rest in large measure upon the fancied contemporaneousness of the lake-dwellers of Switzerland, the very earliest of whom unquestionably must be placed in the Age of Polished Stone, with the men of the Danish kitchen-middens, who were certainly ignorant of the use of implements so fashioned.

We are constrained to think, therefore, that the author is scarcely qualified to pronounce judgment so confidently as he has done in favor of the Celtic, as opposed to the Teutonic, theory of the origin of the Aryans. But his book is a very interesting and readable one, and is the first to bring to the knowledge of English readers the remarkable change that is going on in the views of European scholars on the Continent upon the origin of the Indo-European races. Dr. R. G. Latham was the first to raise the standard of revolt against the Sanskritists, in 1851, by this incidental remark: "I doubt whether any man living has ever recognized the opposite alternative, viz., that of the Sanskrit and its allied languages coming from Europe" ('The Germania of Tacitus, with ethnological dissertations and notes: Epilegomena,' p. cxxxix.). But that school has had a notable champion in Max Müller, the fascination of whose style has done so much to give vogue to the Asiatic hypothesis, which he still maintains, despite the well-known opposition of Prof. W. D. Whitney. But Prof. Sayce, with characteristic hardihood, has been the first of its former supporters to announce his conversion to the theory that "the Aryan race had its first seat not in Asia, but in the Baltic provinces and northern Germany"; a view which he has set forth, in his usual interesting fashion, in an article upon "The Primitive Home of the Aryans," in the *Contemporary Review* for July, 1889.

The real assault, however, upon the ancient position was led by Theodore Benfey in 1869, when he reached the conclusion that, "since the investigations of the geologists have established the fact that, from immemorial times, Europe has been the abode of man, the whole of the arguments which have been adduced in favor of the migration of the Aryans from Asia fall to the ground." This was followed in 1871 by E. L. Geiger's arguments, mainly founded upon the tree names of the primitive Aryan vocabulary. The most convincing of these was that of the beech, the word denoting which means the oak in Greek; whereas the beech is unknown in Greece. Geiger, therefore, thinks that the Greeks migrated from a land of beeches to a land of oaks, and transferred the name of the tree with "edible" fruit from the one to the other, in opposition to Max Müller's explanation that the word originally denoted the oak, and was transferred to the beech at the time when the oak forests of Jutland were replaced by beeches. We have not space to give an account of the interesting discussion upon this point, which will be found clearly stated in a valuable article upon "The Ethnological Significance of the Beech," in *Science*, November 15, 1889.

In the same year, 1871, G. Cuno first insisted upon the proposition that race is not necessarily coextensive with language; that the existing extension of Aryan speech is largely the result of conquest and the incorporation of subjugated peoples; that the undivided Aryans must have been a numerous, nomad, pastoral race; and that the great plain of central Europe must have been their original home, as alone supplying the necessary geographical conditions.

After several contributions to the discussion by philologists, in 1878 Theodor Pösche brought forward anthropological arguments to show that while there might be Aryan languages spoken by races wholly unrelated, only the tall, blue-eyed, fair-skinned, dolicocephalic German race could claim to be the primitive Aryans; and that they originated in the great Rokitno marshes, where the river Dnieper takes its rise, and afterwards extended themselves as the pile-dwellers of Switzerland and upper Italy.

Karl Penka, in 1883, employing similar arguments to Pösche's, maintained that the race described by him had its original home in Scandinavia, where it is to be found in its greatest purity; and that it spread southward in neolithic times, and conquered the original populations. In the same year, 1883, Otto Schrader adopted the European hypothesis, mainly upon philological grounds, which he has developed in a later work, that has recently appeared in an English dress, in which the archæological material bearing upon the question is collected and reviewed. He, too, has reached the conclusion that the plains of southwestern Russia were the cradle of the Aryan race.

We have thus attempted merely to mention the more important recent contributions to the discussion of this difficult problem, and would commend to all who are interested in its study an extended bibliography of the subject of "The European Origin of the Aryans," compiled by Mr. A. P. C. Griffin, and just published in the Bulletin of the Boston Public Library for April, 1890. We have only space to indicate very briefly the conclusions reached by Dr. Taylor in the work under notice, and regret our inability to give in detail the reasons upon which they are grounded. He believes that in neolithic times Europe was occupied by four distinct races. A short, dark, dolicocephalic people dwelt on the Mediterranean and Atlantic shores, from Italy and Spain to Britain, to whom the name *Iberian* has been given; they buried their dead in long barrows, and seem to be related to the Hamitic race. In central France dwelt a short, black-haired, and extremely brachycephalic people resembling the Lapps, who seem to have belonged to the Turanian family; to them the name of *Ligurian* has been given. The Celto-Slavic race occupied central Europe: tall, muscular, brachycephalic, with yellow or red hair, and florid skins, they invaded Britain towards the close of the neolithic period, and buried their dead in round barrows. In the north dwelt the Scandinavian or Teutonic race, superficially resembling the Celts, but radically distinguished by the shape of the skull; they were tall, large-limbed, and fair-haired, but strongly dolicocephalic.

It is only one of the last two races that can be regarded as the original Aryans, if their home is to be sought in Europe, and the question which it was has been debated with needless acrimony. The Germans have contended

for their own race, and the French for theirs, as having been the introducers of the germs of civilization in Europe. Dr. Taylor has pronounced for the Celts in the following unmistakable language: "The energy, the self-will, the fondness for adventure, and the love of combat, which have enabled the Teutonic peoples to extend their rule over the world, come from the dolicocephalic race; but the intellect and genius of Europe, the great writers, and more especially the men of science, belong rather to the brachycephalic race, which has so profoundly modified the physical type in Germany, France, Italy, and England" (p. 245).

Court Life under the Plantagenets (Reign of Henry the Second). By Hubert Hall. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890. Pp. vi, 271. 8vo.

THE title of this book does not give a clear idea of its contents. Either "English Institutions under Henry II." or "England under Henry II." would be a more appropriate title. The author, in his preface, admits that no scenes either of love or chivalry are depicted in these pages, and that the knight-errant and jester are wholly excluded from consideration. Seven out of thirteen chapters have almost nothing to do with court life, even in the broadest acceptation of the term.

The reader is introduced in chapter i. to Richard de Anesti, a baron of Hertfordshire, who receives a visit from his friend William Fitz-Nigel, a brother of Henry II.'s famous treasurer. The host describes to his guest the organization and economy of the manor of Anesti. Richard then accompanies William to London, and there meets his brother John the Clerk, Richard Fitz-Nigel, and other old friends. He wanders about in London guided by John or Richard, who explain to him the sights and institutions of the place: the buildings and streets of London, its Jews, commerce, and amusements, the royal household, the King's council, his court of justice, and the Exchequer (ch. ii.–ix.). Richard then follows the King's court to Windsor, where Henry II. and his courtiers indulge in hawking, to which subject a large part of chapter x. is devoted. Thence Richard goes with the court to Waltham Abbey, the organization of which is described (ch. xi.). Next we find him at St. Alban's, where the reader is introduced to the Schoolmen (ch. xii.) and a Martyrology, or the Passion of St. Amphibalus (ch. xiii.). The work, in its plan, resembles Palgrave's 'Merchant and Friar,' but is not as skilfully executed as the latter.

Little seems to be gained by adopting this mode of publishing the results of original investigation. There is not enough plot in the story to attract the ordinary novel-reader, who will also be dismayed by meeting many technical terms unintelligible to him; nor will the narrative satisfy the more sober historical student, who desires a more complete presentation of facts, together with chapter and verse for every important assertion. As it is, the book before us is neither romance nor history. It is history more or less warped by being forced into a mould not suited to preserve all its true outlines. It is history covered with a very thin sugar-coating of romance, which will not make the solid morsel more palatable to any class of readers.

Another fault of the book, to which all classes of readers will object, is the obscurity that marks and mars many parts of the narrative, for example, the description of an ancient tally on p. 119; other examples will be found on pp. 124–127, 142, 151. This same lack of clearness is perceptible not only in the general title of the book, as already indicated, but also in the headings of the chapters. "Commerce" would certainly be a more appropriate title for chapter iii. than "Guilds," for little is said concerning the latter and much concerning the former. Chapter iv. is called "Games," but it is almost entirely devoted to exercises of religion and learning. The subject of chapter vi. is "The King's Council," but less than half of the chapter deals with this topic, and the real functions of that body are very incompletely portrayed, nothing at all being said of its legislative powers. Chapter ix. is headed "At the Exchequer"; chapter viii. deals with the same general subject, but has a different title.

Another general weakness of the author is his use of later sources to explain certain institutions of a much earlier period (pp. 217–230). For example, in describing London during the twelfth century, he derives much of his evidence from the records of the fourteenth century, ignoring the great development of commerce, of craft gilds, and other civic institutions that took place under Henry III. and the three Edwards. Thus on p. 42 he ascribes to the reign of Henry II. a vast expansion of weaving and cognate industries that really took place not less than a century later, though it may be admitted that much industrial progress was made in the reigns of Henry I. and Henry II. It is legitimate for an historian to fill up gaps in our knowledge by reasoning from the analogies or survivals of a later period; but this method of investigation is easily abused, and often leads to the perversion of truth.

The book before us also contains errors of detail, and many statements of fact that are at least questionable. We will notice only a few of these. On p. 19, scutage is said to consist of twenty shillings for each knight's fee; but Stubbs and the 'Dialogus de Scaccario' both give twenty shillings as the usual scutage under Henry II. We doubt the statements that Henry I. granted a charter to the Jews of England (p. 33), and that the "Saxon laws" consign the ownership of the Jews to the crown (p. 233). Again, on p. 33, the author speaks of the status of the Jews before the Norman Conquest with more definiteness than the sources warrant. If Mr. Hall had carefully read the lectures delivered at the Anglo-Jewish Exhibition, he would have found a clearer and fuller statement than his own (pp. 233–234) regarding the towns in which Jews were allowed to reside. His list of such towns under Henry II. omits Hereford and Wallingford. We cannot agree with the author's excessive disparagement of mediæval satirical poetry as a source of historical information (p. 240). Much of it is certainly as useful and authentic as the satire of Walter Map, which Mr. Hall does not hesitate to use with the greatest freedom. On p. 88 the author speaks as though the Exchequer and "Curia Regis," under Henry II., each had a separate staff of officers. This is contrary to the view of the best authorities, and cannot be accepted without proof. Bigelow's 'History of Procedure' should not have been omitted from the list of authorities for the study of Anglo-Norman jurisprudence (p. 250). From the remarks on pp. 136–137 regarding murder (taken from the 'Dialogus de Scaccario') one would infer that presentment of Englishry had already ceased to exist in 1177; but it continued in vogue in the thirteenth century, and was not abolished until 1340.

Notwithstanding these strictures, we do not hesitate to say that students of history will find much of value in Mr. Hall's book, many portions of which bear evidence of conscientious research among original records. On some of the topics which he discusses (notably the Exchequer) Mr. Hall is a recognized authority. We may also add that the illustrations are numerous and admirable.

Scouting for Stanley in East Africa. By Thomas Stevens. With illustrations. Cassell Publishing Co. Pp. vii, 288, 8vo.

MR. THOMAS STEVENS, the bicyclist, out of somewhat scant material has written a very readable book. He was sent out early last year by the New York *World* to East Africa to find Stanley. As the Germans refused to allow him to go into the interior through their possessions, he made his way to the region at the foot of Mt. Kilima-njaro. Here he spent a few months hunting and "scouting" for news, but, being unsuccessful in this, he returned to Zanzibar. It was not till the end of November that tidings came to this place that the relief expedition was approaching the coast through the German territory. Mr. Stevens, accompanied by only five natives, managed to evade the frontier guards, and joined the party sent to meet Stanley, whom they found four or five days' march inland.

The reader of Thomson's and Johnston's well-known works will find nothing new in the description of the wonderfully beautiful and fertile region at the foot of the great snow-clad mountain, nor of the remarkable tribe which roams the vast plains to the northward. But those who are unfamiliar with these writers will be much interested in Mr. Stevens's account of the paradise of Taveta, the Chaga States, and the Masai. Particularly good is his description of the make-up and start of a caravan of porters for the interior. His hunting adventures, principally with buffalo and rhinoceroses, are entertaining, but differ in no respect from those of a hundred other sportsmen. The most interesting chapters, of course, are those relating to Stanley and Emin Pasha. There is a graphic picture of the great explorer's appearance, as well as of his camp and the expedition upon the march. This was headed by Mr. Stanley on a donkey "which was presided over by a young man with a red turban, red knee-breeches, and red shirt, and who seemed particularly proud of the exalted position to which he had, on his personal merits, climbed." Immediately behind followed his personal attendants, thirty or forty picked men, distinguished from the rest of the porters by their red blankets.

Stanley's officers appear to have talked freely with the correspondent of the *World*; but whether they would have done so had they known that what they said was to be published, might be a question. Of their leader one declared, "He is the hardest man to understand that any of us ever came in contact with or ever expect to."

"There have been times," replied another to an inquiry as to his treatment of them, "when we have thought Stanley a harsh, unfeeling man, who had no sympathy for the sufferings of others, and was bent on working us to death. I have seen days when, if I could have had the ear of the public at home, I should have felt inclined to vent, in the columns of the paper, some grievances that seemed very real, I can assure you, at the moment. But, now it is all over, I can look back and see that Stanley was right. Without the hard, exacting work, we should never have pulled through, and Stanley's seeming harshness never goes beyond the point necessary for the success of the undertaking he is engaged in."

According to Surgeon Parke, Stanley was in reality a tender-hearted man. "Whenever there was important work to be done," he added, "so long as we could totter on our feet,

half-dead perhaps with fever, Stanley demanded from us our last gasp of energy and strength. But, the strain of the situation over, Stanley was himself again—a kindly, though never effusive, soul."

During the march to the coast Mr. Stevens had several conversations with Emin Pasha, the substance of which is given in the closing chapter. Among other things he expressed the opinion that the Mahdist rebellion was not a religious movement, but simply an uprising of the Sudanese against the corrupt Egyptian rule. In explanation of his own failure to maintain himself through the unfaithfulness of his officers, he said that "the Equatorial Province has always been considered a sort of Egyptian Siberia by the authorities at Cairo. Most of my officers were sent to me as a punishment for committing some crime or some act of insubordination in Egypt." At another time he said:

"The Egyptian Government has always sent the worst of everything to the Equatorial Province. Even the ammunition which Mr. Stanley brought, sent to us from the Government magazines at Cairo, was for the most part utterly worthless. They were old, damaged stores that the corrupt officials at Cairo took this opportunity of getting off their hands, to cover up their wretched speculations. Percussion caps were sent to us not one in a dozen of which would strike fire. This was not the Khédive's fault, nor, of course, Mr. Stanley's. It was very discouraging to my poor soldiers to find that, even when so much trouble had been taken to reach us, they had sent us worthless ammunition mostly. This outrageous treatment from the Egyptian Government, while a powerful enemy was within our very gates, would have shaken the loyalty of any body of troops in the world. Yet my brave fellows fought a great battle with Omar Saleh at Dufile, after Mr. Jephson had joined me and Mr. Stanley had returned to the Congo to bring up his rear column. On this occasion we captured a very interesting relic, the first Mahdist flag, the sacred banner of the Mahdi, that was carried into Khartum after the death of Gen. Gordon."

The Stanley part of Mr. Stevens's instructions was very fairly carried out, but he seems to have neglected other parts of considerable importance to his employers. He has very little new to say about the slave trade, and nothing at all "about the troubles between the Germans and the Arabs." Nor does he give us any information, as he was directed to do, about Zanzibar and its political and commercial situation. If he had employed the three months during which he waited for Stanley in studying the actions of the Germans on the coast, in finding out what the two great rival companies had accomplished, and what were their prospects in the future, he would undoubtedly have written a book of considerable value. As it is, it does not rise above the rank or importance of an ordinary letter to the newspapers.

The Civil War on the Border: A narrative of operations in Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, and the Indian Territory during the years 1861–'62, etc. By Wiley Britton, War Department. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. xvii, 465.

We have here a straightforward effort to tell the story of the campaigns in Missouri and the adjacent territory during the first two years of the civil war. The author served on the national side, and most of what he narrates occurred under his own eye. He is able, therefore, to give more of local color than a mere compiler could give, and estimates the officers and men on both sides according to the impression they made upon those who were in contact with them. The character of the troops is also brought out, incidentally, in an instructive way, showing something of the peculiar quality of the well-organized and disciplined, as well as of the irregulars, the "jayhawkers," the Indian contingent, and the "guerillas."

While we are thankful for what the author has given us in this respect, we cannot help regretting that he has not given us more. Each theatre of operations has something peculiar to itself. The "border-ruffian" struggle on the confines of Missouri and Kansas had imprinted peculiar traits upon the people, and modified the conflict when it came under the outer guise of regular warfare. The fact that the half-civilized Cherokees and Creeks were also divided between the Union and the Confederacy introduced another peculiar element into the struggle. The author could profitably have put much more of his strength upon the characteristics thus brought into play, and so have given us what no one but one to the manner born could supply. We can search the official records for ourselves. We are in danger of losing the things which made the fight on that border different from any other.

The narrative is a clear and evidently a conscientious one. The writer's impressions of the officers in high command are given with frankness, and with no more prejudice than is almost necessarily begotten in a subordinate whose point of view is often limited by narrow bounds. The grasp is not large nor strong, but the writer's purpose is evidently honest, and we may accept him as a candid witness without pinning our faith too closely to his opinions or his criticisms.

We are puzzled a little by his statement that he is not aware that any one "has hitherto undertaken to give an account of the operations extending over that section during the period covered by this volume." The "section" must be limited by boundaries that exclude the engagements at Wilson's Creek, Pea Ridge, Lexington, etc., or the author must be strangely ignorant of what has been written. Snead's brilliant volume, 'The Fight for Missouri,' has made the Confederate side of it familiar to readers of our war history.

The style of the book has, for the most part, the merit of simplicity and directness, though the author occasionally lapses into rhetorical efforts which are not entirely happy. These are not frequent, however, most of the narrative having the good quality of freedom from proofs that the author was making any special effort at fine writing. It is a valuable addition to the list of special memoirs on the war written by men who took part in what they describe.

The book is beautifully printed by the Knickerbocker Press, with tasteful head and tail-pieces to the chapters. Folding maps of the fields of Wilson's Creek, Pea Ridge, and Prairie Grove are given, but a book of this character should have an outline map of the whole theatre of operations, and smaller sketch maps on the page to illustrate the several engagements and movements. Readers ought not to be put to the trouble of hunting up atlases in perusing such a book, and even atlases lack the necessary detail.

Social Aspects of Christianity, and Other Essays. By Richard T. Ely, Ph.D. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The predominant "social aspect" of Christianity revealed by these essays, we regret to say, seems to be uncharitableness. The writer "deals damnation round the land" after a most promiscuous fashion, and preaches Christian love in a manner that might well arouse the envy of the most polemical divine that ever devoted those who differed with him to perdition. "The leaders of the Church," he says, "the representative men and women in the Church, profess to love the working classes, but, as a matter of fact, they do not love them." The feeling is reciprocal, but, on the other hand, "Christ moved among the masses, and understood them, and to-day the poorest laborer and the most obstinate trades unionist, yes, even the despised walking delegate, will feel a strange attraction for that wonderful Being who spoke words which go straight to the heart." It is not generally questioned, we suppose, that the words of Christ appeal to all mankind, but the irreverent invocation of his name which is painfully common in the ordinary conversation of persons of the class mentioned, perhaps justifies the description of the attraction which they feel as strange. For Christians, again, luxury is for ever an impossibility; their attire especially "should be plain and simple, such as will not divert attention from the word of God." Nor is there to be any quibbling about this; "the simple dressing so often admired in fashionable churches is frequently more expensive, far more expensive, than the gaudiest dress in poorer churches," and "an entire absence of everything in dress which cultivates worldliness and awakens a desire for perishable riches must be enjoined. Absence of such dress as will awaken envious desires in weak natures is equally a matter of course."

We were for some time at a loss to understand how the Christian who had attained such entire absence of dress as to extinguish worldliness and the desire for perishable riches, could further decently denude himself or herself, so as to lull to sleep envious desires in weak natures; but we are convinced that the author added the sentence last quoted for a personal reason. He is in some sense a rival of Mr. Edward Atkinson in philanthropical work—Mr. Atkinson pointing out to working people the means of bettering themselves by economy, fidelity, industry, and invention, while the author recommends the expenditure of their savings in the support of the Knights of Labor and the maintenance of industrial enterprises directed by our legislatures and city governments—in which work Mr. Atkinson is thought by many to have done more good than the author of these essays has mischief. Now, it may not be generally known that Mr. Atkinson occasionally appears before his audiences in a plain and simple suit of clothes, well-made, well-fitting, and of good material, but apparently not at all of a character to divert attention from the word of God, or to cultivate worldliness, or awaken a desire for perishable riches. The cost of these garments is represented by Mr. Atkinson to be something like $8, so that they are certainly not expensive, and would seem to conform to all the requirements of Christianity. Yet such is the perversity of weak human nature that all the men in the audience have their envious desires immediately awakened by what would perhaps be called by our author the lack of absence of such dress, and may be heard to lament the sad estate into which their tailors have brought them. How much keener, then, must be the feeling of one who aspires to rival Mr. Atkinson in the favor of the public!

That our theory of the interpretation of this sentence is correct we think is established by our author's reprobation of Mr. Atkinson's views. That Mr. Atkinson is meant, no one who has read his recent publications can question, when Dr. Ely mentions, as one of the "reli-

glous subjects" which the Church ought to take up, "a refutation of those ridiculous persons who would have us believe that wage-earners now receive nine-tenths of all the wealth produced—quackery and jugglery which must delight Satan."

But the utter hollowness of the professions of modern Christians is most severely reprehended by our author in his exposure of their heartless neglect of the American Economic Association, an institution of which he is secretary. The purpose of this organization "is to study seriously the second of the two great commandments on which hang all the law and the prophets," and the author pathetically puts to his readers the query, "Now you would imagine this something to appeal to every Christian, would you not?" It may appeal to them, but, like spirits called from the vasty deep, they do not respond to the appeal. The American Economic Association has piped unto them, but they will not dance; they are apathetic and indifferent when asked to contribute even small sums, and few of them, comparatively, "seem to care to do anythiug more for their suffering fellow-creatures than to administer some kind of soothing-syrup." The situation, we apprehend, is hopeless unless the author's doctrine of "coercive philanthropy" can be applied, and Christians who neglect so plain a duty be made to sweat for it.

It may seem a waste of space to call attention at such length to this ill-tempered screed; but so much of this wretchedly materialistic perversion of the teaching of Jesus is now tolerated, if not encouraged, by the Church, that it is well to consider whether it does not seriously menace her usefulness. The attitude of the Church towards natural science has repelled from her a large proportion of the intelligence of the community, and if she is to surrender herself to the control of the "Christian Socialists," a still larger proportion must in self-respect withdraw. At this stage of the world's development it is doubtful if such a defection would not be permanent; for it might prove that functions hitherto exercised by her, if now resigned, could never be resumed.

A Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with Especial Reference to English and German. By G. H. Balg, Ph.D. With a Preface by Prof. Francis A. March, LL.D. Mayville, Wis.: The Author; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

Dr. Balg's 'Gothic Glossary,' of which a preliminary notice was given in these columns, has been appearing in instalments since 1887. Its last part, containing the promised preface by Prof. F. A. March, and the author's introduction, together with an appendix and indexes, enables us to give a critical estimate of the whole work, and to determine how well it has justified the good-natured encouragement of such well-known philologists as Professors Whitney, Max Müller, and Skeat, whose "commendatory testimonials" have heralded the book in the publisher's announcement. The Glossary is, besides this, of no slight importance in that it is the first extended work ever produced in America in any department of purely scientific Germanic lexicography, and may justly be viewed, in its indication of increased scholarly attention in this direction, as a hopeful sign of the times. In its character, however, as a "scientific comparative glossary of the Gothic language," it is open to some degree of criticism for the use it has made of the material at hand and the total result attained. While it has been, in fact, unmistakably, to no small extent a labor of love carried out with manifest painstaking, the work bestowed has not always been well directed, and the whole appears to lack a sufficiently definite purpose. Gothic dictionaries cannot, from the nature of the case, be written every year or every decade. The only Gothic glossary in English down to the appearance of this work was Skeat's 'A Mœso-Gothic Glossary,' published in 1868, and now wholly superseded by more exact textual criticism and more accurate etymological knowledge. There was, consequently, a place for a work that should embody all the late results of investigation in this particular field, and the opportunity, because it is so rare, should have been carefully used to the fullest and minutest extent of the material.

The Glossary contains, according to the author in his introduction, "the extant words of the Gothic language." In reality there have here been glossed the Ulfilas translation, the commentary on John called by Massmann the 'Skeireins,' the fragments of the 'Calendar,' and the signatures of the Naples and Arezzo documents, as contained in the best edited text that we have, viz.: Bernhardt's 'Vulfila, oder die gothische Bibel.' Completely to justify the author's statement, the few runic inscriptions now conceded to be Gothic ought to have been, as they very properly might have been, incorporated in the book. These consist, to be sure, only in the names on the Kowel and Müncheberg spear-heads and the *gutaniowi hailag* of the Bucharest ring; but because they have been directly transmitted they are clearly of value in a vocabulary as circumscribed as is the Gothic in its known constituents. The indirectly transmitted words and names have been collected elsewhere and do not properly come into consideration here. In transliteration, Dr. Balg has wisely followed the rational orthography of the second edition of Braune's grammar, which prints a special ligature for what is according to the usual transcription the twenty-fifth sign of the Gothic alphabet (voiceless *w*; English *wh*), variously represented elsewhere by *hv*, *hw*, *w*; *q* for the sixth sign (labialized *k*; Latin *qu*), variously represented by *kv*, *kw*, *qu*, *q*; *w* (half-vowel) for the twenty-second sign, usually represented by *v*. In the order of words in the glossary the ligature naturally follows *h*, as *q* follows *k*.

Dr. Balg disclaims the idea of having "tried to write a complete etymological dictionary of the Gothic language," and Prof. March, in the preface, calls attention to the fact that though "this glossary is largely occupied with comparative etymology, it should not be judged as a scientific etymological dictionary merely." Completely to have fulfilled the measure of its usefulness, however, it should have been a scientific etymological dictionary, thorough, and, on the present basis of comparative grammar, complete and definitive. There is no such book, and there is need of one. Another valid criticism touches the presence of extraneous material—material, to be sure, perfectly good in its place, often well worked out, and, it may be, suggestive to an etymological dilettante. Such material is, furthermore, not infrequently placed where no one would think of looking for it and must happen upon it incidentally. A similar difficulty occurs in the cases where, to use the language of the prospectus, the Glossary "treats of cognate Romanic words that have supplanted or increased the number of English words." This part of the work, moreover, is, as it could not but be, wholly desultory, and it and instances from German similar to those from English should have been left to Skeat and Kluge, in whose pages they will still invariably be sought in spite of their incorporation here. Just this fact, that in order to make the English and German part reasonably complete it has been found necessary to bring in the sort of material described, is argument enough, even if there were no other, as to the fallacy of making Gothic the basis of a comparative Germanic dictionary, which is what this book really is. In such a dictionary, instead of being proceeded from, Gothic, with its limited vocabulary, should be led up to wherever it is possible. Had the author used the room employed in citing the reference place of every word glossed, the book would have been infinitely more valuable and not as voluminous as he has feared.

In the preparation of the Glossary the author has made in the main an intelligent use of the best subsidia on the subject, but it does seem that in cases of etymological doubt we might have been spared the not infrequent references to Diefenbach. Although it is not always possible, with the order of arrangement, to connect the reference with its particular shade of meaning, the Gothic words are usually well glossed in their different significations. In etymologies, according to the author, the dictionaries of Kluge, Skeat, and Schade, and Feist's 'Grundriss' have been most often used. Kluge, unfortunately, in a few instances has been imperfectly understood, and some errors in statement have thus crept in. The separate indexes at the end, of Greek, Latin, English, Old Norse, Old Saxon, and German words opposite the Gothic word glossed, serve, in some degree, to offset the peculiar disposition of the material.

Dr. Balg has evidently selected Gothic as his especial field of labor. Besides the present work, he published, in 1883, an English translation of Braune's Gothic Grammar. He announces, furthermore, as well under way, an edition of the Gothic texts, with a syntax and notes.

Golf. By Horace G. Hutchinson. [The Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

It has been said of the Badminton Library of books on Sport that it differs from all similar collections in that the writers are not only experts in the sports they describe, but also more or less skilful in the use of the pen, whereas most sporting books are written either by sportsmen who are no writers, or by writers who are no sportsmen. The present volume possesses this combination of attractions, and is ushered in by a chapter on the history of the game of golf from the ever-ready pen of Mr. Andrew Lang. The word "golf" he connects with the German *Kolbe* and the Belgian *chole*, both signifying "a club," and the origin of the game itself seems to be lost in the mists of the middle ages. It was played to such an extent in the time of James VI. of Scotland that that thoughtful monarch clapped a prohibitory duty on golf balls imported from Holland, not, as Mr. Lang would have us believe, because "it was not then the crazy fashion to encourage foreign at the expense of home manufactures," but because the wise men of the period had begun to grapple with the problem of the balance of trade, and warned the King against an export of "siller" to pay for the balls! In 1592 the Town Council of Edinburgh contributed to the "pious gloom of their country" by prohibiting golf on Sunday, and the far-reaching effect of such legislation may still be seen by the traveller of to-day whose misfortune it is to experience a Scotch Sunday.

And now what is this "royal and ancient" game of golf? A humorist has declared that it consisted in "putting little balls into little holes with instruments very ill adapted to the purpose"—but this description is inadequate. The course, or links, as it is called, over which the game is played, may be of any size, but, if possible, it should be between one and two miles in length, giving room for nine holes from 100 to 500 yards apart on the journey out, and as many more on the return. These holes are four inches in diameter, and are surrounded by a piece of smooth turf called the "putting green." The ball is made of compressed gutta-percha, and is a little less than two inches in diameter, and the clubs used in driving it are of many different sorts and sizes, according to the nature of the ground from which the ball is to be hit and the fancy of the player making the stroke. The aim of the player is to drive the ball into the first hole, and thence into each succeeding hole, in the smallest possible number of strokes; and as the ground between the different "putting greens" is full of "hazards" in the shape of sand holes, bushes, long grass, etc., and the ball—after the first shot—must be hit from the spot where it happens to fall, however rough that spot may be, it is easy to see that the game calls for much skill, both in the hard drives from the starting point and in the more nicely calculated "approach" and "putting" shots nearer the holes.

The exercise is moderate, but still sufficient for the young, and not too violent for the old, and, according to Mr. Balfour (who, by the way, to judge from his contribution to this volume, has a keener enthusiasm for golf than for the Irish question), the game "should be begun as soon as you can walk, and continued as long as you can walk." In respect of the accuracy of stroke, which is so essential to success, the game may be said to resemble the venerable game of *real* (not lawn) tennis, while the short strokes on the putting green may well have suggested the modern game of croquet. Mr. Balfour quotes the complaint of the keeper of a racket court in the neighborhood of an English golf links, that "since this d——d Scotch croquet came into fashion no one comes into the court," as a proof of the superior attraction of the game. Undoubtedly it has the fresh-air advantage, which is a very important one, over any game played in a court; but, on the other hand, in such a climate as ours it could only be played with comfort for a comparatively small part of the year. And yet so excellent a game is it that it is strange that New York, which has become a centre of athletics, and is, moreover, the abiding place of many "gentlemen of the Caledonian persuasion," should not possess a good links. The game is not an expensive one, and it suits so many different tastes that it ought to be cultivated, and we may hope that this book will give it a start. The chapters on Elementary Instruction and Style are admirably illustrated, and give all the necessary technical information, and, but for the well-known aphorism that "nothing is so misleading as facts, except figures," the reader might be inclined to look upon the royal and ancient game as a simple and easy one. But in golf, as in most other games, mediocrity is easy, expert play exceedingly difficult, and this will be the conclusion of the reader when he puts his book-knowledge to the test of practice.

The Lutherans in America. A Story of Struggle, Progress, Influence, and Marvellous Growth. By Edmund Jacob Wolf, D.D. With an Introduction by Henry Eyster Jacobs, D.D. New York: J. A. Hill & Co.

THE keynote of Dr. Wolf's book is struck on his old-fashioned title-page without equivocation. The big drum is beaten in that way all through the twenty following chapters. Dr. Jacobs tells us, in his introduction, that there are "three forms of historical composition, the documentary, the philosophical, and the popular." Dr. Wolf has chosen the last-named as the best suited to his purpose. He has written a panegyric, a glorification, of his sect, in the manner of a Fourth of July oration by the local orator. After some general considerations on the Church, which, if not popular, are certainly not philosophical, we have a chapter on the Reformation which is characteristic of the general manner of the book. Everything is passed over that would detract in any way from the glory of that event. We have not a word about the Anabaptists of Münster and the Peasant War, and the name of Zwingli is not even once mentioned. In a chapter on the formation of the Lutheran Church there is not a hint of any possible defect in its subordination to the State. It is spoken of as if, like the black stone of the Kaaba, it came straight down from heaven moulded by God's hand. Indeed, there is something smacking of impiety in Dr. Wolf's continually recurring claim of supernatural interposition. One should be very deep in the counsels of the Almighty to make his confident assertions.

The coming to America of the Dutch, the Swedish, and the German Lutherans is treated in three separate chapters which have the charm of small and hard beginnings. "The Church of the Dispersion" is the fit naming of a chapter which describes the condition of things before Muhlenberg's unifying spirit blew upon the scene. In the account of Muhlenberg there is no stinting of his rightful praise. The next chapter brings out afresh what every ecclesiastical history of the post-Revolutionary period must needs recite, the disintegration of the churches and theology by the war and by the influence of French ideas. Several chapters are devoted to the formation of the general and independent synods, the General Council, and the United Synod in the South. In the last-named connection, Dr. Bachmann of Charleston, S. C., is perhaps overrated as an ornithologist, while no mention is made of his distinguished part in the convention which passed the South Carolina ordinance of secession. An almost solitary exception to Dr. Wolf's omission of unpleasant matters is his treatment of the attempt of the German Lutherans to make their language the perpetual language of religious ministration.

The obligations of other communions to the Lutheran Church are loudly heralded, but without exaggeration. That Dr. Wolf claims for his Church the credit of the Thirty-nine Articles is evidence that he has the courage of his opinions. In treating of the distinguishing doctrines of the Lutheran Church, Dr. Wolf resents the opinion that one of them is consubstantiation; but in stating the actual belief he makes it precisely that which is commonly understood by consubstantiation, viz, that "there are present with the elements [which remain bread and wine] and received, sacramentally and supernaturally, the body and the blood of the Lord Jesus Christ." The chapter on the numerical strength of the Lutherans will be astonishing to many. In 1780 there were 70 ministers and 300 congregations. In 1885 there were 3,720 ministers and 7,037 congregations. Among the sects the Lutherans rank fourth, the Methodists, Baptists, and Presbyterians outranking them, and in this order. The approximate number of communicants given is 1,099,708. The Presbyterians are allowed 200,000 more, and the Congregationalists less than half as many.

The book is very coarsely made; the coarseness reaching its climax in the numerous illustrations, which have been grubbed together from all quarters, and inserted in the text without any reference to local fitness. Those of buildings are much better than those of persons, but these last are at least amusing. Many of them are made from plates battered by long use or ruined by neglect. One, so bad that it is worth many of the best, is that of Dr. Paul Henkel. But there are several that approximate to its naïve absurdity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bates, K. L. Hermit Island. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Besant, Walter. Armorel of Lyonesse, a Romance of To-Day. Harper & Bros.
Chamberlain, B. H. Things Japanese. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Coppée, F. The Days of My Youth. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Forbes, Archibald. Havelock. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Frothingham, O. B. Boston Unitarianism, 1820–1850. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Gardener, Helen H. A Thoughtless Yes. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Gosse, E. Northern Studies. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co.
Gréville, Henry. Aline: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Henley, W. E. Views and Reviews: Essays in Appreciation. Chas. Scribner's Sons.

"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

"The 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia' should be in every juvenile library."—*From a Report of the Connecticut Board of Education.*

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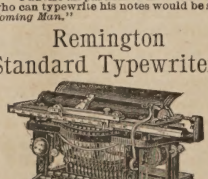

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 17, 1890.

The Week.

THE adoption of the Conference report on the Silver Bill by the Senate is a very happy termination of a bitter controversy. The bill, as we have said, is a better measure than the existing law. It puts an end to the arbitrary coinage of $2,000,000 per month on the first of July, 1891, and although the coinage meanwhile will be at a higher rate, the bill puts in the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury a fund for meeting the possible drain on his resources, namely, the $55,000,000 held to redeem the notes of national banks retiring their circulation. Hitherto this fund has appeared among the assets of the Treasurer in his monthly statement, but has been offset by an equal liability. The law does not exactly wipe out that debt, but authorizes the Secretary to treat it as a contingent and undetermined liability, and to use the $55,000,000 like any other funds in his hands. Therefore he can draw upon it, if need be, to purchase the 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion per month. His ordinary receipts will not be lessened during the next twelvemonth by the bullion purchases. The question whether the Secretary is really required to purchase any bullion under the new law was hotly debated in the Senate. The opponents of the Conference report contended that he was not required to buy a single ounce. The other side "had no doubt" that he would purchase 4,500,000 ounces per month till the 1st of July, 1891, nor have we; but we also have no doubt that he could fix the market price so that none would be offered to him. The bill was drawn so as to protect the Treasury against embarrassment and possible insolvency. The discretion left to the Secretary was really necessary to this end, and is, therefore, right.

The admission of Wyoming as a State is a notable event, because it brings into the Union for the first time a commonwealth where women exercise the suffrage upon the same terms with men. Wyoming was the first Territory to try this experiment, and never has shown any disposition to retrace the step. The admission of a woman-suffrage State is a decided victory for the cause, which has not of late been making much progress in the older commonwealths.

Most of the press censorships in Europe are content to order certain articles to be left out of the newspapers, without dictating what they shall print. The Republican dictatorship set up at Washington, which has Speaker Reed at its head and "Jim" Belden as press censor, is not content with any half-way authority. Having coerced the Republican Senators into holding a caucus on the Elections Bill, the Speaker directed his press censor to put the screws on the Republican press of the country to compel the caucus to take the action he desired. Listen to the closing paragraph: "Will you not do your duty in urging that the Senate shall respond promptly by the passage of the measure which the House deems essential, absolutely essential, to the purity of the elections of its own members?" We do not know which was the most amusing feature of the execution of this order—the prompt obedience of such leading papers as the New York *Tribune* and the Philadelphia *Press* (edited respectively by the United States Ministers to France and Russia), or their stupidity in publishing Belden's order along with the evidence of their servility. As for the "dignity of the Senate," of what avail will executive sessions and all the other time-honored precedents be to preserve it if the Speaker of the House, issuing his orders through the newspapers, can decide what the action of the Senate shall be? If Horace Greeley sees the *Tribune* in his present abode, it must make him blush for his old paper to see it meekly allow its course to be dictated from Washington by two country politicians, one from Maine and one from Syracuse.

Mr. Blaine's last letter on the McKinley Tariff Bill, relating especially to the sugar clause thereof, shows that he is very much in earnest, but there is small probability that it will accomplish the end he seeks, namely, the retention of the duty on sugar for reciprocity trading purposes. The repeal of the tax on raw sugar is the one thing that the Republican leaders rely upon to sweeten the McKinley Bill to the farmers. Mr. Blaine knows this, and therefore he drives straight at the farmers with his argument. He tells them that if the sugar duty is retained, he can use it as a wedge to force open the Cuban and other foreign markets for their breadstuffs and provisions. If it is repealed, as the McKinley Bill proposes, he tells them that a duty of more than 100 per cent. will be put immediately on flour in the ports of Cuba and Porto Rico in order to protect the Spanish millers. He says more. He tells them that "there is not a section or a line in the entire bill that will open a market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork." This is a condemnation of the entire McKinley Bill. It is really a stump speech against the measure. Mr. Blaine has reached the time of life when persons in responsible station usually weigh their words. It cannot be doubted that he weighed these words, and that he had a purpose in writing them over and above the sugar duty. It looks as though he intended to "knife" somebody. Very likely McKinley himself is the person aimed at. To tell all the farmers in the United States that their interests are ignored in the whole bill is to furnish the opponents of the McKinley Bill, and especially the opponents of McKinley himself, with a weapon of destructive power. This saying of the Plumed Knight will cut some figure in the next campaign. The somewhat startling figures presented to the Senate by Mr. Allison, betokening a Treasury deficit of $70,000,000 to $140,000,000 the coming year, may help to carry Mr. Blaine's wishes into effect, by showing the very great danger of throwing overboard $54,000,000 of revenue in such a crisis.

It is a matter of some significance that the commercial classes of Germany are moving to have the prohibition of American pork rescinded. Probably the movement would be successful but for the new barriers against German trade that we have lately put up in the McKinley Administrative Bill, and those we are preparing to put up in the McKinley Tariff Bill. That these measures have had a most irritating effect all over Europe there is every reason to believe. Even in England there has been talk of retaliation, but England is probably the only country in which there will be none. It is the only country, too, in which American protectionists would be glad to see measures of retaliation adopted.

Retaliation in the way of tariffs is having a great run at the present time in Europe, the latest example being the prohibition of Servian pigs and pork by Austria. This action on the part of the great empire against the small land-locked principality is intended in part to have a political effect, and to teach the Servians to keep a civil tongue in their heads. It has nevertheless an economic side also, and is intended to give the native swineherds a monopoly of the home market. The area of the commercial war that was declared against Rumania by Austria a few years ago, and which has been productive of untold misery to the poorer classes in both countries, is thus extended southward, and more half-starved ignorant peasants and half-starved ignorant operatives are made to suffer by being deprived of the right to buy their food and sell their products to the best advantage. The weakness of the poor is their poverty. It is impossible to make these victims of the protective policy understand what it is that takes the bread out of their mouths and the clothing off their backs. Rumanian peasants have been obliged to sell their sheepskin coats at the beginning of winter in order to pay their taxes since the commercial war with Austria began. Yet they have apparently no conception of the cause of their misfortunes, and would not be able to understand it if it were explained to them.

The collection of half-a-dozen British war vessels at Esquimault harbor has given occasion for some surmise that they may be intended to protect British sealers in Bering Sea. It is not unlikely that the orders to these ships, which must have been issued months ago, were given with a view to such

contingencies. It does not follow that guns will be fired. The latest advices from Washington are altogether peaceful. The official despatches will be published shortly, and they may be followed by the *pourparlers* of Mr. Blaine and Sir Julian Pauncefote. What we have been led to expect in the latter batch is some evidence that Mr. Blaine and Sir Julian had arrived at an understanding some time ago, but that President Harrison refused his assent, being moved thereto by the entreaties of the North American Commercial Company, the new lessee of the seal islands, which, having bid more than it can afford to pay for its privileges, is extremely anxious to prevent any seals being taken anywhere at any time by anybody except itself.

Lord Salisbury has probably removed one of the elements of danger from the Newfoundland trouble by informing the French Government that French officers cannot be permitted to exercise police powers, and enforce the regulations of a treaty with Great Britain on British soil. It was the landing of French naval officers to order the removal of the Newfoundlanders' huts and nets which promised to make the existing complications really grave. The execution of the treaty belongs to Great Britain. The French are only entitled to call attention to infractions of it and ask for redress. It is for the British naval officers to see that Newfoundlanders respect it. Accordingly we believe the practice on the spot is now so amended that the French officers complain to the British officers, who then see that right is done. But that any colony will submit to the usufruct of its shore and waters by foreigners very much longer is most unlikely. If the French are not bought out by the home Government, the Newfoundlanders will certainly discover some other way of getting rid of them.

The establishment of cable communication with Bermuda is one of the great events of the century to that little fragment of the British Empire, and a matter of interest to the many Americans who have learned the charms of that delightful winter resort. Not a few, doubtless, will feel a mild regret that the isolation which has been so notable an attraction of the place is thus broken, but they can console themselves with the reflection that the daily paper in Bermuda seems very remote, so that they may still escape hearing what is going on in the rest of the world every day. The "modern improvements" are, of course, great things, but the people who knew Bermuda before there was a cable, will always feel that they were more fortunate than those who "can send a message to any part of the world."

The adjournment of the Louisiana Legislature leaves the lottery question in a muddle from which only the courts can extricate it. Finding that they lacked in the Senate one vote of the two-thirds required to override the Governor's veto, the lottery managers made a virtue of necessity, changed front, and took the ground that the Governor's signature was not essential. It is a fair question which is the correct view, and precedents can be found by each side in other States, the Pennsylvania Legislature, for example, having submitted at the same session two proposed amendments, of which one went to the Governor for his signature and the other not. The Louisiana bill, however, contains other provisions than the one regarding submission. In case the courts hold that the amendment may go to the people, the issue will not be decided until 1892, and there will be a chance that a healthier public sentiment may be aroused in the meantime.

Evidently the Republican managers are becoming uneasy over the "Farmers' Alliance," the party press beginning to offer urgent advice on the subject. A paragraph in the Cleveland *Leader*, for example, which is now going the rounds of the rural postmasters' newspapers, informs the farmers that "The efforts that are being put forth in this and many of the Western States to induce the Farmers' Alliance to act as a political body are purely selfish, and have in view the aggrandizement of some clique or party rather than the benefit of the farmer or the advancement in strength and influence of this organization." "The proper field for such an order," the *Leader* thinks, "is educational and coöperative. It can do the farmer vastly more good by keeping him acquainted with improvements in the methods of production, changes in markets, and the like, than by becoming a political body. Class parties are never successful for any length of time and rarely benefit the classes organized." This advice is meant to be taken as disinterested, and in reproachful contrast to the "purely selfish" efforts of others who "have in view the aggrandizement of some clique or party," and no doubt the *Leader* would be much comforted by the spectacle of the farmers educating each other in "improved methods of production, changes in markets, and the like," and abstaining from political action. But, unhappily for the *Leader's* party, the farmers themselves are "purely selfish" so far as this movement goes; they are in it for their own "aggrandizement," and political action is the only means by which they can effect anything. They will get improved methods of production and changes in markets, for instance, as the result of a rational and just system of taxation.

The Postmaster-General, who has just been celebrating his fiftieth birthday by a more than usually unctuous discourse to his Sunday-school, has written a long letter to the Post-office Committee of the House in answer to the publishers who protest against the passage of a bill which proposes to put paper-covered books in the same postal category as bound books, and make them pay one cent postage for every two ounces. He argues that it is not cheap postage which has made books cheap, but various other agencies, including "the absence of an international copyright law, enabling publishers to reprint books without authorial expenses." We think this phrase, "authorial expenses," is perhaps the most amusing contribution this particular pirate has made to the copyright discussion. The calm, and gusto even, with which he points out to the publishers that one of the advantages they enjoy in this happy land is the privilege of stealing the materials of their business, is very droll. It is very much as if he were to deliver one of his religious addresses to some Southern negroes of larcenous antecedents, and remind them that one of the great advantages of their condition under our Constitution was that "they could all get their chickens without paying farmerial expenses." He recently declared in an advertisement that what sustained him in robbery of the Blacks was that in "handling" their Encyclopædia he was doing what was morally right, and therefore felt perfectly "serene." We have no doubt this is true. To be miserable when doing wrong, one needs a moral sense, which in most pirates is very imperfectly developed.

Some of the phenomena produced by strikes in this city are very curious. T. K. Garside, the leader of the cloakmakers' strike, gave this account of his followers in one of the morning papers:

> "I can but refer with honest pride to the work we have accomplished in this strike. An almost unorganized body of men, with little or no knowledge of the principles of unionism, with no money in the treasury, ignorant of the English language, standing against hunger and privation, forms a scene of pure heroism unlike anything yet witnessed."

One would suppose naturally that men in this condition, suffering from want of food, and cut off, through ignorance of the language, from knowledge or understanding of the institutions of the country, would be so absorbed in the economical aspects of their struggle with their employers that they would have neither time nor inclination for the general work of legal reform. But we find in the *Tribune* of Sunday the following report of what occurred at a general meeting of the unions connected with the cloak business on Saturday:

> "At a meeting of the unions yesterday morning in Pythagoras Hall, resolutions were passed instructing the Amalgamated Board of the strikers to insist on that clause in the demands submitted to the Manufacturers' Association which provides that the strikers shall be paid full wages for the time they have been idle. Resolutions were also passed condemning the June and July Grand Juries, which refused to indict the manufacturers for conspiracy, and it was decided to request the State Legislature to abolish the system of trial by grand jury as 'a relic of the feudal ages.'"

This surpasses the demand of the Minnesota Farmers' Alliance that the Supreme Court should be abolished, because the farmers were presumably acquainted with the English language and to some degree with the history and functions of the Court. But we presume all the cloakmakers knew about the Grand Jury was that it was something, either animal, vegetable, or mineral, which prevented the employers from being tried, convicted, and sent to the penitentiary for conspiracy. Labor has already in this city asked for the repeal of all laws

against boycotting and for the abolition of the police. If all these demands for reform from this quarter were complied with, New York would probably be the funniest place in the world for an able-bodied and well-armed man of a humorous turn to live in.

The death of Gen. Frémont removes from the stage one of the notable characters of our time, but his career was too uneven to leave any lasting mark in history. There was a romantic coloring to his earlier years which led to his nomination for the Presidency in 1856, but, after the election, the opinion gained ground among Republicans of a reflecting turn of mind that his success would have been more disastrous to the party than his defeat. This opinion was considerably strengthened after the outbreak of the war, when he was put in command at St. Louis and gathered about himself, or allowed to be gathered, the so-called "California gang." When at a still later period he was summoned to trial in a French court on the charge of swindling and was condemned in his absence to fine and imprisonment, the glamour of the Pathfinder, for the most part, faded away. Nevertheless, there remained sufficient gratitude for his early services, and perhaps sufficient sympathy for his early defeat, to warrant President Hayes in appointing him Governor of Arizona Territory. This was the only civil distinction that he held, but he was, a few months ago, raised to the dignity of Major-General in the Army, and put on the retired list for the purpose of giving him a salary.

The British Ministry have finally settled their troubles in the most ignoble way by abandoning the Irish Land Bill and the Welsh Tithes Bill, as they have abandoned the License Compensation Clause. So there is now no contentious matter left on their hands, and the Opposition has won a complete victory. They made a feeble attempt to get the Standing Orders changed, so that bills might go over from one session to another, and be taken up in the next session at the exact stage in which they had been left, but they could not come to an agreement with the Opposition on this point, and did not dare to adopt a bold suggestion of Mr. Balfour's that they should propose the change and make the motion non-debatable. Their plan now is to have a November session, and in it start the bills afresh; but this brings down on them curses not loud but deep from the rank and file of their supporters, for it will interfere with hunting and other sports. Of their dissolving Parliament there is not any more likelihood than of a condemned criminal's asking to have his execution hastened. They will stick until 1892, come what may in the interval.

Two or three weeks ago Mr. Gladstone gave his views upon the subject of education at considerable length before a committee appointed to investigate the claims of Hawarden to the establishment of a school under the new Welsh Intermediate Education Act. After briefly discussing the local question, he expressed the opinion that classical education was "the very best of all for all those capable of profiting by it and proceeding far enough to realize solid attainment"; but terrible errors, he added, had been committed in the past in endeavoring to force the mere rudiments down the throat of everybody in a certain condition of life, irrespective of either circumstances or capacity. To technical education he attached the highest value and importance, and, by way of illustration, he pointed out that the main purpose of education is to make the youthful mind not a mere repository that is to be filled with goods like a shop, and to remain in its original condition when the goods have been withdrawn from it, but a supple, effective, strong, and available instrument for whatever purpose it may be applied to. In referring to recent triumphs of women students at Cambridge, he said that a great deal was yet to be done in the way of technical education for women. He was not, he said, an enthusiast for educational endowments in general, and had grave doubts whether the large amount of educational endowments in England did not make education dearer, although the initial endowments, which enabled boys and girls to get into the running, as it were, he held to be excellent. He resented extremely, he added, the arrangement by which girls and young women, while admitted as students, were prevented from touching one penny of the vast wealth accumulated by the universities. With regard to Greek he was inclined to think that it was waste of time to teach it to boys who would not continue the study of it after they were sixteen years old, although there were exceptions to all rules. Physical and corporal education generally, he thought, ought to be promoted. The hand and the eye ought to be trained, and in the training of the eye natural history was very beneficial. His distinct feeling, he said, was that in the higher classes of schools during the last thirty or forty years too much consideration had been given to modern languages, and too little to the observation of nature. One of the sorest places in the whole educational question, he remarked in conclusion, was the competitive element in the awarding of scholarships, but he scrupled to give an opinion concerning it, choosing rather to be governed by the experience of those who had been actual witnesses of the results of the modern academical system.

The formation of a Conservative Ministry in Spain was an event not expected in that country even by sanguine Conservatives themselves; the latest utterances of their newspaper organs before Sagasta's resignation being in the nature of a despairing recognition of his command of the situation. This makes it probable that his resignation was entirely voluntary and considered by him to be his wisest political move. If he can return to power after the next elections with a strengthened majority behind him, as it is very likely that he may, the brief Conservative interregnum will have simply served to relieve him from some awkward temporary embarrassments. He was manifestly not yet ready to dissolve and go to the country, though a declaration of his made a couple of years ago, to the effect that the passage of the Suffrage Bill would necessarily carry with it the dissolution of the Cortes, was triumphantly adduced by his political opponents in support of their cry for an immediate bringing on of the general election. Their zeal cooled at once on coming to power, and they adjourned the Cortes till Christmas, fixing February as the time for the choice of new Deputies. This seems to be playing into Sagasta's hand, though it must still remain doubtful if he can effect a reconciliation among the factions of his party, and get the full benefit of his popular-suffrage measure, by next February. At all events, the Conservatives cannot undo the Liberal enactments of the past five years; indeed, Cánovas is a man of most enlightened and progressive views, and will doubtless be ready to declare now, as he did at the time of a former return to the Premiership, "The Conservatives do not propose to change the history of Spain, but to continue it."

There is a good deal of difference of opinion over the execution of Maj. Panitza, the Bulgarian officer, who was shot the other day for conspiring against the Government of Prince Ferdinand. The Russians, and the French as Russian allies or partisans, as a general rule condemn it in strong terms as an act of inexcusable brutality on the part of the Prince and his Minister, M. Strombuloff, while the Germans and English are disposed to approve it. A bad complexion was given to it by the Prince's having signed the warrants just as he was starting on a junketing tour, and by the fact that the prisoner had no warning that the sentence would really be carried out. The truth is, that this is the second attempt of Bulgarian military officers—men who have sworn allegiance to the government of the principality—to overturn it. The first one succeeded in actually kidnapping the reigning Prince and carrying him out of the country, and this one, had it succeeded, would have resulted in anarchy and the intervention either of Russia or Austria. Bulgaria is having a hard struggle for life and a very heroic one; Russia being her principal and most dangerous enemy, because Russia organized the Bulgarian Army, wrung Bulgarian emancipation from the Porte, and has therefore a great many partisans in the Bulgarian service, many of whom, it is said, are really in her pay, and doing her bidding, and Panitza was undoubtedly among the number. Strombuloff, the present minister, is a man of the Stanton type, able and patriotic and unscrupulous, who is determined to save his country by any means within his reach, and he had made up his mind that if the habit of mutiny and conspiracy was allowed to grow up unchecked among the regular troops, the game might as well be given up.

THE FORCE BILL.

THE main difference between the Federal Election Law which the House has just passed and that already on the statute-book lies in the increased powers the former gives to the supervisors of election. The act of May, 1870, empowered the Circuit Court to appoint supervisors of election on the petition of two citizens in cities having over 20,000 inhabitants, or on the petition of ten in any county or parish in a Congressional district. These supervisors were to watch the registration of voters wherever such registration existed; to mark as challenged all persons whom they thought improperly registered, and to affix their signatures to the list. They were also directed to attend at all elections of all Representatives in Congress and watch the voting and counting and "scrutinize" the manner in which the poll-books and tallies or check-books were kept, and they were further to "personally scrutinize" each ballot cast. It will be seen from this that the duties of the supervisor were simply those of inspection or verification. He was to examine the register and verify it by house-to-house visitation if necessary. He was to mark the names of those whom he thought improperly registered. He was to watch the polls on election day and challenge when he thought it necessary, and he was to be present at and participate in the final count.

The Lodge bill provides that this supervision shall take place in any city on the petition of 100 voters, and in any Congressional district on the petition of 50. But the supervisor's powers go much beyond those assigned him by the Act of 1870, for he may pass on the qualifications of challenged voters; and, not only this, he may take any ballot which the State officers refuse to receive, and put it in the ballot-box himself, making a record of the case, and also may show voters in what boxes to deposit their ballots, in case the voter, through inability to read, should be unable to discover the proper boxes. Moreover, when the persons declared to be elected by the Federal canvassers are not the same as those declared elected by the State canvassers, the Clerk of the House is required, on pain of fine and imprisonment, to place on the rolls of the House the name of the person declared elected by the Federal officials. In short, the bill, to all intents and purposes, takes the election of members of the House out of the hands of the State officials. It is, whether called for or not, a tremendous step towards centralization.

The strongest speech made against it in the House came from Mr. Tucker of Virginia. He maintained with great force that the power given to the supervisor to pass upon the qualifications of voters was a direct violation of the second section of the first article of the Constitution, which says:

> "The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature."

Under this bill, clearly, the supervisor will pass on the qualifications of State as well as of Federal electors, for they are one and the same. He pointed out, also, that whether Congress has the constitutional right to interfere with elections in this manner or not, it was the belief of the framers and their contemporaries that such powers would never be exercised. He showed that the construction put, at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, by Massachusetts, South and North Carolina, New Hampshire, New York, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, either by protest or declaration, on the provision that Congress might "by law at any time make or alter" the State regulations as to "the times, places, and manner of holding elections," was that it would take effect only when, to use the language of the Massachusetts convention, presided over by Hancock, "a State shall neglect or refuse to make the regulations therein mentioned, or make regulations subversive of the rights of the people to a free and equal representation in Congress." It was, in short, they thought, a power only to be used in case the State governments refused to hold Federal elections or converted them into a farce. It was never supposed that the Federal authority would undertake the police power of seeing that the elections were fairly conducted, by actual inspection, and even by the creation of a sort of drum-head tribunal for trying the qualifications of voters.

Of the impolicy of the bill, for any other purpose than creating sufficient disturbance and disorder at the South to revive the Southern question in Northern politics, and divert attention from questions of administration and taxation, there can be little doubt. By far the smallest part of the suppression of the negro vote occurs at the polls. The bulk of it, in so far as it exists at all, takes place long before the election, through the influence of the rich on the poor, of the creditor on the debtor, of the employer on the laborer, of the landlord on the tenant. No power the law can create can interfere with the operation of these influences. The Federal supervisor will be no more able to check or counteract them than to stop the tides. What his presence at the polls will do will be to produce continual exasperation and irritation and disorders, and probably to strengthen such arts of coercion as the whites now use in preparation for the election.

SPEAKER REED'S ERROR.

THE anonymous article under this title in the July number of the *North American Review* has attracted much attention, but not more than its merits as a piece of pure ratiocination warrant. It has been ascribed (erroneously, we think) to the pen of Secretary Blaine, and has been printed in the *Congressional Record* as part of the speech of a member of Congress. It is signed "X. M. C." It is so far above the average production of the Congressmen of the present day in dignity, force, research, and literary finish that curiosity is considerably piqued to know who the author may be. To every impartial reader of it, the thought will promptly come that this ex-member of Congress ought to be reëlected, no matter which party he may happen to belong to.

Speaker Reed's error, according to this writer, consists in substituting the new rule (No. xv., clause 3), which authorizes the Speaker to count a quorum by eyesight when the yeas and nays do not show a quorum, in the place of the old rule (No. viii., clause 1), which requires every member to be present unless excused, and to "vote on each question put." The latter rule has been in force from the beginning of the Government to the present time. It is now in force, just as much as Rule xv., and it is optional with the Speaker and the majority of the House to have recourse to it at any time. Speaker Reed's error is really two-fold: it was an error to have adopted Rule xv. at all; it is an error to neglect and supersede Rule viii., as he habitually does. "Speaker Reed," says the writer, "is the first author of any code of law, parliamentary, municipal, or public, who deliberately inserted a mandatory rule on one page, and then on the next page inserted a mandatory rule making proclamation that no one need obey the first." The only example of this kind in literature (he continues) is that of *Dogberry*, who ordered the watch to comprehend all vagrom men and bid them stand in the Prince's name, but, if they would not stand, to let them go and thank God they were rid of a knave.

The capital point made by the writer of the article against the Speaker's new rule and practice is that the Constitution requires a two-thirds vote to override a Presidential veto, and also requires that the vote shall be taken by yeas and nays. There can be no House to do any kind of business that has not a quorum. What evidence can the President rely on to show that there was a quorum present—*i. e.*, that there was any real House in session when his veto was considered? If the yeas and nays together amount to a quorum, and if two-thirds of them are recorded as voting to pass the bill notwithstanding his objections, that is sufficient. But if the yeas and nays show less than a quorum, he will be justified in saying that the bill has not passed. "But," replies the Speaker, "I saw enough members inside the bar to make a quorum." "That is nothing to me," the President might reply; "the Constitution has for me three things, and only three, viz., quorum, two-thirds, and yeas and nays. Your rules do not apply to me. I am not a member of your body. I cannot know any rules except those which the Constitution has laid down." Under such circumstances would the bill be a law or not?

This is a crucial test. If Speaker Reed's rules will not apply in this case, they must fail everywhere. There cannot be two kinds of a quorum for legislative purposes, one kind for ordinary use and another kind for passing bills over a veto. The President's approval is as essential to the validity of an act as its passage by House and Senate,

except that, in the event of a veto, both houses shall have a quorum present, and two-thirds shall vote by yeas and nays (and not otherwise) to pass the bill. The question is whether the President is *bound* to accept other evidence than the yeas and nays of the presence of a quorum. Congress has no means of interpreting the Constitution for the President. They are coördinate and equal in this behalf. Taking the most favorable view of Speaker Reed's position, we have here the seeds of a conflict respecting the validity of laws—a conflict fraught with the gravest consequences, and one which has hitherto been undreamed of in our frame of government.

There are, the writer points out, several other cases where a two thirds vote is required to do certain things—four in the House and six in the Senate. Two-thirds are required to propose an amendment of the Constitution to the Legislatures of the States. What evidence can the States rely upon to satisfy them that two-thirds of both houses have proposed an amendment? "That two-thirds of a quorum should actually vote is as imperative as that the number of States ratifying shall be three-fourths of the States in the Union. The philosophy of the Speaker's rule would not require three-fourths of all the States. If only four States voted and three of them supported the amendment, Speaker Reed, if he adhered to his logic, would be compelled to declare the amendment adopted."

This is but one of the applications of the *reductio ad absurdum* by which the writer in the *North American* utterly demolishes the Speaker's position. The question what shall be done in case the minority refuse to vote is easily answered. In the first place, the Government has been carried on upwards of one hundred years, in peace and in war, without any need of counting a quorum. But supposing that we have fallen upon evil times; supposing that we are in a worse plight as regards the conduct of public business than we were in *ante-bellum* days, when the fierce passions engendered by slavery were rampant in both branches of Congress; supposing that party spirit runs higher now than it did when Sumner was bludgeoned by Brooks, and when Potter and Pryor were on the point of spilling each other's blood, so that it is really necessary to take extraordinary steps now in order to get on at all. What would it be possible to do instead of "counting a quorum"?

The writer suggests the enforcement of Rule viii. The House can compel the attendance of absent members; even a minority can do that. "Compel" is a strong word. It has no limitations. Any absent member can be dragged to the House on a hurdle if need be. But the difficulty, it is said, is not in getting members into their proper places: it consists in getting them to vote. But Rule viii. says that they "*shall vote* on each question put." What does that imply? It means that if they do not, they may be punished for disorderly behavior, under Article 1, section 5, clause 3 of the Constitution. A fine of $50 for each refusal to vote would be a very moderate punishment. Such a fine, cumulative for repeated offences, would be effective, and would probably never need to be exacted. But the power of the House to punish disorderly behavior—and certainly any deliberate infraction of a rule is disorderly behavior—is not limited to pecuniary penalties. In fact, there is no limit to it, except that the punishment must not be "cruel or unusual."

The conclusion upon the whole matter is that Speaker Reed has devised a plan, for his own temporary convenience, which will not bear the constitutional tests applied to it, and which, therefore, puts in jeopardy all the acts passed by "counting a quorum." He has done this without attempting first to enforce a rule as old as the Government itself, which has never been found wanting in any case where it has been invoked. One of his newspaper apologists has sought to excuse him by saying that he has simply followed the line of least resistance in his endeavor to get the public business transacted. If that were true, it would prove nothing as to the legality of the proceeding. It might be the line of least resistance to throw his mallet at the head of any member whom he conceives to be obstructing business. But the question whether counting a quorum is the line of least resistance or the line of most resistance, is yet to be determined.

THE MYTHOLOGY OF SILVER.

We find in the speech of Senator Cockrell of Missouri, on Wednesday of last week, when the Silver Bill was under debate, the following eloquent passage:

> "You say to the silver to-day, bound hand and foot, bucked and gagged, and upon its back as a mere commodity, 'Stand up like a man beside your gold dollar that has been endowed by law with free coinage, absolute legal tender, and an equality between coin and bullion.' You might just as well say to a twin brother of two great athletes, who has been bucked and gagged, and bound hand and foot, and prostrate on his back, 'Stand up by the side of your twin brother here and show yourself a man,' as to say to silver, bucked and gagged, and cast down as it is, 'Stand up on an equality or parity with gold.' No metal on the face of God's green earth could lie bound and gagged as it is by legal prescriptions and be on an equality with any other. It is an impossibility."

It appears to be impossible for the silver men to understand that money is a tool which enables men to exchange their products and services with the least possible friction, being analogous to a wheelbarrow, a wagon, or a railroad car. Without money we should be obliged to trade by barter, just as, without conveyances, we should be obliged to carry goods on the backs of animals, or on our own backs. The history of money shows that mankind arrived by progressive stages at the knowledge of what things would best serve the purposes of a medium of exchange. Cattle, skins, shells, iron, copper, tin, silver, and gold were tried successively, some in one country and some in another, just as pack-saddles, wheelbarrows, wagons, and railroad cars have been tried for the moving of goods.

It is not so very long since tobacco was the prevailing currency in Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia, and was legal tender for many purposes. It is within the memory probably of some persons still living that 'coon skins were the money of a large section of the Western country, including that portion now represented by Senator Cockrell. Cows were once legal tender for taxes in Massachusetts. Now, let us imagine a Senator from Virginia breaking out in this way: "You say to the plug of tobacco to-day bound hand and foot, bucked and gagged, and upon its back, a mere chew, 'Stand up like a man beside the ten-cent piece that has been dignified with the Government stamp.'" Or this: "You might as well say to a 'coon that has been bucked and gagged, and bound hand and foot, and prostrate on his back, 'Stand up by the side of this legal-tender cow and show yourself a man,'" etc., etc. Not a whit more absurd would it be to exclaim in Senator Cockrell's frenzied way: "You say to the wheelbarrow to-day, bound hand and foot, bucked and gagged, and upon its back, a mere conveyance, 'Stand up like a man beside the railroads that have been endowed with public lands and pampered with refrigerators and Pullman cars.' No handcart on God's green earth could lie, bound and gagged as it is, and be on an equality even with a two-horse team."

How it comes about that so many Americans, ordinarily sane, invest with human or divine attributes any paper or metallic thing of which money is made, is one of the mysteries of the modern world. We find nothing like it in Grecian or Roman mythology. Nor do we recall any instance in which a Hindu or Chinese or African native has personified the raw material of which his idol or fetish is made. That peculiarity belongs to us. It is not fully agreed, however, which sex silver belongs to, although the majority incline to the female. Senator Cockrell speaks of it as a twin athlete, like Castor or Pollux. The late Senator Beck looked at it as an abused woman, something like Niobe. Mr. Dana Horton speaks of it in a general way as an orphan, sex not indicated. The *Silver Dollar* newspaper, published at Cleveland, argues strongly that silver has been deprived of its "constitutional rights." This would imply the male sex, and it raises the question why silver has not brought suit to recover them.

One thing the mythologists of silver have strangely forgotten to mention, and we think they ought to be reminded of it before the sentiment of patriotism is wholly dead. Senator Oglesby of Illinois once eulogized the paper dollar as our ally and friend in the darkest hours of the war. It never deserted us. The more gloomy our prospects were, the closer it stood by us. It was "battle-scarred and blood-stained." The eloquent Senator invested it with the bravery of Mars and the wisdom of Minerva, leaving us in some doubt whether the rebellion was put down by Gen. Grant or by Gen. Greenback. Now where, in this dark hour, was Silver? Did not he (or she) abandon us in the time of trial? Was not he (or she) a deserter? Did not he (or she) join hands with gold, and

flee across the ocean, seeking refuge among the aristocrats and rebel sympathizers of England and France? Ought not he (or she) to receive thirty-nine lashes and be drummed ignominiously out of the camp? Let Senator Ingalls answer this question, since he it was who once publicly castigated gold for its dastardly conduct during the war.

RAILROAD PASSENGER FARES.

THE zone system of passenger tariffs which originated in Hungary bids fair now to modify the passenger charges on all the railways of continental Europe. The system, in brief, is one of group rates, the same fare being charged to all towns within the zone. For journeys from 140 to 457 miles (the longest journey in Hungary) the fare is the same to all stations, as if the Albany fare were charged from New York to all the cities along the New York Central as far as Buffalo. The result in Hungary is a reduction to all short-distance points, and a very large reduction for long-distance travel. These zones are made by circles drawn from Budapest, the capital, as a centre, the reduced fares applying only to and from that city. A passenger going from one village to another through the capital must buy two tickets. All special tickets are abolished, and all baggage carried is a special charge.

When we begin to reason about American passenger reforms from this Hungarian experiment, we do injustice to our own railroads unless we take the greatly different circumstances into account. Prof. E. J. James of the University of Pennsylvania, for example, prints in the new quarterly, *Annals of the American Academy*, a review of the zone system, with comments upon America, which are very misleading. One sentence is, "The fare [under the zone plan] from New York to Philadelphia would be thirty-two cents." This is without excuse. As before stated, an important part of the Hungarian system is the great reduction in journeys over 140 miles. Prof. James has taken the rate per mile for the longest and (comparatively) cheapest trip and applied it for ninety miles, which is the very thing that Hungary does *not* do. Then, again, he has taken for comparison the lowest-class fare in Hungary—a train with board seats and at slowest speed. It is true that at the end, not of his article, but of the translation of the Hungarian tariff appended, there is a note saying that the extreme rates used for comparison are for third class, with no free baggage; but, being without cross-reference, this looks like an afterthought. Let us see how the New York-Philadelphia rates really compare, taking the Hungarian station about the same distance from Budapest (ninety-five miles):

Hungarian.	Slow trains.			Express trains.		
	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.
Former fares.....	$3.72	$2.60	$1.84	$4.32	$3.04	$2.16
Present fares.....	2.00	1.60	1.00	2.40	1.92	1.20

The price of an excursion ticket to Philadelphia (from New York and return) is $4, a single-trip ticket being $2.50. Looking at the express trains, it is seen that the old fare of $4 32 first class is higher than the American road's, and that the reduction now brings the fare to a little below the Pennsylvania charge, if we add to the latter's ticket 50 cents for a Pullman seat; though if the Hungarian took a trunk, it would make the prices about even. But the advantage of the new plan lies in the third class, for a poor man can now travel in Hungary a distance equivalent to that between New York and Philadelphia at $1.20, if he will put up with inferior accommodations, yet on a fast train.

The principle of cheaper travel for poorer people is the key to the whole question of passenger reform, whenever it can be applied. The great increase in the quantity carried, and the relative profitableness of our railroad tonnage, come primarily from our ability to discriminate between silks and pig-iron and from our charging upon each its own rate. Dear and cheap freights are carried at separate charge often in the same car, while trade in each is stimulated to the advantage of both merchant and carrier. Obviously we cannot ask a traveller what a journey is worth to him and charge him accordingly, for people cannot be treated like merchandise; yet an approach to this has already been made. Our limited Chicago trains charge $28, while the same trip in another and slower train costs $18 or $20. In England the same fast train carries first-class passengers at three cents per mile and third-class passengers at two cents. The result there and on the Continent has been that the entire increase of recent years is in third-class travel. In other words, comparatively the same number of high-priced tickets is sold, while the number of cheap-fare passengers is capable of great yearly growth, though generally for short distances only.

Upon this matter Prof. James has a word: "The American people," he says, "reputed to be the most restless in the world, has not nearly as many passengers per head of the population as England, and is far exceeded in the number of passengers to mile of railway by half-a-dozen countries in Europe." But the implication against America is unwarranted. Take Great Britain: The United States, omitting Alaska, in round numbers has twice the population, eight times the railroad mileage, and thirty times the area. Is it not rather to our credit that our railroads are four times longer, proportionally to population, than in Great Britain? We have one mile of railway to every 400 of the population; in Great Britain and in Europe it is about one mile to every 1,800 persons. Does Mr. James expect 400 people to travel on the average as often as 1,800? The fact of our much larger territory has, too, an important influence upon our passenger problems. Strange to say, in spite of having thirty times the number of acres, the average length of the railroad journey in the United States (twenty-six miles) is not quite twice that in Great Britain, thus showing that it is to the short-distance travel we must look for any large increase.

General-Manager Findlay of the London and Northwestern presented an elaborate paper on English traffic, with statistics, to the International Railway Congress last year in Paris. His conclusion is: "As regards long-distance traffic, I do not believe that the reduction of fares or any other concessions tend materially to increase the volume of business; as a rule, people do not take long journeys unless from actual necessity, and in that case they will travel, whatever the fare may be, within reasonable limits. Of course, this remark is not intended to apply to traffic between large towns and seaside and other holiday resorts, this being a case in which, by judicious concessions, a traffic is created which could not otherwise exist." A long journey in Great Britain would be, say, as far as from New York to Buffalo or Pittsburgh, 444 miles. Our American railroad managers agree with Mr. Findlay in thinking that large reductions in long-distance fares would not increase the number of passengers correspondingly, though it must be confessed that the Hungarians are ahead of us in the opportunities for cheap travelling. This is the traffic in the United States which, in the words of the English manager, "can be created" to a greater extent than at present exists, and it is to this that our American railroad men should seriously address themselves.

GERMAN COMMERCE WITH SPANISH AMERICA.

THE expansion of Germany's foreign commerce since 1870 has long been known in a vague way to be especially marked in the case of her South American trade. The ubiquity of German commercial travellers has been a subject of remark by South American tourists, and an occasional specific account of the increase of German commercial relations with this and the other country has been made public, such as Consul Baker's striking showing, in his last annual report, of the advance of German interests in the Argentine Republic; but a full survey of the whole subject has been wanting. It was reserved for Dr. L. Francke to furnish this, and he did the work in a late number of the *Zeitschrift* of the Royal Bureau of Statistics of Prussia. Indeed, he covered the whole field of Germany's foreign trade, under the somewhat warlike title, "The Duel with England and France in the Markets of the World." His method throughout is to compare the position of the three great exporting countries in any individual market, by means of tables extending over several years; and some of the more important of his showings, as respects the South American trade, we adduce below.

It is only since October 15, 1888, that Hamburg and Bremen have been included in the Imperial *Zollgebiet*, and only since that date, accordingly, that there have been consolidated statistics of German foreign trade. As Dr. Francke's survey lies almost entirely anterior to that customs unification, he is obliged to give the returns for Hamburg and Bremen separately. The exports of Ger-

many in general to Mexico and Central America are thus set forth:

1880	2,173,000 marks
1882	3,442,000 do
1886	4,035,000 do
1887	4,531,000 do

The trade of Hamburg with the same countries doubled in the same period, 1880-87, while that of Bremen remained nearly stationary.

The point of Dr. Francke's article is the greater relative gain of Germany compared with England and France, and (in the case of South American commerce) the United States, and this he proceeds to show, for the countries alluded to, by giving the figures of the rival exports as follows:

	Great Britain.	France.	United States.
	Pounds.	Francs.	
1881	1,690,000	23,800,000	$13,320,000
1883	1,620,000	23,800,000	11,000,000
1885	870,000	18,300,000	6,860,000
1887	1,180,000	23,100,000	9,240,000

Thus, while Germany's exports to the republics in question were doubling, those of her competitors were either barely holding their own or distinctly declining.

A similar comparison is next made for South America. Proceeding as before, the general exports of Germany are given as below:

1881	26,638,000	marks.
1883	37,313,000	do
1885	34,366,000	do
1887	50,016,000	do

Meanwhile, the exports of Hamburg to South America increased more than 40 per cent., and those from Bremen about 30. Turning now to the corresponding exhibit for Germany's rivals, we find it to be this:

	England.	France.	United States.
	Pounds.	Francs.	
1881	17,360,000	264,200,000	$26,470,000
1883	18,550,000	256,700,000	30,430,000
1885	15,370,000	212,700,000	25,280,000
1887	19,650,000	280,400,000	28,610,000

Here, too, Germany is gaining much faster than the nations she has to compete with.

The reasons assigned by Dr. Francke for this wonderful quickening of his country's foreign commerce are mainly the impetus given by the unification of Germany, her superior technical education with its results when applied to the leading manufacturing industries, and the persistence and shrewdness with which she has sought entrance to foreign markets. The last causes mentioned have certainly been of great power, as much concurrent testimony could be adduced to show; but we fear they will appear wholly inadequate to our own demonstrators of the way to get a foreign commerce. To them the German idea that the way is to make goods better and cheaper than your competitors, and then make intelligent and sustained attempts to sell them, must appear simply ridiculous. Something like pain will be caused them, too, to be told that Dr. Francke makes absolutely no mention of steamship communication as a means of building up foreign commerce, although we well know, for we have been told it again and again, that German subsidies are the sole cause of German trade abroad. There may be a deep conspiracy here, to deceive the American people and still keep them from the enjoyment of subsidies, though more likely it is only another proof of the essentially plodding and unstatesmanlike type of the German mind.

Dr. Francke speaks rather hesitatingly of the probable effect of the increasingly protective policy of Germany upon her foreign commerce. As his examination was brought down no later than 1888, the influence of that policy had scarcely had time to show itself in the returns. He says it is too soon to judge of the precise effect, and expresses the somewhat perfunctory and evidently forced hope that it will be found possible to retain exclusive control of the home market, and at the same time go on enlarging foreign trade. It would be interesting to know what he would say of the statistics for 1888 and 1889, which show a great falling off in Germany's foreign commerce, and a corresponding gain for both France and England, and whether he would agree with those French and English economists who maintain that such a result was only to have been expected from the advancing German taxes on raw materials and provisions.

FOUR EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS.

THE meeting of the National Teachers' Association at St. Paul which closed on July 11 was perhaps the largest ever held, nearly 12,000 teachers from nearly every part of the country having been present. The programme, too, was on the whole perhaps the most meritorious. In the National Council, a select body of leading educators which met at St. Paul the preceding week, the value of the new plan was very apparent. Select committees report on standard topics once in three or four years, and the practice of presenting a vast body of opinions, more or less systematically collected from all parts of the country, has become the rule in the proceedings of the Council. In the Association itself the numbers have become too large for effective joint meetings, and the best papers are to be found in the departments. The chief interest in the national meeting last year centred in the discussion of religious training by Mr. E. D. Mead and Bishop Keane of the Catholic University; and this year the parochial question, which in two States has grown so hot as to dissolve party affiliations, was brought to the front by Bishop Ireland—forced, it is said, upon President Canfield by the local authorities. There is, however, need of much more specialization and organization before the greatest possible good can be derived from so vast a meeting. The great fact most strikingly impressed upon every competent observer was the superiority of the Western over the New England teacher in professional interests and wide professional reading and intelligence, not to say also in physique.

The American Institute of Instruction is composed of New England teachers, and met this year for the sixty-first time for four days at Saratoga. The chief papers were those by T. W. Bicknell, advocating a high-grade normal school in Boston for graduates of colleges intending to enter upon high-school work. This plan was devised by the Massachusetts Board of Education, but action upon it was deferred by the Legislature till next year. The plan is warmly supported by many leading Massachusetts educators, while it has been vigorously opposed by the State Superintendent and by normal masters. Another important paper was by the Boston Superintendent, Mr. E. P. Seaver. His plan proposes that the State should favor the establishment of departments of pedagogy in Massachusetts colleges, particularly female colleges, by paying to the college $200 or $300 for every graduate in pedagogy who passes a State examination. This, he believes, would accomplish better results than Mr. Bicknell's school. The third plan was presented by Dr. Stanley Hall, and was more modest and inexpensive. It involves a collection of select educational books and journals, English and European, in a central location in Boston, kept by a curator who should lecture on Saturdays, employ other lecturers, take apprentices, etc., and gradually develop a course of pedagogy to meet various needs. Special attention was called to the fact that the new course announced for next year at Clark University could not possibly meet any of the ends sought by any of the three plans proposed. The other papers were good—in fact, there was not a bad one—but the chief interest at this session of the Institute centred on the training of teachers.

The New York State Teachers' Association held its annual meeting in Saratoga during the week beginning July 6. An excellent address was delivered by President Seth Low and another by Prof. N. M. Butler of Columbia, where new departures in psychology have just been made and others in pedagogics are impending. Perhaps the chief feature of the meeting was the address of Judge A. S. Draper, State Superintendent of Schools, outlining from many original sources the history of the State school system. The other chief topics were a plea for closer relation between the university and the school, school training for political duties, and school reading. A striking contrast between the New York and the New England (Saratoga) meeting was often remarked. The New York teachers were mostly men, and therefore more permanent in their vocation and more serious and interested in it. Three long sessions each day were held, and nothing but educational work was presented. At the New England meeting three-quarters of the attendants were women; there were two quartets, organ music, recitations, and other diversions, to say nothing of repeated picnics, receptions, etc., and but two sessions a day were held. To plead for the pro-

fessional education of teachers in such a meeting is a little difficult. The President deserves all praise for handling his piebald programme, which was no doubt necessary under the circumstances; but the New Englanders should not again meet where such comparisons are challenged.

Most important of all these meetings in a sense was the Regents' convocation in the Albany Capitol. The admirable historical address of the new Chancellor, George William Curtis, was made to a distinguished audience, and was one of his best utterances. In New England, college presidents and faculties associate once a year to discuss common interests, but with very great reserve. In New York most of the colleges of the State were represented at the Regents' meeting, and even so sensitive a question as degrees was fearlessly and publicly discussed. It was moved that hereafter only universities with an income-bearing fund of half a million be allowed to give degrees, and it was suggested that two or three of the oldest and most valuable of the sixty academic degrees now conferred in America be selected by the Regents for their especial supervision and control. The existence and powers of this Board of Regents give to New York an opportunity and a responsibility possessed by no other State. With the cordial coöperation of Columbia College, which we trust is now assured, as well as of Cornell and the very vigorous State Superintendent, we may fairly look for very rapid educational development in New York.

From all this pooling of educational opinions the following seem to be indisputable facts: (1.) In New England, intermediate or secondary, if not primary, education is falling not only relatively but absolutely behind the West and the Middle States. This we believe to be due to the greater age, complacency, and unprofessional qualifications of the city and State superintendents in New England. (2.) At all these meetings the necessity of reform in normal training and the fundamental necessity of better qualification for teachers were emphasized. (3.) College and university presidents who have rarely attended these meetings were present; the heads of nearly all the best institutions in the country being in attendance, if not on the programme. When we reflect how the choicest educational influences work from above downward, this is not without its significance. (4.) What is most important of all is the fact of the astonishing broadening and deepening of all educational interests within the last two or three years. Never in the history of this country has there been so much unsettlement in all educational grades. This means exceptional opportunity, and no one can doubt that very great changes are impending

POSSIBILITIES IN EASTERN PERU.

IQUITOS, March 22, 1890.

IT is often more easy to enter a South American town than to effect an exit. It is almost impossible for the agents in charge to secure the departure of steamers on schedule time. Obstructions arise on every side—from officials whose correspondence is "not ready," from merchants who "will have more cargo to-morrow," from others who desire to force the companies to accept freight and collect charges from the consignee. By making these and other representations to the Captain of the Port, the citizens can usually induce him to withhold the "despatch" without which the steamer dare not depart. Accordingly, passengers booked for the voyage are obliged to live in a state of expectancy, with baggage packed, for days before finally setting sail. After an excited contest between the agent and the obstructionists, the *Mujú* got away from Iquitos four days after her advertised date for sailing.

This venerable craft possesses a history in which Americans may justly take a patriotic pride. She was built in Philadelphia for the "Companhia do Pará é Amazonas," now defunct, and, under a succession of different owners, has been in active service in this most trying of climates for twenty-three years! The same timber is in her to-day as when she was first built, and she is in as good condition as any vessel of English make which has been in the Valley of the Amazon as long as seven years. The assertion is often heard in tropical countries that none but the English can construct vessels which will hold together under the severe tests to which the heat and moisture of such climates subject them. One reason assigned for this is that they employ teak, an East Indian wood unobtainable by Americans; but in the face of all this exists the fact that the oldest boat on the Amazon was built in the United States, and that, with the exception of her iron hull, the material used in her construction was none other than Georgia pine (*Pinus palustris*, known in various sections of the country as yellow, hard, or long-leaved pine), which, by reason of being so heavily charged with pitch, has been found to last three times as long as teak.

The *Mujú* makes regular monthly trips between Iquitos and Yurimaguas, which latter town is at the head of navigation on the Rio Huallaga, about 100 miles from the Amazon, and 500 miles west-southwest from Iquitos. It was sunset when the lines were cast off from the pontoon dock, and the steamer started up the river. The current was excessively strong, and doing our utmost we could only make four miles during the first hour. At this distance we cleared the upper end of Iquitos Island, and, coming into the main channel, made better speed. Almost every foot of space on each side of the long table on the after deck was by this time occupied by the hammocks without which no one travels in this country—white, gray, and red cotton hammocks, with deep fringes hanging down; rich gray and brown chambira hammocks—all loaded with human freight, swinging in unison with the slight swaying of the vessel. It was characteristic and pretty. Outside, the faint gleam of the growing moon caused the vine-draped giants of the tropical forest to display their beauty with the added charm of shadow and sheen of moonlit night. In the woods all was still, save now and then the note of a querulous parrot. Suddenly a concertina or accordion whined the cue to a *cancion*, and in an instant a dozen voices had lifted the strain of "Perla preciosa," a wild, weird, plaintive song of love.

By the following morning the boat had reached Omaguas, a pleasant town scattered irregularly through a grove of sapota and mango trees. The land is rolling, and is not only cleared, but is kept as clean as any Northern farm. Corn was growing in several fields, and in the pastures were herds of cattle and horses. During the day several smaller towns were passed, all having a creditable appearance of thrift. The houses were built of canes and roofed with palm, but such a construction is far preferable to mud walls, which prevent free passage of air. The moisture in the atmosphere is so great that houses built with thick walls are always damp and chilly. Around these little villages, or pueblos, were great varieties of fruits. Oranges grow to perfection. Instead of the lemon, the lime tree is most commonly cultivated, and another intensely acid fruit called cidro, which resembles an orange in shape and size, is very abundant, and is highly prized for making a refreshing drink. The mango, sapota, and guayaba are found beside every hut. The last is often stewed and served as a dessert. The beautiful Pihuayo palm (the Pupunha of Brazil) is universal, and its large red, acorn-shaped, mealy fruit furnishes another highly relished dessert when boiled and floated in syrup. Another fruit greatly enjoyed by all classes is the huava, which looks like an enormous okra pod on the exterior, but contains a series of lenticular seeds thickly enveloped in a substance resembling cotton, which completely dissolves in the mouth to a juice of delicious sweetness. The banana orchard, of course, is a necessary adjunct to every settlement, for this wonderful fruit supplies to a great extent the place of meat, bread, and vegetables throughout the Valley of the Amazon, and coffee of excellent quality is also commonly raised for home consumption. Samples of this coffee tested by experts in New York are reported to equal the finest grades of Rio, and to possess in addition a suggestion of the flavor of Old Government Java.

Every town, or more properly chacra or hacienda (since nearly all are under the sway of a single Don), has its distillery, for the people use aguardiente (fire-water) in amazing quantities. The choicest native liquor is cherry brandy, perhaps the hottest beverage ever made. Orange brandy comes next in favor, while the standard drink of the country is rum of sugar-cane. Vast fields of the cane are cultivated, and all for this one purpose, not a single pound of sugar being produced for domestic use, and only a little, known as *chancaca*, made for strengthening the fermenting liquors. This chancaca resembles the crude sugar from Demerara. Corn, likewise, is only raised for the cattle and for making a beer called *chicha*. In a very few places tortillas and hominy are used, and the flavor of these is so excellent that it is difficult to comprehend the local prejudice which so narrowly restricts the applications of this nutritious grain. At many places were considerable patches of peanuts, *mani*, which serve as an article of food, as chestnuts do in Southern Europe. They are eaten roasted or boiled, and are very generally stewed with meats, in which form they are by no means disagreeable. Lastly, which is of peculiar importance to the Indian, a beer, *chicha de mani*, is brewed from them. To make peanut beer, the fresh nuts are mashed and boiled for several hours. All the liquor is now strained and expressed from the lees, sugar is added, and it is then fermented. At San Regis and several places further west, grapes were growing and apparently doing well. The inhabitants declare that they mature perfectly and bear abundantly, but complain that they require too much attention. The grape, however, demands care in any climate, and it is worth while to remember that down here anything which will not grow by simply sticking a shoot or cutting in the ground is deemed bothersome

and unprofitable. In a few places, notably at San Lorenzo, near the mouth of the Rio Huallaga, the natives cultivate a little rice, which ripens into a large, plump grain.

The cattle seen at the various chacras would create enthusiasm even in Chicago. There is one breed, mouse-gray in color, which is extremely beautiful, attains a large size, and fattens easily. Cattle are raised here solely for beef, milk never being used. It appears that in the tropics milk is even more likely to be infected with the bacillus tuberculosis than in the North, and so many cases of consumption have been traced to its use that the entire population, with scarcely a single exception, leave it absolutely alone. A few sheep are raised, and multitudes of pigs, chickens, and ducks, together with a great many fowls indigenous to the Amazonian forests which have been domesticated, and even crossed with the older breeds, with good results.

In spite of the evident possibilities for successful farming, in spite of the power which bountiful nature has given the provident husbandman to render himself largely independent of the outer world, the great majority of the East Peruvians *purchase* the common necessaries of life, rather than produce them. They use brown sugar imported from the West Indies, which costs them thirty cents a pound; rice brought from India, at forty cents a pound; canned vegetables from France, inferior to those they could raise in their own gardens; canned meats from Chicago, and flour from Baltimore, instead of having recourse to native corn meal. Then, to pay for all this, they are forced to endanger their lives by exposure in the jungle where they go to gather rubber. It has occurred to three, or perhaps four, men in this region that it would be more profitable and less dangerous to plant orchards of rubber trees on their haciendas. This is the dawning of a wisdom which must in time become triumphant, and bring prosperity and gladness to thousands who shall find homes in this land, where naught is needed but thrift and prudence to turn it into an earthly paradise. Within ten years a rubber orchard may be depended upon to yield a yearly profit of not less than one hundred dollars an acre, even in a so-called dry season, which is a phenomenon that occurs perhaps once every decade. Then, like the olive, the rubber tree endures and yields to posterity through many generations. While the trees are growing, many things can be raised upon the same land which will remunerate the planter. Climate and soil alike are adapted to the culture of heniquen, or jute; and coffee, which requires the shade of other trees to perfect its berry, could here be grown under the most advantageous conditions. Hemp is said to thrive well, and the cotton certainly develops remarkable characteristics. Instead of being an annual, as in the North, it grows into a shrub, or small tree, often twenty feet in height, and lives from forty to fifty years, being filled at all seasons with a profusion of yellow blossom and snowy boll.

Peru is proud of her "Montaña," as this vast eastern state of Loreto is called, and she well may be, for already, while there is not a single town or hacienda that is not upon the very banks of the rivers, while the population does not average more than one person to every sixty square miles of territory, and while a careless, thriftless people, too nearly content with mere existence, hold dominion here, the exports amount to upwards of two millions of dollars a year. When the railroad which is now building across the Andes shall have reached this region, and the tide of emigration shall have been turned into it, under the new genius which will then preside over her destinies, the plantations of Loreto may enrich the world more even than the wonderful mines of Peru's famous metalliferous mountains.

At San Lorenzo the steamer turns from the Marañon, or Amazon, into the Huallaga, which stream it follows southwardly, for thirty-six hours, through a region constantly growing more rolling, until the limit of navigation for vessels of six feet draught is reached at the picturesque town of Yurimaguas. This is the beginning of the overland route to the Pacific Coast. The journey is by no means as arduous an undertaking as it is commonly represented. At present it is necessary to go in a canoe a six days' voyage to Balsa Puerto, and thence to walk four days to Moyobamba. From that point a horse-road leads to the coast. The entire journey from Yurimaguas to Pacasmayo occupies from twenty-three to thirty-five days, and costs about $350. An engineer, Señor Perez, is at present laying out a road from Moyobamba to Yurimaguas, so that in a few months it will be possible to ride on horseback from the latter town to the Pacific. Yurimaguas is growing rapidly. The evidence is written clearly in the absence of many old buildings, in the number of new ones, and in the quantity in process of construction. Its population is now reckoned at three thousand, and when the Moyobamba road is opened, it will receive a new impulse of growth. The valley in which Moyobamba is situated is one of the most fertile in Peru. Its climate is that of perpetual spring. It is neither too cold for the fruits of the tropics, nor yet too warm for the cereals and vegetables of the North. In this favored valley are also other large towns—Chachapoyas, one of the ancient centres of Inca civilization, and Tarapota, famous for producing the finest tobacco in the Valley of the Amazon. The inhabitants along the river below Yurimaguas want the productions of this elevated valley, and it is for the sake of these that the new road is being built. All the cargo bound into this valley, and all that bound out of it, will then have to be transshipped at Yurimaguas. It is easy to see what an amount of business must arise at this point.

There is another region almost rivalling the valley of Moyobamba in natural fertility and advantages of climate, into which the steamers do not at present enter. This is that portion of the Amazon, locally known as the Alto Marañon, extending from the Huallaga up to the first cataract, the Pongo de Manseriche, in the eastern range of the Andes. It is now in large part an unbroken and almost unknown wilderness, but at every turn of the great river appear new evidences of its richness, and near to the mountains the land is broken into a series of little valleys whose beauty is almost ideal. Here are untouched resources of Peruvian bark. Here grow both the caucho and the rubber trees, the copal and the copaiba, the sarsaparilla vine and the wild cocoa. Here, too, are forests of the finest cabinet woods in the world. But as for that, the whole of the Montaña of Peru will afford these in almost limitless quantities. In this lies an unusual opportunity for a company of enterprising capitalists. The world already knows of the rich mahogany in these splendid woodlands. But here are likewise the palo de sangre, richer even than mahogany, and the palo de cruz, looking, when quartered, like sandalwood inlaid with imitations of water-plants in ebony. Of equal value, and of deep concern to the engineer, there exist others, particularly the huacupú and pauviní, which resist rotting in wet places longer than creosoted timbers—lasting, in fact, when used as piles and as sills resting upon the damp ground in this climate, for periods of twenty years. To get these timbers to market it is only necessary to make rafts, using the extremely buoyant cedro for the lower courses, piling the heavy timber on top of this, and then tow the whole down to Manáos, Brazil. The cedro could there be sold to be made into packing-cases for rubber, and the more precious woods shipped by steamer to New York—the present freight on timber being only eighteen cents per cubic foot.

From the few hints given in this article, it may appear wise for Americans seeking an extension of their commercial operations to pay some regard to the opportunities offered in eastern Peru. COURTENAY DE KALB.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, June 26, 1890.

M. DE BARANTE played a not unimportant part in the first half of this century, during the First Empire, the Restoration, and the Government of July. He saw many men and many things; it is a pity that he waited till he was eighty years old before resolving to put in order the notes which he had used in some of his historical works on the Convention, the Directory, and the Empire. He died before he could end his work; the first volume of his 'Souvenirs,' just edited by his grandson, M. Claude de Barante, goes as far as the beginning of the Restoration.

His grandfather, Claude de Barante (1669–1745), was a great Jansenist, and, during the persecution of the sect, he became the legal adviser of the Jansenists in Auvergne. His family was connected with the family of Pascal, who was also of Auvergne. He knew Nicole intimately and worked with him at the 'Epigrammatum Delectus'; he was a great scholar, and translated several Greek works. The father of the author of the Souvenirs was *lieutenant criminel* and *trésorier de France* in the *sénéchaussée* of Auvergne and the *présidial* of Riom. Like most of the *gens de robe*, he was a Liberal; he adopted the ideas of 1789, but was soon alarmed by the excesses of the revolutionists of Paris. It was not long before he was persecuted. He left Riom and retired to the country. He was arrested during the Terror, and conducted from Barante to Thiers. His wife, though on the eve of her confinement, rode to Thiers; she was delivered, before the term, of a daughter, who became Mme. Anisson du Perron. This lady, by the way, died only two years ago. She was much beloved and respected by all her friends, and had much literary culture; she left memoirs of which a part has been published by the Duc de Broglie in the *Correspondant*. The estate of M. de Barante was confiscated; his wife, as soon as she could move, went to Paris, in order to obtain his liberty. She spared no effort and put herself in communication with some of the Deputies from Auvergne. Young Barante, who was a boy at the time, went sometimes to Thiers to see his father in prison; he had to wear a tricolor cap for the occasion, and sometimes heard people sing under the windows of the prison:

"Il faut du sang, il faut du sang
Pour affermir la République."

Mme. de Barante succeeded, almost by a miracle, and through a sort of misunderstanding. She took her husband back to Paris, but never felt quiet till the revolution of the 9th Thermidor sent Robespierre to the scaffold.

Young Barante ended his studies in Paris, at

a *pension* in the Rue de Berri, which, before the Revolution, called itself "Institute of the Young Nobility." "All felt the influence now of the new times: there was no longer a chapel, a priest; there was no question of the mass or of any religious performance." By degrees, however, things changed there, as they did in the political world. Young Barante was admitted to the Polytechnic School in 1798. This famous school was one of the creations of the Revolution. Its first masters were Monge, Lagrange, Foureroy, Chaptal. Bonaparte reorganized everything; he became, after the 18th Brumaire, an almost absolute master of France. He wanted to change the whole administration. Barante's father was placed on a list of prefects and sent to the Department of the Aude. He went to Carcassonne, leaving his son at the Polytechnic School.

"It is difficult to imagine in what a state of happiness France then found itself. After ten years of anarchy, of civil war, of bloody strife, after the fall of an ignoble domination, public order was reëstablishing itself as if by miracle. The envious, haughty, and defiant aristocracy, issued from the Revolution, had ceased to dominate and to practise its vexations. Honorable men were placed in public office; every day a branch of the administration was regulated, an injustice was cured. Equality before the law, that symbol of French society, received for the first time a tranquil application. A desire for amelioration and national glory was felt everywhere. Youth embraced with rapture such happy hopes. It saw before itself a noble future, and everything excited its emulation."

It is curious to note this state of mind of France delivered from the Terrorists. History can no longer deny that the eighteenth Brumaire was hailed as a deliverance. M. de Barante's anecdotes concerning the society of the Consulate are highly interesting. You may read in Gouverneur Morris's memoirs that Mme. de Staël had been very intimate with Talleyrand during the early part of the Revolutionary period. M. de Barante tells us that when Talleyrand came back to France, after the Terror, his position became insupportable to him; he had no importance and no money, which to him seemed the greatest possible misfortune. One day he said to Mme. de Staël: "My dear child, I have only twenty-five louis left; I can hardly go a month with that. You know that I do not walk and that I need a carriage. If you don't find the means of giving me a suitable position, I will blow my brains out. If you love me, you will know what to do."

Mme. de Staël ran immediately to Barras; she contrived, with much cleverness, to dispose him to call Talleyrand to the Foreign Office. He was not, however, quite decided, and wished to talk to Talleyrand. Then comes the story of a small dinner at Suresnes between Barras and Talleyrand, which must be read in the book. Talleyrand paid court to the most corrupt of men in a way which pleased Barras, and he became the Minister of Foreign Affairs. He resolved from that time never to fall again into a poor and secondary position. With his immense diplomatic talent and knowledge, he became the great negotiator of peace after every war. Mme. de Staël and Talleyrand soon quarrelled, and their friendship ended in a lasting antipathy.

Napoleon's signing of the Concordat with the Pope was a great event; the churches were opened again. It is curious to see how rapidly irreligion had gained ground. The installation of the new bishops had to proceed with great caution. Some cities gave them a bad reception. The military element was hostile to the priests; in some places the mob entered the churches and threw stones at the priests. At the time of the conspiracy of Cadoudal there was a new sort of terror: hundreds of priests were arrested by the police. Barante was arrested one day by mistake, and had to be claimed by his chiefs. The execution of the Duc d'Enghien was the terrible answer of Bonaparte to the Royalist conspirators. Barante enters into some important details on the part played in this horrible tragedy by Talleyrand and by the First Consul.

"It is idle," says he, "to try to justify Napoleon. He never manifested the slightest remorse for the assassination of the Duc d'Enghien. Notwithstanding his habit of considering every action and every thought under its different aspects, he did not think, politically speaking, that he had committed a fault. . . . A few days after the death, exasperated by the severity of public opinion, he explained himself on the subject before the Council of State with an anger which excluded all regret. . . . The words which he pronounced were noted down. They are in the Memoirs of Miot."

Bonaparte obeyed the feeling of the Corsican *vendetta*. He thought himself in his right: "They wished to kill me, I have killed them."

The Empire was established by law on the 17th of May, 1804. When the Assembly brought to Napoleon, at St. Cloud, the new constitutional acts, Napoleon merely said: "I accept the title which you think useful to the glory of the nation. I will submit to the sanction of the people the law of heredity. I hope that France will never repent of the honors with which it surrounds my family." The new Constitution established in reality an absolute government. Fifteen years after 1789, France submitted again to the *bon plaisir* under a new form. The genius of Napoleon was her excuse; he saw everything, looked into every detail, his head was clear, his activity unlimited. He left on every part of the French Administration a mark which will be felt for centuries.

Barante was appointed *auditeur au Conseil d'État*. These auditors became a sort of civil aides-de-camp to the Emperor; he employed them constantly in all sorts of missions. His father had become Prefect of Geneva. He went as often as possible to see him, and became intimate with the society at Coppet, with Mme. de Staël and Benjamin Constant. He was sent with despatches to Spain, and was hardly back when he had to go to Prussia.

"There is," says Barante, "no comparison to be made between the effect produced by the battle of Jena and the enthusiasm excited by the victories of Marengo and Austerlitz. Marengo had saved France; Austerlitz had consecrated the establishment of the Empire and glorified the nation. The war against Prussia was universally regarded as having been undertaken without necessity, from a mere desire for glory and for conquest. The Emperor had left his army in Germany; he had manifestly wished that his negotiation with England should have no results; he had formed the Confederacy of the Rhine. Now it was a question of the submission of all Europe, of an Empire of the West, in short of a policy of imagination. Admiration for the genius of the Emperor was still increasing; but the progress of despotism, a consequence of the state of war, was beginning to preoccupy the public mind. Even about the Government, between friends, people were beginning to talk with censure and with affliction."

M. Daru, who was Barante's chief, was a most intelligent man. He was a sort of perpetual hyphen between the populations of Germany, the commanders of the army, and the German princes. "I was reflecting all the time," said Barante, "on the feelings which we should leave behind us, among the Germans, on the instability of our domination, on the vengeance which we might some day suffer from." He represents the generals as completely intoxicated by their victories; Vandamme, for instance, saw the greatest fortresses open their doors to him, almost at his first request. Barante was appointed intendant of Dantzig even before it was quite certain that Dantzig was occupied by our troops. After the formidable results of Jena, Napoleon was drawn to the Vistula, and the whole of Poland was in a state of ebullition. Napoleon was not moved by this exaltation; he said to a Polish deputation, with much coldness: "Gentlemen, this is a serious affair: it is war, with its chances, its dangers, its miseries." He was not ready to help them yet, but the idea of a war with Russia was beginning to occupy his mind. Warsaw became for a time an imperial residence; it was there that Napoleon saw Madame Walewski, but their *liaison* only began to make some noise afterwards.

Barante tells many interesting details about the succeeding events, the negotiations at Tilsit; but he is specially instructive when he talks about his own missions. Daru once said to him:

"'The Emperor the other day, when he was entering his carriage at Koenigsberg, said to me: "You will remain with the army; you will feed it, and you will bring me back 200 millions." I exclaimed. "Well, bring 150 millions," he said. The door was shut and he did not wait for my answer. You see by this that Prussia still owes us 150 millions, and my accounts will prove it. We shall make our calculations to that effect.' I replied quietly to Daru: 'Well, I shall not have to discuss with the people in Silesia, and I shall not have the annoyance of hearing them say that we do not fulfil the promises we made to them.'"

He had, in fact, just received his nomination as sub-prefect at Bressuire, in La Vendée. He was probably not thought sufficiently ardent or unprincipled for the task of a conqueror. He submitted quietly to what was a sort of disgrace, and came back to France. I regret that space does not allow me to follow him to La Vendée; he behaved there with his usual gentleness and moderation. He made the acquaintance of Mme. de Larochejacquelein, and helped her to write her memoirs, which were afterwards published, and which give perhaps the best account of the war in La Vendée.

Correspondence.

MR. HEARN'S PROFICIENCY IN PATOIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Mr. Lafcadio Hearn's book, 'Two Years in the French West Indies,' you say that so admirably has the author rendered his frequent quotations from the French patois, you hardly think you do him an injustice in suggesting that he may have received some assistance from his friend M. Léopold Arnoux of St. Pierre, Martinique. In making this suggestion you overlook the fact that Mr. Hearn published in 1885 (New York: Will H. Coleman) a 'Dictionary of Creole Proverbs,' which he entitled: 'Gombo Zhèbes' (*i. e.*, Gombo aux Herbes). In this little book he gives selections from six Creole dialects, that of Martinique being among the number, and translates them into French and English, at the same time making such a comparative comment on the various dialects as to justify us in inferring that he has a very thorough knowledge of these Creole patois. Mr. Hearn, if not a native of Louisiana, has lived there a good part of his life, and hence has had an excellent opportunity for becoming acquainted with Creole life and patois. But for this he

could hardly have written so well of the French West Indies.

SAMUEL GARNER.

ANNAPOLIS, MD., July 7, 1890.

TRUE CONSIDERATENESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For several years past I have lived in provincial England. Although so far from home, every now and then a transatlantic blast, pure and undefiled, fans to a white heat the fervor of my patriotism.

This morning, most appropriately to the day, a lady from one of our Eastern cities applied to my landlady for apartments. In the process of telling her that she had no rooms to let, the landlady said that there was an invalid in the house, whereupon the lady exclaimed: "In that case perhaps it is just as well that you cannot take us in, for my little girl, who is thirteen, likes to have plenty of liberty and to *scream* through the house."

Yours very truly, INVALID.

ENGLAND, July 4, 1890.

Notes.

IN a prefatory note to the English edition of Stanley's 'In Darkest Africa,' the announcement is made that the publishers, Messrs. Sampson Low & Co., have in preparation a third volume, uniform with this, to appear in the fall. It is by Mr. Mounteney Jephson, one of the expedition, and will contain an account of his adventures while imprisoned with Emin Pasha by the rebels of the Equatorial Province. The English edition of Stanley's work differs somewhat from the American in having an index to each volume, while the portraits are better, and the maps, instead of being in a pocket, are bound in the body of the work.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have in preparation 'English Prose, from Elizabeth to Victoria,' selections by Prof. James M. Garnett of the University of Virginia; 'Selections from Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales,"' edited by George Lyman Kittredge of Harvard; 'English Poets of the Seventeenth Century, from Donne to Dryden,' edited by L. B. R. Briggs of Harvard; 'A High School Rhetoric,' by John F. Genung; 'Lessons in Rhetoric and Literature,' by Mrs. T. W. T. Curtis and Mrs. Sara E. H. Lockwood; an 'Illustrated Vocabulary to Xenophon's Anabasis,' by Prof. John Williams White of Harvard; 'Hygienic Physiology,' by Dr. David F. Lincoln; 'Topical Outlines of American History,' by Prof. A. B. Hart of Harvard; 'The Leading Facts of American History,' by D. H. Montgomery; 'Reference Handbook of English History,' by W. H. Gurney; 'Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law,' by Prof. J. W. Burgess of Columbia; and a 'Practical German Grammar,' by George Hempl of the University of Michigan.

J. B. Lippincott Co. desire it to be known that the statement that they have discontinued the publication of non-copyrighted books is entirely false. They have, on the contrary, just completed arrangements with a number of foreign authors and publishers for a simultaneous issue of their works in the United States.

Mr. Moncure D. Conway has written a Life of Hawthorne for the "Great Writers Series," which will be published simultaneously in England and in this country (A. Lovell & Co.).

We have received two thoughtful lectures by Prof. Nettleship of Oxford upon "The Moral Influence of Literature" and "Classical Education, Past and Present" (London: Percival & Co.), which contain a discursive treatment of their subjects, meant for a popular audience, but full of matter for reflection. They have a more or less direct bearing on education, are large-minded and temperate, and betoken the relaxation of the scholastic methods of English instruction, and an aspiration, if no more, to make the body of literature effective in education by its ideas rather than by its grammar and syntax.

A more elaborate treatise to the same end is Prof. Laurie's Cambridge Lectures on 'Language and Linguistic Method in the School' (Macmillan), a laboriously logical analysis and synthesis in educational science, which is too brief to be condensed, but ought not to be neglected by those interested in the theory and practice of teaching. The little work is very lucid in statement and practical in advice. It is revolutionary in its spirit, and desires a reform all along the line in the teaching of grammar in all languages. It insists on the superlative value of the literature which should be the basis of education, on the necessity of an education mainly literary if the object is to induct the child into those ideas and ideals which constitute the moral life of the race, and on the new methods of grammatical instruction which force the child's mind to acquire real processes and power of thought, instead of memorizing half-understood terms of the grammarian's vocabulary, and processes of parsing which resemble the manipulation of Chinese puzzles more than any intellectual act. Prof. Laurie argues with much vehemence and effect. He understands his own theory and its underlying metaphysics perfectly;-but here, as in other pedagogic works, the real difficulty is not in approving the better way, but in finding teachers able to understand, to value, and to apply the better way. An interesting minor point is the author's defence of language-teaching where there is no expectation of the pupil's acquiring the language, either for speech or reading, to any really useful degree.

Little need be said about the 'Annual Statistician and Economist' for 1890 (San Francisco: L. P. McCarty). What is new in it is not important, and what is important is not new. It is high-priced, and it is not useful in anything like a reasonable proportion to its cost. It is sold, or offered for sale, at a price as high as that at which the 'Statesman's Year-Book,' and higher than that at which the 'Almanach de Gotha' may be purchased in this country with the duty added. It attempts to cover a much wider field than either of those standard publications, but in doing so it demonstrates anew that the jack-of-all-trades is not likely to be master of any. Little discretion is shown in making up the book. Space is occupied with such things as the list of all the rulers of each country in the world since the days of Romulus, the vote of each county in California at every election since 1849, and the name of every man who has ever been Governor of an American State or Territory. It might have been well enough to print these things and others of a similar sort once, but when they are reprinted year after year, they are simply padding.

The 'Élite Directory' for 1890, published in this city by W. Phillips & Co., raises anew the question of the principle of selection. Those omitted can take a sardonic satisfaction in seeing the names of the more fortunate "misspelled in the despatches." The suburbs are looked after as well as the metropolis, and in the nature of the case criticism will in these small communities be the more searching as regards both exclusions and errors. It would seem a fatal inconsistency to allow any of the Élite to appear only by their surnames, yet dashes abound in place of the distinguishing initials or Christian names.

About five years ago we spoke in very favorable terms of a treatise on the calculus by Prof. James M. Taylor of Madison University. Prof. Taylor now presents the public with a 'College Algebra' (Ginn & Co.). It is almost needless to say to those acquainted with his Calculus that the Algebra is also a good piece of work. It treats all the subjects which in our opinion ought to be included in a college algebra, treats them well, and at the same time is a much smaller book than such treatises usually are. The mere appearance of a 12mo volume somewhat less in length and breadth than the ordinary text-book, and containing only about 300 pp. of rather coarse print, is itself an encouragement to the student.

That indefatigable author of mathematical text-books, Prof. G. A. Wentworth of Phillips Exeter Academy, has just given us a new 'School Algebra' (Ginn & Co.)—not a new edition of his former work, but an entirely new one. There is throughout the book a manifest attempt to attain perfection of form, and to state everything with all possible clearness and precision. The most prominent characteristic of all Prof. Wentworth's books is the great number of exercises and problems, or, as most teachers and all boys call them, "examples," which they contain. In the present volume he has "beaten his own record." The last chapter, "General Review Exercises," contains 154. There are scattered through the work 117 sets of these exercises, containing from 10 to 100 each. From a rough estimate made by averaging several of the sets taken at random, we are certain that there are at least 3,000 examples in the volume, and we should not be surprised if an actual count should bring the number nearer 5,000 than 3,000. The other characteristics of Prof. Wentworth's books are too well known to require comment.

Prof. William Martin Conway is best known for his admirable researches and editorial work in the domain of art, and particularly of wood-engraving, but he is also an indefatigable Alpine climber, as was manifested nine years ago by the publication of his 'Zermatt Pocket-book.' This vade-mecum became at once a model for imitation, and, having long been out of print, has now been overhauled by Mr. Conway, and reissued as the 'Climbers' Guide to the Central Pennine Alps' (London: T. Fisher Unwin). It proceeds eastward from the Great St. Bernard, beginning with the Vélan district, and breaking off at the Theodul Pass. Another volume, which must be deferred till next year, will complete the Pennine chain as far as the St. Gothard; and Mr. Conway contemplates, at a still later period, a Mont Blanc Pocket-book. The condensation of the present volume, and the unprecedented minuteness with which the ground of the climber is mapped in words, must be studied to be believed. They remind us of the qualities of thoroughness and accuracy manifested in Mr. Conway's volumes on the Woodcutters of the Netherlands and on Albert Dürer, and (in connection with such maps as are recommended) they do all that can be done to promote reasonable calculation, insure safety, and indicate the finest views. The members of our Appalachian Club ought alone to absorb the 400 copies to which the edition is restricted, in order to learn how to perform a like if an humbler service for American mountaineers.

Another unpublished book of Victor Hugo's was brought out in Paris on June 17 by the

house of Hetzel-Quantin. It is called 'En Voyage,' and is a journal of two trips that its author made in 1839 among the Alps and in 1843 through the Pyrenees. The *Temps* says of it (with what seems in some sort a perfunctory civility), that there will be found in its chapters "the same descriptive manner that we have already noted and admired in the 'Rhin,' and more recently in 'Choses Vues.'" Doubtless; and doubtless, also, it is a manner that we liked a good deal more day before yesterday than we do to-day or than we ever shall again.

Not long ago Mrs. Jessie White Mario, the widow of one of Garibaldi's favorite lieutenants, published a life of Agostino Bertani, one of the Italian revolutionists, whose influence was much wider than his fame. A physician of broad education, he early joined the movement for the liberation of his country. A republican by principle and a disciple of Mazzini, he nevertheless refused to accept the rule-or-ruin policy of the extreme Mazzinians. His most notable achievement was the organization of the Sicilian Expedition of 1860. Afterwards, like Bixio and Medici, he held the middle position between the Monarchists and Republicans, and was respected and trusted by both. Mrs. Mario has done well to issue a supplementary volume containing extracts from his writings and speeches ('Scritti e Discorsi di Agostino Bertani.' Florence: Barbèra). Besides purely political speeches, there are able discussions of such subjects as universal suffrage, public education, the admission of women to the bar, the State control of railways, and public hygiene. The parliamentary work of Bertani is a fine illustration of the intelligence with which the best class of public men in Italy have applied themselves to the problems of government.

Spanish-American literary activity in this city is indicated afresh in the 'Poesías' of Francisco Sellén, published by A. Da Costa Gomez. The collection of verse is miscellaneous and of widely varying merit.

The fourth and concluding number of vol. xii. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* comes to us with the title-page and index to the volume. It contains two papers; one of fourteen pages by Prof. F. Franklin, "On Confocal Bicircular Quartics," and one of sixty pages, by Mr. Henry Taber, "On the Theory of Matrices." The titles sufficiently indicate that they can be interesting, or indeed intelligible, only to professional mathematicians. Mr. Taber's paper is a regular treatise, very complete, and of especial interest to those who are acquainted with Peirce's 'Linear Associative Algebra.'

A new *Critical Review* of Current Theological and Philosophical Literature will be founded next autumn in Edinburgh by T. & T. Clark (New York: Westermann), under the editorial conduct of the Rev. Prof. S. D. F. Salmond. It will appear quarterly, and its reviews will be signed.

The *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.; New York: Christern), opens the number for June 15 with an account of the recent festival of the University of Montpellier which a correspondent has already sketched in these columns. This is followed by the brief but admirable address, on the historic progress of the University, by Prof. Maurice Croiset.

We had overlooked the Quinquennial Catalogue of the Harvard Law School (1817–1889) which appeared at Commencement time; a stout volume of 260 pages, fairly divided between the lists by classes and the alphabetic list. A vast deal of labor has been bestowed upon it, to record death dates and places of residence, with other data. The name of Caleb Cushing stands second on the list of graduates.

Cushing, by the way, with Rufus Choate and Robert Rantoul, forms the subject of a noticeable address delivered some eighteen months ago before the Essex bar, and just printed in the Essex Institute Historical Collection (January–March, vol. xxvi.). The orator was Mr. Eben F. Stone, a graduate, like Cushing and Choate, of the Harvard Law School. Steel portraits accompany the address.

'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' at length comes to an end with the close of the seventeenth volume (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Westermann). Among the general articles of this supplementary volume we remark a list of planetoids discovered during the present century, with names of observers and dates; and a list of pseudonyms in recent literature. The biographical articles added are considerable in number and do much to freshen the work. Americans are represented, for example, by the late Prof. Stowe, A. G. Riddle, the historian McMaster (whose middle name is disfigured as *Bech* for Bach), Horace E. Scudder (the new editor of the *Atlantic*), and John Wanamaker. Of this worthy it is said: "Auch für kirchliche Interessen war er thätig, . . . und spendete ½ Mill. Dollar für die Kosten der Wahl des republikanischen Präsidenten Harrison, der ihn im März 1889 zum Generalpostmeister der Union ernannte." There is an index to topics not revealed by the general alphabet, another to the plates and cuts, and a colored map of the elections to the Reichstag in 1890. The editors, *more Germanico*, will now, instead of resting from their labors, prepare for a new edition. In American matters we suggest once more a special American collaboration.

—Ever since the announcement of Miss Philippa Fawcett's distinguished success at Cambridge, people have been asking why it is that she does not receive the B.A. degree which comes as a matter of course to the Senior Wrangler, and to the long list of Honor and Pass men who stand below him. The feeling that prompts the question is, no doubt, based upon a sense of justice, but the difficulties that lie in the way of the University's giving a degree to Miss Fawcett are unhappily very obvious. To begin with, she is not a member of the University, and her name appears on the Mathematical Tripos list only by courtesy. Harvard College, for the same reason, is debarred from giving a degree to a graduate of the "Annex." It is, of course, a question whether this is not all wrong, and whether women ought not to be admitted as members of both universities. A movement is already showing itself in the English Cambridge towards this end, but it cannot attain it by anything short of a complete revolution of the present university system. There is one complication in the matter which is peculiar to England. A Bachelor of Arts there proceeds in course to his M.A. degree, which involves a right to vote for members of Parliament. Each of the universities is a Parliamentary constituency. It is not likely that Parliamentary suffrage will ever be granted to women in England by any side-wind; while, on the other hand, a B.A. degree which did not lead directly to an M.A. would be but a barren honor. The academic distinction attained by Mrs. Butler and Miss Fawcett opens a question which will perhaps be more worthily treated if it be directly met.

— Not quite beside the name of Miss Philippa Fawcett, whose great academic distinction may perhaps for a long time stand unrivalled, but somewhere near it, room must be made for the name of Mlle. Sarmiza Bilcesco, who has just received from the Faculty of Law at Paris the first doctorate of laws that has been conferred by them upon a woman. Mlle. Bilcesco is described as a tall young woman of twenty-three, *brune*, very pretty, and very shy. She was born at Bucharest, and studied at home under the direction of professors of the Bucharest Faculty, taking at the age of seventeen baccalaureates in science and in letters *maxima cum laude*. To these she added the first piano prize of the Conservatory at Bucharest. In 1884 she proceeded to Paris to enter herself at the Faculties of Letters and of Law. She was received at once at the Sorbonne, and after only some brief delay at the Faculty of Law, and has been pursuing her studies at both, with marked distinction and success, during the last six years. The subject chosen for her thesis as doctor was: "De la condition légale de la mère en droit romain et en droit français." It makes, the *Temps* says, a stout volume of 500 pages, and would have contained 200 more if she had not withdrawn from it a discussion of the question of filiation. Mlle. Bilcesco will return to Bucharest and apply for admission to the bar there, not with a view to practising law herself—"Je suis trop timide," she says—but in the hope of smoothing the way for other women who may wish to try the bar as a means of getting a living; and, at any rate, to obtain a ruling on the question whether women who have passed the same examinations as men will be permitted to plead in the courts. There seems to be no great danger that the bar will be overrun with women if Miss Bilcesco gets a decision in her favor, for she has left behind her in Paris only two other women students at the Faculty of Law.

—Talleyrand's Memoirs are at last to be published, and the long-deferred hope of a multitude of readers in all parts of the world is at the point of being realized. Two volumes of the Memoirs will be published before the end of the present year by Calmann Lévy, and three more will soon follow, completing the work. The way in which the publication has come about is a little curious. On the 29th of May the London *Times* printed a number of fragments of the Memoirs, which were sent to it by its well-known correspondent from the Continent, M. de Blowitz. How these papers came into M. de Blowitz's hands nobody knows, or even if they have been accurately transcribed. One theory is, that they may have come from a collection in the possession of a rascally secretary of Talleyrand's, who is long since dead; another is, that M. de Blowitz, whose memory is remarkable, has been one of the very few people who have been permitted to read the Memoirs, and has carried away these portions of them in his head. At any rate, the appearance of them in the *Times* made a great stir. They were reprinted in the next day's *Figaro*, and then followed at once a multitude of letters and interviews and explanations about the causes and origin of M. de Blowitz's indiscretion. On June 2 the Duc de Broglie, who is one of those having the Memoirs in charge, wrote to the *Temps* to say that both he and M. Chatelain, the other legatee, were entirely ignorant of the nature and origin of the manuscript from which the writer in the *Times* had taken his extracts. Further, that neither he nor his colleague had been moved in the least by what had appeared in print, and that, in fact, the contract with

M. Calmann Lévy was made more than a month before any portion of the Memoirs appeared in the *Times*.

— Talleyrand's faithless secretary was a certain M. Perret, to whom for more than thirty years Talleyrand had given his entire confidence. He discharged him at last, and from that time on—that is, for the last fifteen years of his life—he was in constant dread of the mischief he might make. Perret could counterfeit Talleyrand's handwriting perfectly, and, as he had taken opportunity upon his discharge to purloin many important papers from the Prince's cabinet, it was easy work for him to make trouble. He could strike out or insert passages at will, or produce whole documents out of new cloth. In the newly published memoirs of the Baron de Barante, mention is made of a special instance of this. At the time of the arrest of the Duc d'Enghien, a report upon the subject was brought in by Talleyrand to the Special Council that was convened by Bonaparte. Perret showed about freely what purported to be a copy of this paper, which put Talleyrand in a most odious position. He would not let either this or his other documents go out of his own hands to be copied, but sought out people of consideration whom he had met formerly at Talleyrand's house, and read them to them, apparently as often and as many times over as anybody cared to listen. M. Pasquier, in fact, heard the D'Enghien report so often that he was able to copy it out from memory, and has inserted it in his 'Mémoires manuscrits.' On his death-bed, Perret seems to have felt some remorse for his conduct, for he confessed that many of his documents had been forgeries, and that especially the D'Enghien report had been seriously altered.

—Not long ago M. E. Naville, who is connected with the work of the Egypt Exploration Fund, wrote a letter to Lord Wharncliffe, the President of the Society for the Preservation of the Monuments of Ancient Egypt, with regard to the royal mummies in the Ghizeh Museum. He thinks that they will not last, and that they have already begun to suffer from salt efflorescence, especially that of Seti I. "The mummies," he said, "have been photographed, studied, measured carefully; it is our duty to transmit them intact to future generations, and not to let them perish for the sake of a few visitors, for whom a well-made cast would answer just as well." He proposed that they be wrapped again in silk, hermetically sealed in leaden coffins, and walled up in one of the chambers of the Great Pyramid where they would be safe from robbers. As regards the method of storing the mummies, it might be better to put them back in their cases, and then they could be left in the Museum. M. Naville feels, as many visitors to the Museum feel, that, after all, these old kings were human beings, and that exposing their bodies to the public gaze, not for scientific reasons but to satisfy mere curiosity, is, even after so many thousand years, a desecration of the dead.

—M. Naville's letter produced some excitement in official circles at Cairo, and Dr. Fouquet, who took part in the unwrapping of the royal mummies, and who made the measurements and medical observations at the time, has now made a new examination of them, and has written a report to M. Grébaut, the Director of the Museum, which was published in the *Journal Officiel* of June 7. Dr. Fouquet says that at the unwrapping of the mummy of Seti I. on June 16, 1886, this efflorescence existed in the same places where it is now seen. Part of the efflorescence was taken off in the presence of witnesses and put in two vials, of which one was given to Dr. Fouquet, and the other preserved in the Museum. A careful microscopic examination shows that the efflorescence is not mould, but scales and crystals mixed with particles of bitumen and fine linen fibre. The chemical examination showed that there was no sesquicarbonate of soda, no nitrate of soda, and no chloride of sodium. "The efflorescence is evidently of a very complex composition, to the formation of which the salts employed in the primitive preparation of the mummy, and the bitumen used afterwards for preserving it, have contributed (for the tomb had been violated, the mummy broken, and subsequently coated with melted bitumen). This matter has formed slowly in the course of ages." Further, attempts were made without the slightest success to cultivate and propagate mould on bits of mummy of the Ptolemaic period, and on bits of mummy-cloth coming from the royal mummies in question. Two mummies found with them at Deïr el-Bahari seemed in full putrefaction, and, on account of the stench, the unwrapping was impossible. They were put away where the air had access to them, when they became gradually disinfected, and are now in good condition. Dr. Fouquet concludes that, in the dry air of Ghizeh, and sheltered from too strong a light, as they are, "they seem in extremely favorable conditions for preservation for centuries." This, of course, does not affect the question of propriety.

PROCONSULSHIP UNDER THE BRITISH EMPIRE.—I.

Thirty Years of Colonial Government: A Selection from the Despatches and Letters of the Right. Hon. Sir George F. Bowen. Edited by Stanley Lane-Poole. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

The British Empire may, for convenience sake, be divided into two Empires, namely, the Indian and the Colonial Empires. How the colonies of Great Britain are now governed, we may learn from the two volumes of 'Thirty Years of Colonial Government' which Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole has compiled with considerable judgment from the official papers of Sir George Bowen, one of the ablest and one of the most successful of British governors, in present or past times. Like the Marquis of Dufferin and Sir Hercules Robinson, his compeers in colonial administration, Sir George Bowen was born in Ireland. It is, indeed, a notable fact how prolific Ireland has been in producing men of the state and men of the sword among the descendants of the English, Welsh, and Scotch colonists who have in times past gone over as settlers. Mr. Francis Galton should find in the fact of the success of Anglo-Irish governors fresh materials for his studies in heredity. Educated at the Charterhouse and at the University of Oxford, where he gained the distinction of taking his degree in the first class with classical honors, Sir George Bowen is shown by his official papers to have fulfilled the first Lord Lytton's ideal of the scholar and statesman, who alone could fully "appreciate what Bacon calls 'the heroic work of colonization.'" But the future Governor was more than a scholar in the classic languages: he had skill in modern tongues. French, German, and Italian were not sufficient, and he added to his intellectual outfit by learning to speak and to write modern Greek. Fond of field sports, he was enabled, when governing new countries, to undergo the hardships of long journeys in districts which railways had not reached. His geniality of manner and talents for conciliation, his power of hard work, and his strength of will when it was right that he should make a stand, whether against a powerful colonial clique or an ill-informed Secretary of State, all qualified him to succeed as a Governor, and especially, as he would have himself remembered, as a *constitutional* Governor.

It was in educational work that Sir George Bowen was first employed by the Government. At the age of twenty-six he was sent out to Corfu, as President of the Ionian University, to reorganize that institution of learning. His success was such as to gain him the approval of the English Government and the thanks of the Ionian Senate. His work of university reform did not, however, prevent his travelling far and wide among the Greek and Turkish provinces, during which journeys he acquired much information of a practical as well as of an archæological kind. Hence his 'Handbook for Greece,' contributed to Mr. Murray's series, and his 'Ithaca in 1850.' Mr. Lane-Poole says that the latter has been recognized by Mr. Gladstone and other Homeric scholars "as a conclusive identification of that island with the Island of Odysseus." A third book by the future Governor was called 'Mount Athos, Thessaly, and Epirus.' He also contributed to the periodicals of the day.

In 1854 Sir George Bowen was appointed Chief Secretary of the Government of the Ionian Islands, then under a British protectorate, and ruled by a Lord High Commissioner. He seems to have recognized that the protectorate had proved to be "a tough and unprofitable job," as the Duke of Wellington had foretold that it would. While, however, he was for giving up all the other islands to Greece, Sir George advocated, officially, that Great Britain should retain Corfu, with its satellite Paxo. As all the world knows, England, to the joy of the Hellenes, handed over Corfu, along with the other islands, to the care of Greece in 1864. It was while serving in the Ionian Islands that Sir George Bowen married the Countess Diamantina Roma, daughter of a nobleman of an ancient Venetian family, who was President of the Ionian Senate. As the wife of a Governor is a very important factor in the making or marring of her husband's viceregal administration, Sir George was singularly happy in his alliance with a lady who has been recognized as the queen of society wherever her husband has represented his sovereign. When on his wedding tour, Sir George had one day a long talk with Lord Palmerston, who wished to obtain information upon matters relative to Greece and Turkey. In their conversation, the question of Greek pronunciation arose. The Ionian Secretary explained that the modern Greeks pronounce η and υ like the Italian *i*, and that consequently ἡμεῖς, *we*, and ὑμεῖς, *you*, are pronounced identically. "Ah! they confound *we* and *you*, do they?" said Lord Palmerston; "I fear that is not the only way in which modern Greeks confound *meum* and *tuum*." In the same letter from which this anecdote is taken, Sir George relates an experience of Dr. Wilberforce, the famous English prelate, with regard to his examination of a candidate for orders who was the son of an English merchant settled in Greece. "I examined him myself," said the Bishop, "in the Greek Testament, when he used what to me was an unknown pronunciation. 'Oh! Mr. M.,' I cried, 'where *did* you learn Greek?' '*At Athens*, my Lord,' faltered out the trembling candidate."

In 1859, the District of Moreton Bay was cut off from the colony of New South Wales and was constituted into a separate government,

the new colony being named Queensland, by Queen Victoria herself. This colony now comprises about 670,000 square miles. The honor of being the first Governor of this embryo State was conferred upon Sir George Bowen, who held the position from 1859 to 1868, with high distinction. The new Government started business with fifteen cents in the Treasury. A few nights after the Governor's arrival, a thief broke into the Treasury and carried off the amount named. Money was obtained by borrowing from the banks, and in a short time the public revenues grew to large sums. Queensland sprang into existence with responsible government as its own by birthright, and the Governor was fortunate in having as his first Prime Minister Sir Robert Herbert, the present permanent Under Secretary at the Colonial Office, who is alike distinguished in scholarship and administration. In the early years of constitutional government in the British colonies, ministries are very short-lived. Parties seem to play at turning each other out of office. As the colonists get accustomed to their responsibilities, matters settle down into a more stable condition and governments grow longer lived. But, in Queensland, the earliest ministers were for years left undisturbed in power, and Sir Robert Herbert ceased to be Premier only on his resigning office in order to go to England.

When the Governor had put the public departments in order, he travelled far and wide over the vast colony. His journeys were usually made when the local Parliament was in recess. Hundreds of miles did Sir George Bowen ride on a single such visitation, one day getting over as many as seventy miles in eight hours, with a change of horses. The colonists were, wherever it seemed practicable, urged to apply for municipal government, it being a marked feature in Sir George's character that he would have the colonists educated as far as possible to self-government. In this he differs from many others who govern colonies, and who seem to regard the concession to colonists of power to manage their own affairs as in some way an infraction of their own excellency. Such governors are evidently in sympathy with Sancho Panza, who expressed his preference for a government of blacks, because, if they and he did not agree, he might sell them. The land question, long a burning one in Australia, was settled in Queensland to the satisfaction of the colonists. There was a question as to the portion of the colonial debt which Queensland ought to undertake, on its separation from New South Wales, and this cause of trouble was amicably arranged. Soon a liberal system of education was established in the colony, for Sir George Bowen was always a stanch promoter of public instruction. Railways were laid down, and telegraph wires were carried over the country. The colony was ushered into the world without the cost of a single soldier to the parent State. In the total absence of what Sidney Herbert called the "drum and red-coat system," the Governor appealed to the public spirit of the colonists, and forthwith the Queenslanders combined for defence as citizen soldiers. As a portion of Queensland is well suited for the cultivation of tropical products, the Governor took every opportunity of urging upon the settlers the introduction of cotton and cane cultivation.

In fact, for the time being, Sir George Bowen made the interests of the colony his own. Government House was all the time the head of social life in the colony. A British governor's term of office is as a rule limited to six years. A compliment was paid to Sir George in extending his governorship of Queensland to eight years. After the extension had been granted, a political crisis came about, which found the Governor strong and capable. With the example of the United States greenbacks before them, the Queenslanders, under pressure of a monetary crisis, proposed to issue inconvertible notes, and to make them legal tender, which the banks held would be equivalent to a forced loan upon British capital in the colony. Governors of British colonies are, on appointment, furnished with Instructions even to this day. It may be remembered that at the famous interview between Benjamin Franklin and Lord Grenville, in 1757, when the latter's conversation a little alarmed the former as to what might be the sentiments of the Court concerning the American colonies, so that he "wrote it down as soon as he returned to his lodgings," Lord Grenville stated that *instructions*, when received by the governors, were "the laws of the land; for the King is the legislator of the colonies." The instructions to Governors of colonies in our own age, do not, however, pretend to set aside colonial laws. They are such as colonists themselves, when not heated by party strife, will readily accept as fit and proper. In Sir George Bowen's instructions, he was directed to reserve for the sovereign's approval or disapproval "any bill whereby any paper or other currency may be made a legal tender, except the coin of the realm or other gold or silver coin." Adhering to his instructions, the Governor withheld his assent to the bill—a threat to burn down Government House, and to treat Sir George Bowen "as Lord Elgin was treated at Montreal in 1849," notwithstanding. The Governor's firmness carried the day. A law was passed authorizing the issue of Treasury bills, like the Exchequer bills of England, and the financial crisis was tided over.

From 1868 to 1873 Sir George Bowen was Governor of New Zealand. His predecessor in that proconsulship was Sir George Grey, of whom Mr. Froude gives a pleasing picture in his 'Oceana.' The second New Zealand war, begun in 1860, had not been brought to a close when Sir George arrived. The warlike Maoris, in their native fastnesses, had not been subdued, notwithstanding that at one time as many as 10,000 British regulars, besides the colonial militia, had been in the field. In the absence of roads, the latter were unable to concentrate upon the enemy, while the Maoris, issuing out of the forests in small war parties, chose their own time and place for falling upon the British. The Governor found, too, that almost every leading member of both houses of the Legislature had a native policy of his own. The war, which had for a while been suspended, broke out afresh with the massacre at Poverty Bay. Encircled as he was with difficulties, the Governor had to bow to the decision of the Imperial Government to remove the regular troops. Not a single regiment would the inexorable Home Ministers allow to remain in New Zealand, even though the colonists offered to pay for the privilege of keeping the troops. Sir George Bowen was impressed with many points of resemblance between the Maoris and the Highlanders of Scotland in the first half of the eighteenth century, and bethought himself that the policy of Lord Chatham and Gen. Wade might be adopted in New Zealand, for the settlement of the native question. His Colonial Ministers approved of and acted upon that policy. Friendly natives were employed to make roads and in the construction of public works, and, on the cessation of the war, in 1870, some thousands of Maoris who had not long before been in arms against the colonists were employed in this manner and in garrisoning posts for the Government. Sir George Bowen frankly acknowledges the indebtedness of the colony to those friendly natives, who stood by the English so manfully in storm and sunshine. The Governor's tact in dealing with these people tended to confirm their attachment to the Crown, while his conciliatory management of the natives generally was undoubtedly of benefit to the colony. He showed wisdom in providing for the representation, in the Council and Assembly, of Maoris by Maoris. The general affairs of the colony were not neglected, but were so administered that the Governor left New Zealand with increased reputation.

The Colony of Victoria is beyond doubt one of the most vigorous of the British lion's whelps. With a revenue, including the income of the colonial railways, equal to that of Portugal, and far exceeding that of Denmark, of Greece, and several others of the minor kingdoms and republics of the world, the present is but the forecast of its future grandeur. A remarkable feature in the welfare of Victoria is the fact that, of its whole revenue, as much as a third is spent upon educating the people, from primary education to the means of instruction provided by museums and picture-galleries. Of this splendid colony Sir George Bowen was Governor from 1873 to 1879. On his assumption of office he found the colony in a state of complete tranquillity, such as prevails wherever the people of a country are prosperous. The Governor entertained the colonists, and they, in turn, entertained him. He made speeches upon public questions, and played the part generally of a benevolent Viceroy. The shepherd kings were visited by him in their stately homes, while the Mayor and the Town Council of Melbourne, now a city of 400,000 inhabitants, were warned as to the absolute necessity for sanitary measures in the face of an ever-increasing population. The natural advantages of Melbourne were so much in favor of health that the authorities too long neglected to realize the wisdom of their Governor's advice.

After sixteen years' absence from England, without a holiday, Sir George now took leave of absence, sailing for England on the 30th of December, 1874. On the 29th of April, 1875, the Governor of Victoria was entertained in London at a grand banquet given in his honor. Some three hundred persons took part in the fête, many of them of high distinction, and the Duke of Edinburgh presided. As the *Times*, in a leading article, suggested, it was a question whether Sir George should not, after receiving so much honor, have committed the happy despatch, and have left the world in a flash of glory. During his leave of absence the Governor came into contact with many interesting persons. On the Continent he made the acquaintance of Pio Nono and of Victor Emmanuel, of both of whom he has something interesting to tell. In London he was much in request, and had to decline an invitation to dine with the Prime Minister (Disraeli) because he was already engaged to the Archbishop of Canterbury. "How unwise!" said his friend Mr. Lowe (now Lord Sherbrooke). "What possible good can an Archbishop be to a Governor? Oh! I see how it is. You are tired of being a Colonial *Governor*, and wish to become a Colonial Bishop!" On his return to his government Sir George Bowen passed some weeks in the United States, where he evidently enjoyed himself. He also visited Canada. Sailing from San Francisco, which he remarked as not being so handsomely or so solidly

built as Melbourne, the Governor was back in Victoria early in 1876.

Having left Victoria in a state of political peace, the Governor returned to find it in a state of political storm. The Acting Governor had declined to dissolve the Assembly at the request of the Colonial Ministers, and three successive Ministries had failed to carry on the business of the colony, in the face of a factious opposition. Matters were soon arranged smoothly by Sir George Bowen. But in 1877–1878 a most formidable crisis arose in the political history of the colony. Unlike the struggle in 1875–1876, the later contest was a wrestle between the two houses of the Colonial Parliament, the Council and the Assembly. The question at issue was the payment of members of the Legislature. The law authorizing such payment had expired by effluxion of time. The Assembly wished to continue the system. A majority of the Council was against such continuance. The Council, which, being elected as well as the Assembly, claimed to be "a second House of Commons," threw out the appropriation bill by which provision was made for the maintenance of the Government of the colony. A constitutional dead-lock was the consequence. The Ministers, supported by a large majority of the colonists, not being supplied with the means of carrying on the Government, to reduce expenditure dispensed with the services of a large number of officials. The Council (that is, the majority), trusting to the support of absentees in the old country, who might be able to put pressure upon the Secretary of State, arrogantly required the Governor to side with them. Holding that the question at issue was one of purely local concern, and in no way imperial in its character, Sir George Bowen declined to become a partisan of the Council, and, as a constitutional ruler should do, he held himself bound to act on the advice of his Ministers. As ill-luck would have it, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who had become Secretary for the Colonies, allowed himself to be misled by the absentees in London, persons not in touch with the bulk of the colonists, with the result that the Governor's influence was weakened, while the truculent Councillors received a corresponding amount of encouragement. It was only after Sir George Bowen had ceased to govern Victoria that, in a despatch dated May 25, 1879, Secretary Hicks-Beach plainly laid down that the action of the Council had been reprehensible.

Before we follow the Governor to Mauritius, it should be noted that, having always had the closer union of the Australian colonies at heart, he had, during the last two years of his rule in Victoria, so arranged that the neighboring governors met together, as his guests, at Melbourne.

ATHENIAN MYTHOLOGY.

Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens, being a translation of a portion of the 'Attica' of Pausanias by Margaret de G. Verrall. With introductory essay and archæological commentary by Jane E. Harrison. Pp. clvi, 635. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

Every lover of Greece might well desire the publication of a commentary on Pausanias that should fittingly represent the information which we possess to-day touching the countless subjects treated by the old traveller and mythologist. Monographs and articles we have without number, perhaps in every European language, upon special parts of his work, or special phases of it—even volumes of no mean size; but a comprehensive treatment of the whole still awaits the spirit bold enough to undertake it. Miss Harrison fully comprehends the magnitude of the task when she says:

"To produce an adequate archæological edition even of one book of Pausanias would have been in some respects beyond my scope. Such an archæological commentary would demand a scholar who should be at once philologist, topographer, epigraphist, architect, as well as mythologist and mythographist. My competence, at first hand, is confined to the last two branches of classical learning. My work as regards the other departments has been rather to weigh the opinions of others than to originate my own."

In this volume of nearly 800 pages Miss Harrison has confined herself to the first book of Pausanias, and within that to such parts as relate to the mythology and monuments of Athens alone. This work has already been done in English, with the information of their day, by Leake and Wordsworth, and more recently by Dyer ('Ancient Athens,' 1873); but excellent and extensive as even the last treatise is, the changes which have been wrought during the last seventeen years by excavations in Athens, and by the genius of scholars who have devoted themselves to the solution of its perplexing problems, have rendered a thorough reconstruction of the subject necessary. To this task Miss Harrison has addressed herself with a zeal and ability which all will be glad to recognize.

Qualified by years of study, by experience in writing and lecturing upon various archæological subjects, by long and minute examination of the monuments on the spot, and possessed of a style at once lucid and correct, at times picturesque and striking, she has produced a work which the student of Athenian culture cannot afford to ignore, and which the earnest visitor to the spot will find an ever-present help and stimulus amid the myriad perplexities of opposing theories. Miss Harrison's own contributions to mythological problems will be found to contain many ingenious combinations and solutions deduced from the principle that "in the large majority of cases *ritual practice misunderstood* explains the elaboration of myth"; while in other fields she has carefully ransacked and utilized "Mittheilungen," "Bulletins," "Journals," "Papers," *et hoc omne genus*, till the reader may rest assured that he is put in possession of the latest and most valuable results which have been attained. Above all, she has given us what no one else, perhaps, was likely to do, a systematic construction of the views of Dr. Dörpfeld, Director of the German School, upon the topography of Athens. This gentleman has lectured for several years to his own classes and to English and American scholars during the winter, going about from monument to monument and discoursing, in his lucid manner, upon the problems which these monuments present. Some of his conclusions have been published from time to time by himself; but, amid his busy days, their publication has never been complete. He has now given Miss Harrison leave to use all the material she has gathered from his lips, and he has supplied her with much more; he has even read her proof-sheets and added his corrections. To have incorporated in this way the views of the dominant topographical authority in Athens is an achievement which renders the book unique in its way. One might justly describe it by the sub-title of "The Topography of Athens as revised and reconstituted by Dr. Dörpfeld." Some of the chief points of this may be mentioned.

The Eridanus has generally been identified with one of the branches of the Ilissus quite outside the limits of the city, to the east of the Stadium. Dr. Dörpfeld maintains that it had two sources on the southwest slope of Lycabettus near the Lyceum, flowed westerly through the valley north of the Acropolis, and, passing beyond the limits of the city near the Dipylon gate, emptied into the Ilissus towards the southwest and the Peiræus. This view is based mainly on a passage of Strabo, on the lie of the land, and on some vestiges of an aqueduct following this route. The aqueduct is supposed to have been bridged in ancient days at the crossings, and to have been completely covered in later times. The Sacred Gate which has been pointed out for some years near the Dipylon, is now metamorphosed into the exit of this stream from the walls.

The much-contested Theseum is described as the Hephæsteum mentioned by Pausanias. The so-called Theseum cannot be the temple constructed by Cimon, as proved by architectural peculiarities which set it too late, between the building of the Parthenon and the temple at Sunium. The real Theseum was on the east side of the Agora.

The Agora is not limited to the district north of the Areopagus and Acropolis, but extended round to the west of the Areopagus as far as the proper front of the Acropolis. West of the Areopagus was the "Orchestra" and an Odeum, more properly the Agrippeum, and near the southwest point of this hill was the fountain Enneacrunus, which has often been confused with Callirhoë to the east of the Acropolis. At this western site is to be fixed the rape of Orithyia, according to the earliest version, not by the Ilissus. Between the Enneacrunus and the Acropolis lay the Eleusinium, not north of the Acropolis as usually conceived.

The Pnyx returns to its rights once more upon its native rocks, from which it was dislodged by Curtius. In this Dr. Dörpfeld coincides with the conclusions of Dr. Crow of the American School, whose excavations on the site proved many points of Curtius's theory untenable.

It had been supposed that the Olympieum was originally adorned by ten columns at each end. Dr. Dörpfeld concluded from certain architectural evidence that it could have had but eight. Excavation proved this to be true.

Dr. Dörpfeld's revolutionary theories in relation to the theatre are coming to be pretty well known. In the days of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, he says, there was no stage, no stone seats, no substantial structure for the scene. The actors spoke from the level orchestra where the chorus sang. This orchestra was circular. Believing this to be the case from comparison of other theatres, Dr. Dörpfeld dug and found remnants of the circular wall of the enclosure still existing under the present walls of the stage structure of Lycurgus.

The Pelasgikon extended from the Asclepieum to the Pan Grotto, and the sacred character of the southern slope, which forbade the construction of buildings upon it, was first seriously infringed by Herodes Atticus when he erected his Odeum there. Dr. Dörpfeld points out a fragment of the Cyclopian wall which bounded this precinct on the east. He has reconstructed the original plan of the Propylæa as conceived by Mnesicles, but abandoned in part for various reasons. He was the discoverer of the old temple between the Parthenon and the Erechtheum, and has waged an uncompromising battle in defence of his views against numberless foes. During the recent excavations on the Acropolis he has found many facts to confirm his belief. One is important. It has generally been maintained that a temple mentioned by Pausanias in the vicinity of the Parthenon belonged to

Athena Ergane, and was situated directly west of the Parthenon on the somewhat lower terrace. Dr. Dörpfeld asserted that no temple of Athena Ergane existed on the Acropolis: on the contrary, the temple seen by Pausanias was the one which he has discovered. The last excavations have proved that no temple stood on the supposed Ergane terrace, but only a secular building, perhaps the Chalcotheke. No one denies the existence of his "Athena" temple, nor its destruction by the Persians. He contends that it was reconstructed soon after without its peristyle, and continued in use till the time of Pausanias. A strong æsthetic objection to this lies in the fact that, if it be so, the beautiful Caryatid hall of the Erechtheum must have been practically hidden by the temple, standing as it did almost within arm's length. This objection, frequently urged, has driven Dr. Dörpfeld to the answer that the architect of the Erechtheum expected that the old temple would soon be removed, but his expectations were never fulfilled. According to this theory, it was in the opisthodomus of this temple, and not in the Parthenon, that the state treasure was kept.

One of the latest novelties is his removal of the "Limnæ," or Dionysiac district of the "Marshes," from its usual haunts south of the Acropolis, to the northwest part of the city, between the Dipylon and the Agora, connecting it with the Dionysiac Temenos in that vicinity, and with the Eridanus for its marshy character. The argument has not yet been published. It may possibly connect the "Hero Calamites" of Demosthenes, *de Cor.*, 129, the Theseum, and the "Hero Physician" of Demosthenes *Fals. Leg.*, 249, the first of which is said by recently discovered scholia and Hesychius to have been named from the reeds growing about his sanctuary, which was near the Lenæum; and inscriptions relating to the "Hero Physician" have been found in the district now assigned by Dörpfeld to the Limnæ. But all this runs full tilt against the universally accepted interpretation of Thucydides ii. 15, where the Limnæ are set down among the old sanctuaries of the Olympieum, the Pythium, and others at the opposite side of the town. The evidence for marshes in this district at an early period is sufficiently supported by the Codrus inscription.

We may now turn to some points in Miss Harrison's work which may deserve correction in a second edition that ought to come soon. On p. xxvi. she speaks of the arbitration of Cecrops between Athena and Poseidon as probably a late invention of grammarians. She has overlooked Xen. *Mem.* iii. 5. 10, where it is mentioned as a commonplace. Do we know, as stated p. 25, that the Areopagus consisted of 100 members? It was not Athens that lay in ruins after the Peloponnesian war (p. 28), but her walls. An inexactness of expression somewhat similar on pp. 116 and 406 is likely to offend the epigraphist. The date of the Dionysiac monument of Lysicrates is fixed on p. 247, by the archonship of Eucænetus, in the year 335 B. C. As a matter of fact, the victory could not have taken place till 334, the latter half of the archonship. In connection with porticos erected adjacent to theatres, the words of Vitruvius are translated, "Behind the scene porticoes should be set up, porticoes like those at Pompei and also at Athens." Vitruvius undoubtedly refers to the portico adjacent to the theatre of Pompey at Rome. For "Archinos, son of Alupetos of Skambon: Menekretaia, wife of Dexikrates, Daughter of Ikarieus" (p. 332) substitute, Archinos son of Alupetos of Skambonidæ; Menekrateia, daughter of Dexikrates the Ikarian. The printer's demon has been at work on p. 283 with unusual malice. In the description of the beautiful relief adorning the proscenium of Phædrus, Miss Harrison is made to say, "Ikarios brings the goat Erigone with the dog; Mæra bears the cakes," for, Ikarios brings the goat; Erigone, with the dog Mæra, bears the cakes. Some other misprints are these: "Ardellos" for Ardettos (p. 232) (should not this be also read on the map for "Hymettos"?); "Olnetor" for Onetor (p. 243); "Nearchmos" for Neaichmos (p. 346); "Löl-ling" for Lolling, "Pherekides" for Phœnikides (p. 371); "inches" for metres (p. 469); "looking east" for looking west (p. 463); "Soskates" for Sostratos (p. 491); "built" for burnt (p. 466).

In the "Plutus" of Aristophanes, the slave *Carion* does not tell the story of the cure of *Plutus* to his wife (p. 306), but to the wife of *Chremylus*. Thucydides does not speak of the Pelasgikon in connection with the Athenians who came back after the Persian war (p. 537), but in relation to those who flocked into the city upon the invasion of the Spartans at the opening of the Peloponnesian war. "Pausanias" is written on the same page for Thucydides.

Occasionally a fact does not seem to be thoroughly thought out. On page 253 we are told that "The general limits of the precinct [of Dionysus] can be roughly defined, and the precise sites of the two temples seen by Pausanias are, fortunately, known beyond doubt"; on p. 280, that the back wall of the stage of Lycurgus "was built over a corner of the northern wall of the smaller and earlier temple, which must then have been in ruins." If so, it should for the same reason have been in ruins in the time of Pausanias. There are no signs of rebuilding, and yet Pausanias saw two temples, one containing the old Eleutherian image. We are told at p. 516 that the basis of the Athena Promachus on the Acropolis "has been found, and gives a fixed point"; on p. 523, that "it is usually thought that the large basis marked on the plan near to the Propylæa belonged to the statue, but this is not certain." Such a swift unsettlement of opinion on matters of Athenian topography is not confined to our author. Perhaps the Tower of the Winds lies at the bottom of it all.

But this ungracious task of the critic may well be left to a more careful revision. It is pleasanter to turn to a discovery which had not yet come to light when Miss Harrison wrote her pages, but is announced by Dr. Dörpfeld in a supplementary note. In his description of the entrance to the Propylæa, Pausanias remarks casually, "I cannot say with certainty whether the figures of horsemen represent the sons of Xenophon, or are merely decorative in character." Dr. Lolling had conjectured that they stood one on each side by the *anta* of the north and southwest wings respectively. This has been proved by some plinths which were found near the Parthenon, and have been rebuilt as a base for one to the right by the short stairway that led to the Nike temple. The slab upon which the horsemen stood exhibits the trace of the feet, and discloses the fact that the figures were about half the size of life. The inscription shows that Pausanias did not take the trouble to read it, or he read only one word. It states that the statues of the horsemen were constructed from spoils of the enemy when Lacedemonius, Xenophon, and Pronapus were Hipparchs. The artist was Lycius, son of Myron. The forms of the letters prove that it was originally erected about the middle of the fifth century, two generations too early for the sons of Xenophon the writer.

The translation of Pausanias by Mrs. Verrall is easy and flowing. Opportunities for criticism are rare. Pausanias might object when made to say that Mycalessus was "in the middle of Bœotia," and one who has stood on Tegea's site and looked out upon the mountains to the east feels the slight implied by the expression, "Hill of Parthenion"; but such things are not monstrous.

Miss Harrison's opinions upon the artistic merits of the objects she describes are rarely expressed, but such as she gives us are frank and unreserved. Witness her observation upon the reliefs of the Nike balustrade: "They are very beautiful, but they are restless, and a certain striving after effect has begun to corrupt both pose and gesture. They do not wear well to the eye. They are now set up to good advantage in the second right-hand room of the Acropolis Museum, but they were better in their own place, where a man might look at them once, wonder, and go by, up the steps." A very notable merit in her work is the untiring assiduity with which she has gathered material for its illustration. She has utilized not only the ordinary photographs to be had in Athens, but she has taken others herself, and has pressed the cameras of her friends into her service, with the result that the book would be of permanent value, simply for its illustrations, which are to be found nowhere else. Unfortunately, their reproduction is but indifferent, in some cases very bad. The engravings of vase paintings, which are made a special feature by Miss Harrison, are often most excellent. She marshals her forces with great skill, clinching her arguments by appeal to the eye in the most effective way, as may be seen, for example, in her proof of the art type of Athena Polias. It is a pleasure to see Pausanias treated in this way; and while we may despair of having all of his ten books so elucidated, we may suggest to Miss Harrison that scholars would welcome heartily from her pen a similar treatise upon Olympia.

Social History of the Races of Mankind. Third Division: Aoneo-Maranonians. By A. Featherman. London: Trübner & Co. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 480.

WITHOUT information kindly furnished by the author of this formidable volume, no reader of its title would or could form the conception that it signifies the North American Indians. Doubtless the latter is a most unfortunate designation, always recalling the blunder of Columbus, and the writer who shall suggest another name having any chance of popular acceptance will deserve thanks. This has been attempted by the phrase Red Indian and Red Man, but it is now becoming understood that the pre-Columbian peoples of this continent were not red, except when painted, and the title that perpetuates another blunder is properly falling into disuse. Dr. Featherman's amendment is as cumbrous as "North American Indian," while it is not more acceptable on the ground of accuracy. He calls all the peoples of the western hemisphere "Maranonians" from "Maranon, the ancient Indian name of the Amazon River." It may be remarked, in passing, that this was not the name given to that river by all Indians in its vicinity, and, indeed, that there were different names for the several parts of its course. But the valley of the Amazon, called by whatever name selected, is pronounced to be the place of origin of the whole race. Then follows the statement

(p. 6), "That the Northern Indians came from the southern part of America is conclusively proved by the fact that the only products they cultivated, before the white man had invaded their country, were maize, tobacco, and squashes, which are all of southern origin." Without dwelling on this violent assertion, about which a volume could be written, it might be admitted that all the plants mentioned came from the far South without requiring as a corollary to the proposition that the people also came from there. The conveyance of maize and the knowledge of its cultivation, through intertribal channels, is known to have actually taken place between the Arikara and their neighbors and congeners who first received the "Ree corn" after they were established in the localities where they were earliest met by Europeans. The cultivation of maize among the Siouan tribes does not prove that it was brought by them or their ancestors from South America, any more than does the use among them of the horse, which was introduced into South America, but likewise directly into North America.

The author, notwithstanding his above-quoted dictum, is hopelessly muddled about tobacco. On page 50 he argues that the sacrifice of tobacco among the Iroquois was not ancient because it did not grow in North America, but was introduced there by Europeans. But if it was so introduced, any argument derived from the assertion that the people brought it from South America is demolished. Then, in confusion, he asserts (page 117), that the Powhatans did make a religious use of tobacco. The fact is, that the *Nicotiana tabacum*, the tobacco of commerce, was indigenous to and was cultivated in the West Indies and South America; but the *N. rustica*, also a true tobacco plant, was probably indigenous to and from ancient times was cultivated over a large area of North America. The Indians, from New York to Georgia, are familiar with the difference between these plants. The tobacco used either for ceremonials or for sensual gratification before the advent of the Europeans the Onondagas yet call "real tobacco," and the Cherokees "old tobacco," and from this plant undoubtedly came the old name of the Tobacco Nation of Georgian Bay.

Having decided upon the homogeneity of all the peoples of the continent as Maranonians, Dr. Featherman attempts to name their grand divisions in a less commonplace style than by the mere geographic North and South; so he selects for the Northern tribes the title of "Aoneo." This is a highly euphonized form, copied from Schoolcraft, of ha'-yo-hwe'-no, which in some of the Iroquoian dialects means "the island that floats," referring to the mythic turtle which became magnified into an island and finally into the habitable world. This would not be a bad poetical expression for the continent, but is not likely to prevail, because it requires so much explanation. The above special detail and symbolic name taken from one of the cosmogony myths were never generally known among the Indians, and they are now familiar to very few persons of any race.

The feature in the volume that first strikes the reader is that it pretends to give a classification of the Indian tribes which in fact is no classification, but a mere scheme of chapter headings which, by arbitrary selection of names and illogical grouping, leads to serious errors. Among many examples the following may be noted: The Iroquois, or Five Nations, are called Mengwes, the "Mingos" detested by Cooper's Hawkeye; but that term was not Iroquoian, nor did it apply exclusively to the Five Nations, which were a comparatively small part of the Iroquoian tribes. The word is Algonkian, and, meaning "people of another speech," was in fact applied to the Nottoways of Virginia, and, indeed, to all the Iroquoian tribes. Among these were the Hurons, to whom a separate chapter is assigned, and who are strongly distinguished from the Iroquois proper, or the Five Nations. There is no great objection to the comprehension of all the Iroquoian tribes under the heading of Mengwe, but the description should not be confined to the Iroquois proper, and all the other divisions of that linguistic stock should not be scattered through the volume without order. For instance, the Tuscaroras appear far away in pages from the Mengwes; the names of the Tuscarora tribes are set forth with the error that half of those inventoried were in fact Algonkian, and then (p. 132) comes the statement that they and "the Iroquois or Sinnagars" were mortal enemies. Sinnagars is a bad shot for Senecas, the largest of the Five Nations, and most American schoolboys know that the Tuscaroras spoke the language of the Iroquois and voluntarily united with them, forming the sixth nation. The great Algonkian family is also left in wild confusion. The Iroquoian "Maquas," or Mohawks, are noted as part of it (p. 66), and the Algonkin tribe on the Ottawa River, from which the name came, is not mentioned. On page 89 the "Marechites" are a part of the "Abenaques," and on page 97 they are under the heading of the Micmacs.

The author provides a chapter headed "Mobilians," which he says belong to the Muskogee family and yet comprise about all the Muskogee (or Muskoki) and also other tribes named, notably the Cherokee, who undoubtedly were Iroquoian. It will be information to Congress that the last-mentioned tribes, which are in the Indian Territory, send a delegate to that body (p. 151).

By the chapter-heading "Bonaks" the author chooses to signify all "the California tribes proper," by which he mixes together a considerable number of linguistic stocks much more distinct from one another than the Italians are from the Germans. But perhaps under the head "Chippeways" he excels himself in muddling a simple and thoroughly known subject. He says that they are also called Athapascans, and that one of their divisions is the Chippeways proper, also known as Ojibways. Now the Chippewyans (not Chippeways, who are also known as Ojibways and are Algonkian) are a large branch of the large Athapascan family, and Dr. Featherman has been misled by some authority consulted so that he gives a long description in the wrong place.

The absence of any orderly or correct arrangement has been the occasion of immense repetition. If there had been any proper grouping, remarks and characteristics, whether true or false, might have been expressed in general about the component parts of the several groups. As it is, they are repeated all over the volume, sometimes in the same words, and swell its bulk to inconvenience. Moreover, in copying authorities, by which the author evidently means any book of the mass of published Americana without regard to its comparative value, an enormous number of errors have been painfully transcribed. They begin to astonish the reader in p. xiii of the preface, where it is declared that the Indians in their warfare "did not conquer or appropriate any territory," which is exactly what they did. But it is futile to attempt the enumeration of errors in the work. They appear, on a hasty average, at least once on every one of the five hundred pages.

The author's queer turns of fancy when he tries to discriminate are more interesting than his mere blunders. In many places (*e. g.*, pp. 114, 124, 156) he dwells upon the Indian picture-writing, yet takes a notion (p. 151) that the only comprehensive work on these pictographs, which gives illustrations of them by hundreds, has no value because one or two of the examples are evidently modern, not understanding that the continued use of pictography is most valuable because, its existing methods being known, they explain those of the ancient and undeciphered characters made by the ancestors of the present practitioners, to whom the art has descended. The fact is also noticeable that while the only statement made about the Indians which is at once important, true, and somewhat novel—*i. e.*, that their religion did not include the concept of a single supreme deity—is in the body of the work, the corrections of the popular error on the subject are nearly all made in footnotes or in the preface, which was written later. This fact leads to the inference that Dr. Featherman had read some publications quite lately issued in this country which met with his approval, though he did not see fit to acknowledge them. But if he had read a little more about the totemic system, with its special rules of marriage and descent, he might have corrected his text by more good footnotes. If he had then published his footnotes without the text, his book would have been much improved.

When a volume is without logical order, or, indeed, without any recognizable method, as this is, it may be made of some use by a very good index, but the index to the present volume is as slovenly as the text. It contains but three and one-half pages, and really does not serve any purpose as an index—being only a bad table of contents—and thereby forms an appropriate finial to the whole work which may fitly be regarded as a monument showing how not to write about the North American Indians.

The Economic Basis of Protection. By Simon N. Patten. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1890.

THE author of this work holds a professorial chair in the School of Finance and Economy established by Mr. Wharton in the city of Philadelphia as a propaganda of the dogmas of protectionism. The tutelary divinity of this school of the prophets is, of course, Henry C. Carey, the interpretation of his somewhat obscure utterances having become an occult science employing many devotees, who fill numberless books with their vaticinations. These books, like other amorphous products, are not easily described. Chronologically they belong to the era of the allegorical school of commentators, whose achievements in identifying the scarlet woman and the beast with two horns were thought so admirable some hundreds of years since. By assigning arbitrary and preposterous meanings to words and phrases of well-defined connotation, the writers are able to attain to heights of misunderstanding that are but one step from the sublime. They sincerely believe that a steady current of British gold is poured into this country for the purpose of destroying our manufactures, and that under British rule the fertile and populous plains of India have become a howling wilderness. Fables that nurses would not trust the credulity of infants to believe are gravely expounded as history, and the typical fallacies upon which the mediæval school-men exercised their pupils are selected as the corner-stones of protectionist argument.

The term "free trade" has become invested with a mystical potency of horror that inflames these votaries with fury, and the youth of Philadelphia are frightened with it into good behavior, as children were once tamed in Italy with the name of Hannibal. The free-trader is there, indeed, no better than an infidel, and he is commonly refuted, as pious writers formerly refuted the unbeliever, by putting in his mouth arguments of the last degree of fatuity, which of course enable the faithful to obtain an easy triumph.

The fundamental proposition upon which these writers construct their system is the celebrated discovery of Carey, that the early settlers of a country generally expend their labor upon such portions of it as are least productive. From this it plainly follows that as they extend their operations, more productive land is continually reached, thus practically demonstrating the absurdity of Ricardo's theory that men will select for occupation that land which they consider will give them the best return for their labor, and that, as population increases, other land will be brought under cultivation. This discovery of Carey's is more fruitful than it might at first seem, for it may be inferred from it that if early settlers are such fools, their descendants are not to be trusted to know what is for their own interest, and need the stimulus of a protective policy on the part of their rulers. This inference is actually drawn in the book which is before us. The abandoned farms in the Eastern and Middle States are pointed out as illustrations of the deceptive character of self-interest as a guide. Instead of working these lands, the farmers ought to have waited until Government opened railways to the prairies of the West, where labor would have a better reward. The further inference may be derived that the use of stage-coaches was always a blunder, and people ought to have gone afoot, or sat still until their rulers discovered the use of steam. In fact, they never should have worn clothing until their Government had developed the arts of spinning and weaving and invented the sewing-machine.

That there is no exaggeration in this appears from the proposition of the author that Congress should put a stop to the use of woollen clothes. He considers that cotton is a more suitable material than wool for clothing, and that the sooner people are brought to see it the better; although, singularly enough, considering the difficulty of dyeing cotton, he also maintains that the use of white clothing must be discontinued. He has decided that that color is not suited to our climate. With much complacency he observes that wool has become very expensive, that the use of cotton in our winter garments is rapidly increasing, and that "the day is not far distant when many of them will be woollen more in name than in fact." That day, so far as poor people are concerned, has in this country already arrived. It is interesting to learn upon such good authority that this is the result aimed at by protection. The same principle applies to food. Our "Government should raise the price of our agricultural products, now crudely produced, so as to give more inducement to scientific production." Taxes should be imposed upon the staple articles of consumption to assist our development. "Taxes on tobacco and liquors are of particular value in this respect, and have done much towards reducing the use not only of these articles, but also the whole diet consumed by those who use them."

The policy of reducing the "diet consumed" by the common people is certainly characteristic of paternal governments, but experience has shown that too low a diet is not conducive to long life. If Congress should be composed of thinkers like this author, there is ground for apprehension that many of its subjects would find themselves without the means of support while new occupations were being provided for them. Prof. Patten has discovered that the soil of the West, and, in fact, of America, "is poorly fitted to the cultivation of grain." The Southern planters make a mistake in not devoting part of their cotton lands to the cultivation of tea. "Drain the whole surface of Florida, and our dependence upon Cuba would cease." In general, we Americans "are not using our land for that for which it is best fitted, nor are we cultivating it in a way that will make it most productive." Congress ought to change all this by proper taxes.

Another important discovery made by Prof. Patten is, that "the past development of the American people has been the gradual surmounting of a series of obstacles." We are not quite sure that this discovery is original, but as it may not have been heard of in Philadelphia, it is well that it should be impressively announced. Of course, it follows from this that obstacles are necessary for our further development, and that it is the duty of rulers to provide them—a duty which we had supposed had never been neglected. The aim of society is not the production of wealth, but the "opening of new occupations." Articles which are produced in semi-tropical countries, "where nature supplies all the conditions necessary to production," ought not to be produced there. "They must be cultivated in places where nature is less favorable and does less for the production of the crop, but where this disadvantage is counteracted by the greater efficiency of the labor in civilized countries, together with a greater use of capital." To work harder and spend more to produce a result now attained with less exertion and expense, is certainly the quintessence of protectionism.

It is clear that if most of the occupations which men choose for themselves are shut up, others must be opened up, so that the policy of protection is simpler than it appears. Only stop men from doing what they think will be profitable, and you may be sure you are adopting a wise national policy. National prosperity is a very different thing from "that of the individuals who form the nation at any given time." It seems that every citizen might be enjoying the greatest prosperity while the nation itself was in ruins. No historical examples are produced of this remarkable phenomenon, and in fact no arguments from experience are adduced in the book, the author wisely observing that "the theory of a subject must always be developed previous to any intelligent study of the facts." Those who would investigate this theory further, whether to disclose its merits or draw forth its frailties, may be appeased with the statement that "national prosperity depends upon the natural laws regulating the supply of raw material, and upon the industrial possibilities of the people."

We have made a sort of anthology from this book, culling from its pages a number of most delectable passages, but it would be unfair to give more of them. Doubtless it has occurred to our readers that the author is not serious, and that he intends to satirize the protectionists under cover of a pretended exposition of their views. It certainly seems incredible that the dismal scarecrow of protectionism here exhibited should be soberly presented as a national ideal. But while this supposition would be kind, so far as the intellect of the author is concerned, it is hardly probable that he would deliberately discredit the doctrines that he is employed to teach. Yet we confess that we are perplexed by his contention that the tariff is unfavorable to natural monopolies. This can hardly be satisfactory, if it is honestly meant, to the protected monopolists who control our mines and forests; and how about Mr. Wharton's monopoly of nickel? Still, if Mr. Wharton is content, we are not aware that it matters to any one else, unless the pupils of his School of Finance and Economy are to be considered. These young gentlemen seem to enjoy educational privileges that have never been equalled outside of the University of Laputa.

The Unknown God; or, Inspiration among Pre-Christian Races. By C. Loring Brace. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1890.

THE tone of Mr. Brace's present work is distinctly different from his 'Gesta Christi'—so different as to suggest contrast rather than comparison. It is much more liberal and catholic than that, which, in its anxiety to claim for Christianity the credit of all beneficent activities contemporaneous with its development, read *propter hoc* for *post hoc* all the way, making little or no allowance for circumstances of nationality or race as affecting the result. We were left to infer that Christianity in India and Buddhism in Europe would have brought forth the same fruits that we have seen could they have been transplanted in the germ; whereas in that case Christianity would probably have been very much like what we now call Buddhism, and Buddhism very much like what we now call Christianity. Mr. Brace's new volume is a palinode correcting the bias of the former. Here he has brought together a great mass of evidence, in a perfectly apprehensible and thoroughly popular form, in proof of the stock of moral and religious ideas common to the religions of antiquity. (Taoism and Confucianism and the religion of our Teutonic ancestors are omitted from his consideration.) Instead of pursuing the old method, which branded these religions as false, and sought only to place their defects in contrast with the merits of Christianity, he has sought out what is excellent in them, and, by massing it, has made it exceedingly impressive.

The book is well calculated to abate the conceit of many Christians that their religion is the sole depository of truth and good. It has nothing of the trick that vitiates a book which is superior to this in many ways, viz., Dr. James Freeman Clarke's 'Ten Great Religions,' which was bent throughout on showing that Christianity is a *pleroma* containing all the good there was in the other nine religions without any of their defects. It will be strange if the Christian reader does not covet many of the sentences that are quoted here for his own Scriptures, or even if he would not be willing to exchange for them some of those passages in the Old Testament or New which are the delight of those to whom the Westminster Confession is entirely satisfactory without the slightest emendation.

Nothing in Mr. Brace's book becomes it less than its title. It is the Known God it celebrates, not the Unknown. Mr. Brace's contention throughout is, that the non-Jewish races knew the true God, by whatever name they called him, not with the fulness of the Jewish revelation, but very wonderfully and gloriously. For all his catholicity, Mr. Brace still holds to the Jewish and Christian revelations as something special; and while frequently appearing to make their difference one merely of

degree, he often gives a different impression. He speaks of them as being full and perfect. But if the Jewish revelation was so, the Christian revelation would seem to have been superfluous.

A few other matters call for the briefest word. From Mr. Brace's chapter on "The Jews and the Egyptians" it would appear that his Old Testament studies have been meagre in comparison with his studies of other religions. Either he has no acquaintance with the course of such criticism as is represented by Kuenen and Wellhausen and Reuss and Robertson Smith, or he does not consider it as worth a passing word of refutation. We read of Moses as if he were a clearly defined historic character, and as if the Pentateuch, if not written by him, were fairly representative of his morals and religion. Hebrew monotheism is set down as an inheritance from Egypt, and not a gradual acquisition, attaining no consistency till many centuries after the time of Moses. Yet he quotes the extremely interesting and significant prophecy of Micah (720 B. C.): "Every people will walk in the name of his God, and we will walk in the name of Jahveh for ever," implying clearly that, even to a prophet so advanced and spiritual, Jahveh was not the only God. In the mention of Enoch (p. 48) there is no suggestion of the possibility, suggested by his 365 years, that he was a solar myth; and to say that the doctrine of a future life "comes forth clear and distinct in Job, the Psalms of David (*sic*), and the Prophets," is to go counter to the whole tendency of recent criticism, of which Warburton's 'Divine Legation of Moses' was a blundering anticipation. It is the more strange that Mr. Brace finds the resurrection of the body clearly set forth in Job xix., 25-27, because he quotes from the Revised Version, which makes the force of the passage tolerably plain, viz., that before Job dies, however his body be wasted by disease, he will see his Redeemer—*Goel, i. e.*, Vindicator—on the earth. The author of Job is spoken of as if he were a patriarch of the times in which the story has its setting, and not a writer probably as late as 600 B. C. It is not correctly said that "Schrader derives the name Jahveh from the Assyrian god Jahon [*sic*, a misprint for Jahou], and Renan, in his 'History of Israel,' follows him." Renan allows the possibility of truth in Schrader's derivation, but inclines strongly to the opinion that Jahveh was a local god of the region about Sinai or a provincial god of Palestine, and he regards him as a dreadful failing-off from the primitive Elohim to whom prophecy returned.

One of the strangest of Mr. Brace's freaks is his forgetfulness of the Christian doctrine of the devil. Several times he attacks the dualism of the Zorastrian religion without, apparently, the ghost of a suspicion that Christianity in its historical development has always been a dualistic faith. To say that "such a faith cannot feed the human soul, and dies out at last," is to criticise Christianity severely as well as Parseeism. What is dying out is apparently the dualism, leaving the general faith unharmed, though that has had an able advocate of late in Dr. Edwin A. Abbott, author of the article on the Gospels in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' On page 125, Tennyson's "Higher Pantheism" is quoted as one of his early poems. The volume in which it first appeared was 'The Holy Grail, and Other Poems,' published in 1869, when the poem was of recent date.

But Mr. Brace's book might lack much more than it does of carefulness and it would still be at least a beautiful anthology, well calculated to foster that sympathy of religions which is a steadily increasing element in our modern life.

Life and Times of Ephraim Cutler. Prepared from his Journals and Correspondence by his daughter, Julia Perkins Cutler, with biographical sketches of Jervis Cutler and William Parker Cutler. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890.

THIS biography is a chapter in the early history of Ohio. Ephraim Cutler was the son of Dr. Manasseh Cutler, one of the principal promoters of the Ohio Company, and naturally sought his fortunes with the early emigrants. He was born at Edgartown, Martha's Vineyard, and bred by his grandparents at Killingly, Conn., and on their death went to Ohio with his wife and children. He was then twenty-eight years old. His reminiscences of these early years contain trifling anecdotes of the Revolutionary times, and some illustrations of the character of the Puritan communities, but little of any personal interest. The story really begins with the hard journey overland to the Western settlements, on which he lost two children and suffered severely from illness; and from this point the picture of the pioneer life becomes full of detail, and the more instructive inasmuch as there is no attempt to do anything but set down a plain record of facts. He began immediately the work of felling trees and planting corn, cutting roads, surveying, exploring, and the rough, hard labor of an energetic and public-spirited settler. His father's influence, who was then a Representative at Washington, procured him some official appointments in the Territory, and he soon made an impression upon the people among whom he was to pass his life, as a capable and trustworthy man. He was neither brilliant nor ambitious, but merely ready to serve and conscientious in his work. His own account of the difficulty he had in overcoming his diffidence, and in feeling himself a man of weight and influence, is on its face sufficient proof that he was no more than a man of sound and vigorous sense trying to do his duty.

His public service was really considerable in the end. He was a member of the Territorial Legislature, and officially interested in education at an earlier time; but his first conspicuous service was in the convention that framed the State Constitution. He was opposed to the project of Statehood, and consequently in a minority, but he succeeded in winning over his opponents on several important points; and in particular the judiciary article, which established a circuit system, the prohibition of slavery, which was adopted against the advice of Jefferson and after considerable opposition, on the ground that it would discourage Southern emigration, and the articles upon religion, education, and the schools, were all from him. He was not upon the popular side in politics, and had little further employment in them until after a score of years, when he served again in the House and Senate. During this second period he carried two most important measures after great effort. The first was to make effective that article of the Constitution which directed the establishment of schools "for ever" by the State, but which had been a dead letter up to the time that Mr. Cutler introduced his public-school legislation; the second was a reform of land taxation, by which the system of an assessment at cash value on actual view was substituted for that of an assessment by dividing all land into three classes, each of which paid a tax the same per acre for all parcels within the class. In both of these instances he deserved great credit for overcoming the peculiarly obstructive opposition of those who raised the cry that every man should pay for his own children's education, and, in the other case, of those richer and more populous counties which profited enormously by the old class system of land values. The reform of taxation, which touched also upon other sources of taxes besides land, was practically his individual work, and it required considerable administrative ability to draft the scheme of officials and duties which the new legislation made necessary. He was also in later years a mover in the improvement of the roads and introduction of railroads, and for thirty years was an active trustee of the Ohio University at Athens.

Together with these public interests, he carried on his own business of farming, setting up mills, founding new towns, driving his own cattle to market, and helping and advising the new settlers. He assisted, it is said, at least 200 families in acquiring their new homes, conveying them the land, and waiting their convenience for payment, besides being a generous friend in other ways. He lived this laborious and useful life until 1853, when he died, at the age of eighty-six, in consequence of an accident received in riding horseback. The pages of his journal are strewn with kindly notices of others of the first settlers and leading men of the community, whose hard lives and simple strength of character belong to the same school.

The volume concludes with brief accounts, first, of his brother Jervis, in whom the natural ability of the Cutler family showed itself in less noteworthy ways, and finally took the form of engraving, a profession which he followed in Tennessee and Indiana; and secondly, of his son William Parker, who, though hampered by ill health, won prominence in politics, was a member of the Thirty-seventh Congress, and afterwards was employed in the building and extension of railroads, notably in the Hocking Valley. He died in 1889. A curiosity of the volume is found in the notes kept by Mr. Cutler of the sayings and doings of the secret Republican caucus in Washington in '62-'63, in which the temper of the time towards Lincoln is strikingly illustrated. An appendix contains some speeches and historical papers.

The English Novel in the Time of Shakespeare. By J. J. Jusserand. Translated from the French by Elizabeth Lee. Revised and enlarged by the author. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890.

THE subject of this volume is the English story before it became the novel of De Foe and Richardson. The author goes back to 'Beowulf,' and describes also the Norman-French tales, the old English romances, and generally all the primitive forms of story-telling before he takes up the main part of his matter in the chapters on Lyly and his imitators, Sir Philip Sidney and the 'Arcadia,' and the Elizabethan novels. He treats of these origins of the novel in a popular and at the same time a scholarly fashion, filling his pages with large extracts from the texts and with ample and curious illustrations out of old books. He discriminates between the romantic tales and the realistic sketches of Green, gives a sufficient account of Lodge, and a very full analysis of Nash's prose work, in whose 'Jack Wilton' he finds the most promising and complete foreshadowing of the novel as it was to become, and pays sufficient attention to the literary history of his subject to speak of the Spanish origin of Euphuism and the "picaresque" tale, to show how "Arcadianism"

differed from Euphuism, and to narrate the fortunes of "Grobianism." The whole is entertaining, and lays open to the general reader the character and contents of many books not easily accessible and not worth much attention except from the professional student. Finally, M. Jusserand describes the "heroical" romances of the seventeenth century, imported from France, and the reaction against them, touches on the work of the "matchless Orinda," the Duchess of Newcastle, and Mrs. Behn, and concludes by giving an excellent impression of the literary atmosphere that fed the dramas of Dryden and his companion playwrights, the little masters of mere extravagance. Throughout the volume one sees the signs and prophecies (mostly in the form of prodigies) of the novel, its infertile beginnings, experiments leading nowhere. To bring philosophy down from the clouds was not seemingly a harder task than to subject imagination to the yoke of this life.

The point of view taken by the author, which is our modern novel, gives an air of extraordinary crudeness and stupidity to the tales of the early writers. It seem inexplicable that, after Sidney's 'Defense of Poesie,' English prose was so long in finding its canons, and that, with the strong sense of reality in the English race, the "heroical" novel should have held its own, and have imposed upon Dryden the mountain-labors of his absurdities. But these, and other curiosities of the intellectual development of literature, its retardation, its incredible conservatism, its foolish fashions, are well set forth by M. Jusserand, who, however, is more sensible of the meritorious and attractive in these early writers than of the qualities we have hinted at. Among the more interesting cuts, besides some excellent portraits, we notice the interior of the Swan Theatre from the drawing of 1596, recently discovered in the Utrecht Library, and the map of the "tendre" country out of Scudéry's 'Clélie.'

Henry M. Stanley: His Life, Travels and Explorations. By the Rev. Henry W. Little. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1890. Pp. xv, 456, 8vo.

THIS is not so much a biography as an account of the various enterprises in which Mr. Stanley has been engaged. The chapters upon the Abyssinian and Ashantee wars, for instance, give brief but interesting accounts of their causes, the country marched through, and the striking events of the campaigns. In addition to the narrative of the personal adventures of his hero in tracing the Congo to its mouth, Mr. Little relates at some length the political history of the Congo State. There is also much information about Central Africa, the people, their language, customs, the climate, and the scenery. Although recent events in the Sudan and the work of Emin Pasha in the Equatorial Province are sufficiently dwelt upon to explain the necessity of an expedition for his rescue, the author has the good taste to treat of this very briefly, evidently not desiring in any way to forestall Mr. Stanley's own book.

Mr. Little is no mere compiler, but writes intelligently and with some personal experience of Africa. The first part of his work is better than the last, which shows many signs of haste in its preparation. His style is picturesque, though at times too ornate, and his tone is more that of a panegyrist than of a sober historian. The book, nevertheless, has a value as a trustworthy record of important events in the development of Equatorial Africa.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abel, C. Aegyptisch-Indoeuropäische Sprachverwandtschaft. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich.
Abel, W. J. School Hygiene. Longmans, Green & Co.
Acton, J. Verses. Philadelphia: Bellstein & Co.
Apples of Eden. The Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Arnoux, W. H. The Dutch in America. New York.
Augustin-Thierry, G. Le Capitaine Sans-Façon. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
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Chisholm, G. G. A Smaller Commercial Geography. Longmans, Green & Co.
Clark, J. W., and Hughes, T. McK. Life and Letters of the Rev. Adam Sedgwick. 2 vols. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Conway, W. M. Climbers' Guide to the Central Pennine Alps. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Cusack, M. F. C. Life Inside the Church of Rome. G. W. Dillingham.
Daphis and Chloe. London: David Nutt.
Darmesteter, J. La Légende Divine. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre.
De Tunzelmann, G. W. Electricity in Modern Life. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Diehl, C. Excursions Archéologiques en Grèce. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Die Politik des Unbewussten. Leipzig: Renger.
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Fletcher, C. Me and Chummy. Washington: Sterling Publishing Co.
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Gow, G. C. A Rose Cycle. Boston: The Boston Music Co.
Gray, J. Electrical Influence Machines. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Greene, Rev. T. The Greenville Baptist Church in Leicester, Mass.: Worcester: C. F. Lawrence & Co.
Hackel, E. The True Grasses. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Hale, H. Chinook Jargon. Scribner & Welford. $1.20.
Hardy, E. G. Plutarch's Lives of Galba and Otho. Macmillan & Co. $1.40.
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Phillipps-Wolley, C. Snap. Longmans, Green & Co.
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Saxby, J. M. E. West-Nor'-West. London: James Nisbet & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 24, 1890.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE'S letter to Mr. Frye on the McKinley Bill continues to be the chief subject of agitation in tariff circles—except in the *Tribune* office, where it is not yet known whether it is a good letter or a bad one. Senator Aldrich has been interviewed by the Philadelphia *Press*, and he says frankly that if what Mr. Blaine says is true, then the whole theory of protection is false. That theory maintains that, in proportion as you exclude foreign goods, you make a market for farm products at home. Mr. Blaine says that the McKinley Bill will not make a new market for one bushel of wheat or one barrel of pork. Mr. Aldrich contends that

> "Under the bill, should it become law, this country would be able to manufacture its own woollen and worsted goods, of which $52,564,942 worth were imported last year. This would give employment to many thousands more workingmen in this country, all of whom would be consumers of farm products. The $21,000,000 worth of tin plate now imported would, under the bill, be manufactured in this country, giving steady employment to at least 24,000 men, all of whom would be consumers of farm products. Then the large importations of Canada barley and other farm products would be stopped. All of this would make so much more of a market for the products of American farms."

We are now in the second century of our endeavor to carry this beautiful theory into practice, and are no nearer to its realization than we were in the beginning; in fact, farther away than we were at the start, because the progress of invention substituting machinery for hand labor is always in the progressive and cumulative stage. Perhaps Mr. Blaine sees that the task of providing mouths on our own soil for all of our farm products is somewhat Sisyphean, although he has not exactly said so. What he said was that the whole McKinley Bill will not make a new market for one bushel of wheat or one barrel of pork.

Mr. Frye's answer to Mr. Blaine's exposition of the shortcomings of the McKinley Bill opens oddly enough with the phrase: "Your letter leaves me in some doubt as to the facts." This proposition is true, we think, of nearly every letter Mr. Blaine writes or has written. Indeed, it is a peculiarity of his letters to leave people in doubt as to the facts, but none of his Maine friends has ever called attention to it before as Mr. Frye has done. He then goes on to catechise Mr. Blaine, with some appearance of acidity, as to his knowledge of what the effect of the "Hale Amendment," which Mr. Blaine himself is said to have drawn, would be. This amendment authorizes the President to open our ports, by proclamation, to the products of all American nations who on their part will admit to their ports free of duty a long list of American products. What Mr. Frye wants to know is whether Mr. Blaine knows how the nations of the "American Hemisphere" would receive this, and, in particular, how it would affect sugar. But little sugar, he says, would come from any American States but Cuba and Porto Rico. But Spain controls the imports of these islands, and how much of our list would she let them receive? The probabilities are that this is intended to draw farther particulars from Mr. Blaine, and that they will be forthcoming shortly, for he is evidently in a communicative mood. But upon the main points, the advantages of foreign trade with anybody, he has not been sufficiently explicit. Is it advantageous to exchange commodities, even with American republics, or with Latins more than Teutons? Mr. Blaine seems fully committed to reciprocity, but he has not as yet set forth the principle of the thing with sufficient clearness. How, for instance, would reciprocity be secured? The natural tendency of the Latins will be, after selling us their goods, instead of ordering some of ours, to take their pay in gold and sneak off and spend it in London. How is this to be checked? Will it do to let foreigners sell cargoes here without some assurance that they will carry away our goods in exchange? Confidence is a good thing, but we would not trust these men too far.

Those Republican newspapers which are trying to agree with Mr. Blaine in his views about the sugar duties, and also with Mr. Blaine's opponents, say that the Secretary of State is right in theory, but that he made a mistake in waiting so long before announcing the theory. If he had communicated his views in good time, before the House had committed itself, it would have been possible to frame the bill according to the Secretary's enlightened views, etc. That this is a subterfuge on the part of the puzzled editors a few facts will make clear. The House doubled the duties on flax and linen. The Senate did not find itself at all embarrassed by that circumstance: the Committee on Finance struck out the increased duties on these articles without the slightest compunction. The House admitted the yellow sugars of the West Indies free of duty. The Senate Committee put a duty of 3-10 cent per pound on them for the benefit of the poor refiners. The House put a duty on sulphuric acid. The Senate Committee restored it to the free list. Many other equally impressive instances might be found showing that it is never too late to amend. But perhaps the most impressive of all is the present tariff itself—the tariff of 1883, now in force. The House, after a long controversy over the Tariff Commission's bill, had decided that it was not desirable to pass any tariff bill at all. It did, however, make some amendments to the Internal Revenue Law. These were sent to the Senate. The latter body proceeded to enact a new tariff from beginning to end, and to attach it as an amendment to the Internal-Revenue Bill of the House. That was not all. A conference committee took up the subject and changed some of the duties that both Senate and House had agreed upon. These facts show that there is no lack of time to adopt Mr. Blaine's suggestions, which are in themselves extremely simple, if there is any disposition to do so. And there does seem to be a disposition in some influential quarters to adopt them. Senator Hale of Maine has been interviewed on the subject, and he declares himself in favor of it. One of the North Dakota Senators is also in favor of it. When the debate is opened on the revenue and expenditures of the next fiscal year (the year 1892), there will be found sufficient arguments for retaining the sugar duties, even without the reasons furnished by Mr. Blaine.

The cartoon in last week's *Judge* entitled "Jealous Jim," and representing Mr. Blaine as peering over a wall at Mr. McKinley, who is conducting an apparently successful flirtation with Miss Republican Party, is naturally attracting a great deal of attention. The close relations which *Judge* bears to the President's family are of themselves sufficient to make this treatment of Mr. Blaine noteworthy. The President's son is an avowed partner in business with Mr. Arkell, who is the proprietor of *Judge*. In August last, when a statement was made that the President's son was part proprietor in *Judge*, Mr. Arkell published a card denying that such was the case, but a few weeks later he impaired the value of this denial by sending out the following invitation to the press:

> DEAR SIR: Mr. Russell B. Harrison is returning from Europe on the *City of Paris*, due here on Wednesday next, and a number of *his co-laborers on Judge* and *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper* intend going down to Quarantine on the steamboat *Laura M. Starin* to meet him. . . . We shall be very glad to have you, or, if it is impossible for you to go personally, a representative of your paper, accompany us on the trip. Very truly yours,
> W. J. ARKELL.

The *Judge's* ridicule of Mr. Blaine, as the victim of jealousy, therefore puts the President's son in the position of poking fun publicly at his father's Secretary of State. There has been much speculation as to the real cause of Mr. Blaine's assaults upon the McKinley Tariff Bill. Some observers have thought that he was actuated simply by a desire to show that he is not, as his rivals have been saying he is, a political "back number." Others have said that he is really in earnest in thinking that the protection policy has been pushed far enough, and that the time has come for the party to begin to move towards tariff reform and free trade by the indirect road of American reciprocity; still others think that he is not aiming at McKinley and his bill at all, but is really trying to "knock out" Speaker Reed, whose preëminence and power in the party are believed to be most displeasing to him. The White House semi-official declaration that the real cause of the commotion is jealousy of Mr. McKinley will add interest to the specula-

tion, but will not be generally accepted as final.

The *Tribune's* Washington correspondent is very anxious to have it understood that the term "Force Bill" applied to the Election Bill now before Congress is a misnomer, and that the bill does not in the least resemble the real "Force Bill" of 1875, which authorized the President to suspend the habeas corpus and establish martial law in the Southern States in certain contingencies, of the occurrence of which he was to be the judge. It is true that the present bill is not as strong a dose as the Force Bill of 1875, but it nevertheless resembles it so closely in certain particulars as to make the common name appropriate. The first point of resemblance is, that the Republican majority in the House were just as confident of the necessity and expediency of the original Force Bill as they are now of the necessity and expediency of this one. They insisted upon it that the safety of the Government and the establishment of justice called for its passage, and they passed it, and denounced the people who opposed it in almost the same terms in which they denounce the people who oppose this. It failed in the Senate, and fifteen years of experience has convinced everybody of the folly, if not wickedness, of its supporters. Time has shown that it was not necessary and not expedient, and would have proved a piece of deplorable partisan folly. The second point of resemblance is that this bill, like the first, is of doubtful constitutionality—that is, the bar and judiciary would probably be divided as to the legality of some of its provisions, such as giving the Federal Supervisor the right to pass on the qualifications of voters. The third point is that it is proposed to use the army and navy, if necessary, to enforce it. The fourth point is that the present bill, like the first one, is supposed to be passed in the interest of the negro, but that no intelligent negro sees how it is going to improve his condition. Nearly all extraordinary legislation of this character has, or professes to have, some good object in view. If this plea had always sufficed to secure the passage of such measures, there would now be no such thing as free government in the world.

One of the melancholy features of the bill is the part that Mr. Lodge is made to play in its passage. He is doubtless very glad to have it bear his name, as he is in politics for party popularity and general notoriety, and doubtless the more he is abused on account of his connection with it, the better he is pleased. But no one, probably, sees more clearly than he the weight of the objections to it of all kinds, and it was probably for this very reason that the task of introducing it was assigned to him. When the managers get hold of a real docile and tractable "scholar in politics," they like to break him in with repulsive jobs. They like to exhibit him to the world as the servile instrument of their will, *perinde ac cadaver*, as the Jesuits say of their novices. When poor Laurence Oliphant joined the Harris Community, he was, simply because he hated horses, put to work as a teamster and made to groom and clean out the stable. In like manner, it was not by mere chance that Lodge was sent down into Rhode Island two years ago to stump the State for a defaulters' ticket. It was to discipline him and take the moral starch out of him. For the same reason they have set him to perorate over the need of this bill, and show the wondrous work of purification it will accomplish at the South. Whether it passes or not, he will be thoroughly broken in.

The Reed-Lodge managers of the Force Bill have followed up their attempt to bully Republican newspapers into supporting the scheme by inducing some professional colored politicians, mostly holding Federal offices in Washington, to issue an appeal to the Senate for its passage. The reason urged is, of course, the necessity of such a measure to secure free and fair elections in the South. As the Chairman of the Association puts it: "The great question involved in the passage of the Lodge Bill is not the advantage which the Republican party will reap by regaining its lost Congressional districts in the South, but the permanent and effective reëstablishment of negro suffrage, which, since the overthrow of the reconstructed Republican State governments, has been practically nullified and suppressed." But how can the Lodge Bill "reëstablish negro suffrage" and restore the State governments in the South to the Republican party? Take the next election which occurs in that part of the country—the one in Alabama on the first Monday of August, for the choice of a Governor, Legislature, and county officials. If the Lodge Bill were enacted to-morrow, it would have and could have no influence whatever upon the State election in Alabama, and the State election is the only one which is of any importance to the negroes. What possible advantage could it be to them if the Lodge Bill were to become a law and to be enforced in the November elections for Congressmen, so long as it has no bearing upon the choice of the men who make and enforce the State laws under which they live?

One argument which supporters of the Force Bill are using is based upon the action recently taken by Mahone's Republican State Committee in Virginia, refusing to contest several of the Congresssonal districts this year, on the ground that a fair election cannot be had under the State Election Law. Here, say the bloody-shirt organs in the North, is ample justification for the passage of a Federal Election law. But what does the leading Republican newspaper of the State, the *Valley Virginian*, say about it? Why, simply that "this is all sham and pretence," an attempt by Mahone to "convey the impression by this contemptible device that his disgraceful defeat last fall was attributable to that law," whereas "the fact is, it was the result of the contempt and disgust the people of Virginia feel for him." The *Valley Virginian* points out that the Republicans carried the State in 1886, electing six out of ten Congressmen, when Mahone kept out of the canvass; that they lost the Legislature in 1887 because he thrust himself to the front again; that it was his treachery alone which deprived the Republicans of the electoral vote of Virginia in 1888, and that the deserved defeat of the party in 1889 was due solely to his forcing himself to the front. In short, this deliverance of Mahone's Committee, according to this Republican editor, who understands the exact situation, is simply an attempt to "make it appear that he is a martyr of the State Election Law, and thus invite sympathy from Republicans elsewhere, when the fact is it is because the people have determined that Mahone shall never again rule this State."

Mr. Max Jaegerhuber writes to the *Dry Goods Economist*, as the result of a recent sojourn in Europe, that while the business communities of the Old World concede the right of the United States to adopt any kind of a tariff that suits them, yet that if the "wild absurdity" known as the McKinley Bill passes, they will "unite in the most rigid retaliation ever known in commercial war, and will reduce our exports to a degree we do not now dream of." This is very encouraging news for tariff-reformers. What they most desire to see incorporated in the laws of Congress is "protection" in its ideal state—that is, a prohibition of foreign trade. This kind of industrial paradise can be reached much sooner if foreign nations cooperate with us than if they remain passive. It seems quite certain that the Continental countries will do so to our satisfaction if the McKinley Bill passes. Mr. Jaegerhuber is a close observer and a competent authority, as well as an impartial one. What he says upon this subject can be depended upon. We commend his observations to Senators Aldrich, Sherman, and Morrill, and indeed to all who think that the road to general prosperity and a flourishing public treasury lies in the way of prohibiting foreign trade.

New terrors are added to the proposed increase of the duty on tin plates by facts set forth in a petition sent to the Senate a few days since by the Chemical Section of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia. This petition asks for a great many increased duties, and among others it calls for a duty on "red earth, or raddle, used for polishing lenses," the same being now on the free list. Several reasons are advanced why we should have a good stiff duty on raddle, which is one of the oxides of iron. One reason is thus stated in the petition:

> "If the tin-plate industry is to be added to the iron manufacture of this country, it will soon be found that the enormous amount of spent acid which it will have to dispose of cannot be run into the rivers and streams as is now being done."

In order that our streams may be saved from pollution with spent acid from tin-plate works, it is necessary, in the view of these

chemists, to put a duty on raddle sufficiently high to induce its conversion into that useful commodity. The petition is printed at length in the *Manufacturer* of July 16. It includes, of course, a request for a duty on quinine, the manufacture of which is said to be in a shaky condition.

"It is a fact that the proposition was made to one of our leading linen-importers," said Mr. Henesey of No. 81 Franklin Street, "that Senator Matthew S. Quay, if liberally retained, would prevent the proposed increase of duties on linen." This statement was published in the *Times* of Friday and in the *Herald* of Saturday, and has not yet been questioned. Mr. R. H. Ewart, a man of character, and the President of the Linen-Importers' Association, said that he was satisfied that the proposition had been made, but that he did not know whether the person making it could retain Mr. Quay's services or not. He did know, however, that W. W. Dudley of the Blocks-of-Five was "behind the effort to raise the tariff on linen," and he considered it strange that one of this noble pair should be on one side of the linen question and the other open to an engagement on the other side. This betrays much innocence on Mr. Ewart's part. We have no information respecting any engagements or retainers of either Quay or Dudley, but we see no reason why they should not be on opposite sides of the linen question in a business way, and yet be on the most amicable terms. "All is fish that comes to our net" is a venerable maxim, and one of frequent application. We should say, however, that in a friendly contest of this kind (if there were one), the chances would be much in favor of Quay, since he has a vote to give in deciding the question, while Dudley has none. Another thing very helpful to him, if he were retained, would be the fact that the Senate Committee on Finance has already decided against the increase of the duties on linen proposed in the McKinley Bill, notwithstanding the generous offer of Barbour & Co. not to raise the prices of such linen as they manufacture in this country, if the duties are increased. This public-spirited proposal has not met with the recognition due to it, either in the trade or in the field of politics. The only place where it is appreciated is in the columns of the *Dry-Goods Economist*, and possibly in the mind of W. W. Dudley.

Senator Sherman has reported from the Finance Committee a bill providing that national banks shall not be required to hold more than $1,000 of United States bonds as a mere condition of their charters, and that they may issue notes up to the par value of their bonds instead of 90 per cent. as at present. The existing law requires every bank to deposit with the Treasurer of the United States at least $30,000 of bonds, and a greater amount in proportion to their capital. This is a requirement which has nothing to do with their circulation. The theory is that the lending of money to the Government is a necessary legal condition of a national charter. Whether this be a correct theory or not, it is immaterial in a legal point of view whether the amount of money so lent is large or small. It is also immaterial in a financial point of view now, although at the time when the Banking Act was passed it was of importance. One thousand dollars will answer all requirements of every kind and description, and it is especially desired now that as many bonds be released as possible, in order that the Secretary of the Treasury may make his sinking-fund purchases at the lowest rate. The other part of Mr. Sherman's bill has been before Congress many times, and has always been "kinked" with some greenback or silver fanaticism, so that it has failed to pass. There is some danger that it may fail now for the same reason, but it ought certainly to receive the support of the Senators who have been lately bewailing the shortage of currency. The bill will insure the adding of 10 per cent. to the bank-note circulation upon the basis of bonds already deposited for that purpose, and may lead to the depositing of other bonds for the same purpose—that is, to an extension of the system.

The French have taken, or attempted to take, deep offence at the assumption by the British of the protectorate of Zanzibar under the Anglo-German Treaty, because in 1862 a joint declaration was signed by the French and English Governments reciprocally guaranteeing the independence of the Sultan. Moreover, the final act of the Berlin Conference in 1885 obliged every European nation which meant to establish a protectorate over any portion of the African coast, to give notice to all the other Powers. When M. Brisson brought the matter up in the French Chambers, the Minister of Foreign Affairs fenced off the question by declaring that he felt quite sure Great Britain would adhere to her agreement, and that no notice had been received of her inclination to do anything else. But notice has by this time been received, and though the French are very angry, no trouble is anticipated in England, for the simple reason that there exists between England and France a precisely similar agreement to respect the independence of Madagascar, and this has not prevented the French from establishing a protectorate, and indeed one might say, a sort of sovereignty, over half the island. What is likely is, that the Zanzibar protectorate undertaken by agreement with Germany alone will irritate the French into increased captiousness about Newfoundland and other outstanding causes of dispute, especially Egypt. M. Ribot's speech about Egypt has in fact verged on the provocative, and has probably furnished Lord Salisbury with his best defence of the Anglo-German Treaty, as it has shown the need of an ally in case France completely lost patience.

The Committee of the House of Commons has favorably reported the bill to fix more definitely the liability of directors for false or misleading statements in prospectuses. English papers seem to think that the bill will go through Parliament and become a law without material modification. It provides that where a prospectus or notice invites persons to subscribe for shares in or debentures or debenture stock of a company, every person who is a director of the company at the time of the issue of the prospectus or notice, and every person who is named in the prospectus or notice as a director of the company or as having agreed to become a director of the company, either immediately or after an interval of time, and every person who has authorized or is responsible for the issue of the prospectus or notice, shall be liable to pay compensation to all persons who shall subscribe for any shares, debentures, or debenture stock on the faith of such prospectus or notice, for the loss or damage they may have sustained by reason of any untrue or misleading statement in the prospectus or notice, or in any report or memorandum incorporated therewith or referred to therein, unless he proves affirmatively his non-liability according to certain rules laid down in the bill. It will be observed that the bill makes the directors liable only for losses incurred through *misleading statements*. This is conservative, and ought to quiet the fears of those who think that good and responsible men will now decline to take the management of incorporated companies. Losses due to lack of judgment in management are not referred to.

Gen. von Moltke has put on record his testimony against alcohol, which he says he never uses and thinks unnecessary; and he sets down as "one of the greatest enemies of Germany the misuse of alcohol." But he stands manfully by beer, and wishes that "tea, coffee, and light beer could be made cheaper than they are." For light wine he has apparently nothing to say. The greatest objection to beer, if it be not the only one, as a popular drink, is, that people keep at it all the time. The quantities that a real votary consumes in the day, and especially in a hot day, are enormous, and the reason is, perhaps, that it really does little or nothing towards quenching thirst. On the contrary, there is much reason for believing that it steadily excites thirst, or, in other words, provides for its own increased consumption. It bids fair, however, to conquer the world. The product in America is enormous, and it makes steady strides in supplanting light wine in France. But nearly all the arguments in its favor are based on the assumption that it is consumed in moderation, whereas, as a matter of fact, it is consumed immoderately, and when so consumed is an undoubted deadener of some of the faculties, although it may not produce what is called intoxication. The force of Gen. von Moltke's testimony in its favor, too, is somewhat weakened by the question whether even his greatness in the popular German eye would bear the strain of an attack on beer.

OPTIMISTS AND PESSIMISTS.

Bishop Potter's Phi Beta Kappa address at Harvard, in which he pointed out, with a very courageous touch, some of the social and political dangers of the time, has brought down on him what a certain class of politicians consider the most serious reproach that can be addressed to a critic of public affairs or of public men—the reproach, namely, of being a "pessimist." And it is not surprising that politicians should consider this a serious reproach, because there is nothing from which they themselves shrink so fearfully. No man who wants to make his way in public life ever allows for a moment that anything can fail to "come out right in the end," in this very best of republics, unless, indeed, the opposite party should stay in power too long, or should happen, by any untoward chance, to succeed his party in power. In either of these cases no view of the future of the Republic is too dark for him to take. He positively revels in the prospect of coming woes. Those who can recall the pictures of what was to happen in case Cleveland were elected, which used to appear in the New York *Tribune* and other Republican organs during the campaign of 1884, will admit that no drearier future was ever held up before a trembling community than that with which the American people was threatened during those eventful months. At that time it was held in Republican circles to be the duty of a true man to be as pessimistic as he knew how to be, and not to keep his gloom to himself either, but to fill every market-place with his groans and lamentations. We remember one despondent Republican assuring us that in case, by some shameless trick on the part of his supporters, or by some extraordinary intellectual collapse on the part of the American people, Cleveland succeeded in making his way into the Presidential chair, we should, in one-half year after his inauguration, witness the unchecked highway robbery of the rich by the starving poor in the streets of this city; while another declared that, in the same event, his own accumulations of a lifetime of honest industry—which were considerable—would be offered to his friends at fifty cents on the dollar.

But, of course, campaign pessimism does not count. As a general rule every successful member of the party in power is an optimist of the first water, and the more he is exposed to any kind of obloquy or suspicion, the firmer is his faith in the national destiny. It would not do to say that every optimist is a corruptionist, for it would be far from true—many men being optimists from temperament—but it would be strictly correct to say that every corruptionist is also an optimist. We doubt if there be in the Union to-day more hopeful and cheerful spectators of events than Matthew S. Quay and John Wanamaker, and we all remember that on the very eve of the collapse which withdrew John F. Plummer from national politics, he publicly expressed the most buoyant confidence and pride in the future of his country. If any one doubts our judgment on this point, let him go about among the Boys of the Republican party and ask them, either individually or collectively, whether they see anything in the present posture of public affairs, barring the attitude of the Democrats on the McKinley Bill, to cause any one except a crank or a person whose applications for "recognition" have failed, to feel in the least uncomfortable over the condition or prospects of the American people. We know well what the answer would be.

What is most curious about the optimism of politicians, however, is, that it bears very little resemblance to the optimism of private and business life. In all other spheres of human activity, while the cultivation of the habit of cheerfulness and hopefulness is greatly commended, nothing brings a man into more disrepute than an optimism which pays no attention to facts and bears no relation to them. In business a man who kept saying that "all would come out right in the end," and that precautions and safeguards against failure or mischance were therefore unnecessary, would soon cease to be trusted, and would end by being generally laughed at. Out of politics, people's expectations about the future are expected to be based on reason and experience. A man, in order to be respected or confided in, must take note of the fact that there are bad people in the world; that health and character are exposed to many risks; that the heart has many deceits in it; that money does not come when it is looked for; that all trade is not profitable; that railroads sometimes pass their dividends and default on their bonds; that banks occasionally burst up; that sons sometimes go to the bad; that daughters often marry the wrong men; that sermons and briefs have to be carefully prepared in order to be effective; that sick people have to be closely watched; that surgical operations sometimes fail; that, in short, the race is not always to the swift, nor the battle to the strong—and must govern himself accordingly. A man who does not do so, and who trusts to luck in the management of his affairs, is said to dwell in "a fool's paradise." When Bishop Potter gets up in the pulpit and reminds us of these things, people say: "What an excellent discourse; how full of wisdom!" But when he gets up in the rostrum and applies to political phenomena the lessons of ages of human experience, all the fools in the country pop out of their paradise and say that his view cannot be sound or useful, because it is so "awfully unpleasant and gloomy, don't you know."

Human nature and the course of human events are very much the same in politics as elsewhere. When that egregious blatherskite, Senator Ingalls of Kansas, in his famous excision of the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule from his system of political morality, likened politics to war, he forgot that in war it is only ceaseless vigilance and remorseless pessimism which keep an army ready either to march or fight. Nothing can be left to chance. The whole day and often the whole night have to be passed in providing against possible crimes, offences, and shortcomings, in dragging abuses to light and eradicating them. It is hardly an exaggeration to say, indeed, that all the advances the race has made in civilization have been due to the labors and sacrifices of thoughtful, reasonable, and public-spirited pessimists. The optimists in every age have as a whole filled the jails and the almshouses, or lived on the bounty of their gloomier friends and relatives. A cheerful temper and a hopeful spirit are great and valuable gifts; but they do the world little good when they are not backed up by a clear-sighted perception of the work which has to be done, and the vigilance which has to be exercised, to keep us all from relapsing into barbarism.

THE NATIONAL BALANCE-SHEET.

It is, of course, too early to say with anything like positiveness that the Secretary of the Treasury will or will not be able to make ends meet during the present fiscal year. The question is one of momentous importance in a political point of view, for if the people should find the Secretary borrowing money to pay current expenses after all the clamor that has been raised about the surplus during recent years, they would visit with condign punishment the party responsible for such a disagreeable surprise; and they would do this quite regardless of any views that might be entertained about the tariff or the Force Bill, or any other matter of public concern. Therefore we must expect that the party in power will maintain stoutly that the income will be greater than the outgo, while the opposition will maintain the contrary if there is any ground for doing so.

Attention has been strongly drawn to the subject by a Senate resolution, adopted on the motion of Senator Edmunds, asking the Committee on Appropriations to state the aggregate amount of the appropriations made or now pending in Congress. Senator Allison replied that they amounted to about $359,000,000. Senator Gorman thereupon remarked: "But the Senator does not include in that estimate, as a matter of course, the permanent appropriations, amounting to about $100,000,000?" To which Mr. Allison responded: "Of course I do not include in that the permanent appropriations." The permanent appropriations, as shown in the estimates of the Secretary of the Treasury, amount to $52,000,000. The sinking fund ($49,000,000) accounts for the balance of the $100,000,000 referred to by Mr. Gorman, this being also in the list of permanent appropriations in the Revised Statutes, although kept in a separate account at the Department. We have, then, a total of $459,000,000 of ordinary disbursements laid out, not including anything for the purchase of silver bullion, or for pensions under the new law, or for bounties or subsidies of any kind. Where is the income to meet these bills?

The Secretary of the Treasury has estimated his receipts at $385,000,000, to which should be added the postal revenue, which for the year 1889 was $56,000,000, and which will probably be $60,000,000 during the pre-

sent year. It has been estimated at $65,000,000, but it can hardly be as much as that without entailing a large increase in the expenses also. The Post-office appropriation always gives an indefinite sum to cover any deficit that may arise. Apparently, then, the receipts will be $445,000,000 and the expenses $459,000,000—a deficiency of $14,000,000. But it was stated by Mr. Dockery in the House the other day that the appropriations for regular pensions (*i. e.*, exclusive of the new bills) were $8,000,000 short of the amount actually called for last year, and this was admitted by Mr. Cannon, who said that Congress would be in session again before the 4th of March next, and could deal with any deficiencies that might be discovered meanwhile.

So the probable deficit of $14,000,000 rises to $22,000,000 without more ado. There is also pending, and not included in Mr. Allison's estimate, a bill appropriating $636,000 for new clerks to examine pension claims under the new bill. It is expected that the adjusted pension claims under the new bills will begin to reach the Treasury within ninety days after this additional force gets in working order. How much money will be actually required to meet these claims within the present fiscal year is a matter of conjecture. It is within safe bounds to say that the new pensions will absorb as much as will be left over from the appropriations for rivers and harbors, fortifications and new battle-ships, not more than one-half of which can be expended within the year. We have seen no account as yet of the sums required by the raft of private pension bills that have passed during the present session. These claims do not wait for adjudication, Congress having adjudicated them outright. Probably the $8,000,000 of deficiency conceded by Mr. Cannon, as noted above, will be swollen to $10,000,000 or $12,000,000.

If there is a probable deficiency of $22,000,000 on the basis of present taxes, what resources can the Secretary rely upon to meet it? He has $55,000,000 of the national bank-note redemption fund. Probably $15,000,000 of this will be required during the year to meet redemptions over and above the amount that may be deposited by other retiring banks. The $40,000,000 remaining may be needed for bullion purchases under the new Silver Bill, for although these purchases are met in the first instance by an issue of Treasury notes, the notes are only due-bills, which the Treasury must take care of all the time and keep on a par with gold under the terms of the second section of the act. It is hardly possible, therefore, to look at this fund as available for general purposes, although the authority to use it is ample. Another resource is the $55,000,000 of net cash on hand as reported on the 30th of June. Of this sum $31,000,000 was deposited in national banks. The remaining $24,000,000 is the Secretary's "working balance," which cannot with safety be much reduced. The $31,000,000, however, is a plum which can be eaten at any time, but can be eaten only once. It will choke the deficit of the coming year and leave something over, *unless* there is a material reduction of the revenues. Such reduction may come either by repealing Custom-house taxes or by making them so high as to check importations. Both of these ends are sought in the McKinley Bill according to the declaration of McKinley himself. Now that this subject is before the Senate, we shall probably learn what relations the McKinley Bill bears to a possible deficit.

There has been some talk of suspending the payments to the sinking fund, and some commentators have referred to this matter as though the Secretary had a discretion either to make those payments or not to make them. This is an error. Only Congress can suspend those payments. The Secretary can determine at what times within the year they may be made, but he cannot fail, under existing laws, to make them at some time within the year.

THE FORCE BILL IN OHIO AND MICHIGAN.

THE Force Bill is commonly discussed as a purely Southern measure, which will have no application to the North. In point of fact, if the bill becomes a law, it may be taken for granted that its enforcement will be called for in every Congressional district of the North. It requires the signatures of only one hundred persons in a district to a petition asking that it be applied, and the machinery must be put in operation. It will probably be the policy of the Democratic party to insist upon the enforcement of the law throughout the North, with the idea that it will prove so unpopular as to injure the party responsible for its enactment. However this may be, there is not a Congressional district which has not enough Prohibitionists, Greenbackers, or labor-reformers, to call for Federal supervision, so disgusted have they become with the results of elections under State authorities. In the States of Ohio and Michigan there is not a particle of doubt that the Prohibitionists will insist upon Federal supervision in every district, because they claim that in each State they have been cheated out of the adoption of prohibition amendments at elections under State laws.

Federal supervision has its origin in the United States Circuit Court. There are nine circuit judges, and it appears to be universally taken for granted that these nine judges are all good Republicans, and consequently will give the Republican party control of all the supervisors and other officials who are to be appointed. The truth, however, is that one of the nine judges is a Democrat; worse still, a Southern Democrat; worst of all, a Southern Democratic "rebel." To cap the climax, the circuit over which this "rebel" presides, includes the two "truly loyal" Northern States of Ohio and Michigan. On the 12th of April, 1886, President Cleveland appointed Howell E. Jackson as Circuit Judge of the United States for the Sixth Judicial Circuit, which covers the States of Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, and Michigan. Mr. Jackson is a native of Tennessee, and, when the Rebellion broke out, he supported the cause of the South, holding an office under the Confederate Government. A Democratic President thus appointed to interpret the Federal Constitution a man who had given his support to the movement for the overthrow of the Federal Government.

What will happen in Ohio and Michigan if the Force Bill is passed? In the first place, Prohibitionists in every Congressional district will, probably, call for its application. But how is that to be secured? Only by a resort to this "rebel" Judge, who lives in Tennessee. And what power will this Tennessee "rebel" have over the loyal Republicans of Ohio and Michigan? Briefly, the power to dictate the control of their Congressional elections by boards a majority of which shall be Democrats. To begin with, the Circuit Court will appoint a chief supervisor for each of the judicial districts in the circuit, of which there are two each in Ohio and Michigan. The chief supervisor will assign to each voting place three supervisors, "but two of whom shall be of the same political party," and two of whom will of course be Democrats, who are to have virtually absolute control of the registration of voters and the casting of the ballots. But the counting of the votes is a much more important matter than the registration of voters or the casting of the ballots. The counting will be under the absolute control of men appointed by the Circuit Court. The bill provides that the judge of this court shall appoint for each State within his circuit three persons to be known as the United States canvassers of the Congressional vote of the State, and when their count does not agree with that of the State canvassers, it is to overrule the latter, and the person whom they declare elected must be placed upon the roll of the House by the Clerk of that body, who is subject to both fine and imprisonment if he neglects to do this. Of course, a majority of these Federal boards of canvassers in Ohio and Michigan appointed by a Democratic judge will be Democrats.

This, then, is the way it will work. A Tennessee "rebel" will appoint Democrats as chief Federal supervisors for the judicial districts of Ohio and Michigan. These Democratic chief supervisors will appoint three supervisors, two of whom will be Democrats, to take charge of the election at every polling-place. Finally, the "rebel" judge will appoint boards of three canvassers, two of whom in each case will be Democrats, in each State, and the men to whom the Democratic majority of these boards award certificates will be entitled to seats in the next House of Representatives.

Take, for example, the Congressional district which includes the northern peninsula of Michigan. Hitherto the Congressional election in that district has been under the charge of local officials appointed under the authority of the State of Michigan, and controlled by the Republican party. If the Force Bill becomes a law, these officials may still be appointed and the Republican Governor of Michigan may stand ready to give a certificate to the Republican candidate

whom they return as elected, but local officials, Governor and all, will be powerless if the Democratic canvassing board appointed by that "rebel" Judge down in Tennessee says the Democratic nominee was elected.

So far as we have observed, attention has not been called to this peculiar feature of the way in which the Force Bill will work. But, of course, the Republicans of Ohio and Michigan will not object. For the sake of having Republican circuit judges appoint Republicans to control the Congressional elections throughout the South (except in Kentucky and Tennessee), they will gladly surrender the control of the elections in their own States to a Tennessee "rebel" who sustained Jefferson Davis during the civil war.

INDUSTRIAL STOCKS.

WE are reasonably certain of seeing in the United States a large increase in the number of companies incorporated to carry on such trading or manufacturing as has hitherto generally been conducted through partnerships. (We are not now speaking of Trusts.) There are many reasons for this. Two or three men as partners, by their ability and hard work, have, we will say, built up a prosperous business. The founders are growing old, or for good reasons wish others to be in training for future managers. Of the sons some show aptitude for the business, while some prefer a life of such leisure as they think the family wealth and their education entitle them to. How shall justice be done to all these in any arrangement for the future? Or if new blood must be brought in, how shall it be done? Aside from the advantage of non-liability for reverses beyond the amount invested, incorporated companies with capital divided into shares offer the easiest and most secure way of portioning a founder's interest in a business among his sons or successors, according to any plan he may select. Shares can be transferred in any number and at any price without disturbing the business, and without expensive and protracted litigation. There are many incorporated trading companies so formed for these reasons, whose shares are not for sale.

It is an inevitable step from such companies owned by the managers to those where a greater or less amount of the capital stock is offered to the public. These are certain to grow in number also, though they introduce new questions of finance. Founders of established industries easily see that, through a company whose shares are held partly by themselves and partly by the public, a much larger sum can be realized than could be obtained by any sale of plant and good-will to private parties. Another point in favor of the modern method is that stock in the new company can be allotted to junior heads of departments, and even to important customers, whereby a community of interest can be maintained which in any large undertaking is of the highest importance to the best results. The point of difficulty in the sale of a business to an incorporated company part of whose shares are for public subscription, is the value of the good-will. In England industrial companies have fallen into a slight temporary disfavor because of the enormous amount paid to the Allsopps for good-will, that business after the sale showing a large falling off; so that the question is now seriously debated abroad whether a firm's possible and future trade is worth more than a nominal sum.

Evidently, about such a question no hard-and-fast rule can be laid down. Procter & Gamble of Cincinnati, the latest large concern to become incorporated, have a proprietary article whose sales, already large, will for some time to come depend upon keeping up the reputation already established. They should be credited with this; yet it is also true that all the large soap-makers are now manufacturing the same kind of article, though, of course, not under the same brand. This company proposes to capitalize its business at $6,500,000, divided thus:

Appraised value of real estate....	$2,525,000
Quick assets (stores and personal property).....	1,250,000
	$3,775,000
Leaving for good-will.....	2,725,000
	$6,500,000

The old firm get $2,000,000 in bonds, $3,000,000 in stock, with $1,500,000 in cash, less expenses and commissions. Thus the good-will is valued as high as the real estate. Whether it is overestimated or not is a question each investor must decide for himself. By the agreement the old firm can sell all its securities except $1,000,000 of common stock, and further agrees that two of the present managers shall remain in charge at salaries aggregating $30,000 per year. This latter agreement, intended to be favorable, might be construed contrariwise, for $15,000 is far too small a salary for a man capable of building up and continuing so large a business, provided he sells his stock and so has only his salaried interest in the company's success. In the somewhat melancholy record of the world's attempts at the different forms of coöperation, one fact stands out clear—executive ability is of the highest order of talent; a man possessing it and employed by others must be correspondingly well paid, and is worth all he costs, for without such a manager no large company has ever yet succeeded permanently.

Granting that there is a place among investments which the industrial stocks may fairly and legitimately occupy, it must be said that time is yet required to determine their real value for capitalists. New business experiments appealing for public subscriptions must go through a period of financial measles before attaining maturity. It is perhaps a weakness of a railroad that its traffic is limited to such passengers and goods as seek its narrow right of way; for it cannot turn north or south at will, and as occasion may require, in search of trade, as can a manufacturer whose field is in all directions. Yet, on the other hand, when its traffic is once secured, it has a stability unknown as yet in commerce, where a novelty paying well today may be replaced by another novelty tomorrow. Then, too, our railroad system is old enough to have educated a class of professional managers in the different departments. It is always possible to secure a good superintendent of a railroad, though he may not own a dollar's worth of the property; but we might be embarrassed to find an equally good superintendent for some special form of manufacturing. Leaving out of view the Trust and similar highly speculative stocks, we can scarcely expect to find for an indefinite time to come even the better class of industrial stocks as great favorites with capitalists in the United States as are railroad securities; yet when we shall have had experience as a guide in estimating the values of plant and good-will, it seems safe to say that our business conditions eventually will make possible a reasonably safe investment in the corporate capital of those manufactories whose operations are best known and whose business is most easily followed.

THE ENEMIES OF DEMOCRACY IN GERMANY.

HANNOVER, July, 1890.

AFTER living almost a decade and a half in the United States, it has been my good fortune to revisit the Fatherland for a space of nearly three years. During my stay in America I was in due time naturalized, and became so attached to our institutions that democracy, if it means not only "I am as good as you are," but also "You are as good as I am," is now a kind of gospel with me, which I try to preach in season, and sometimes, I fear, also out of season. During my present sojourn in Germany, I have therefore been greatly interested in observing what progress this gospel is making here, and what are the obstacles in its way. The conclusion to which I have come is this—that the causes which keep a people with so strong a native superfluity of individualism and independence from advancing more rapidly on the road towards democracy are chiefly three: Militarism, officialism, and, thirdly, what may be conveniently called historicalism. There may seem to be nothing novel whatever about this conclusion. In some form or other most of us have probably reached it; whether consciously or not, makes but very little difference. Nor does it matter much what is the exact number of causes to which Germany's slow progress in democracy, or rather her present reaction towards the most conservative royalism, is traced. Pretty plain it is that militarism, officialism, and historicalism, or the *furor historicus*, are at least three of the causes of this reaction and are therefore worth considering as such.

As regards militarism, its final incompatibility with true democracy can always be predicted with certainty; and thus we have seen the democratic tide receding at the same rate at which Prussia, the most military of all German States, has been advancing and growing in power. The present condition of things is exactly that against which Miquel warned his countrymen years ago: the military, feudal spirit of the eastern provinces has conquered the more liberal modern spirit of the western. Prussia's mission was preëminently, if not exclusively, military; and what she has accomplished in this direction for Germany is beyond all calculation and worthy of everlasting gratitude. But with that, with the unification of the German States, her mission was practi-

cally ended. The trouble—or shall I call it the irony of fate?—lay in the fact that, after finishing her own peculiar task, she was called upon to undertake a mission of peace and civilization which was entirely foreign to her. And this she has been trying to fulfil in the same rigid military spirit in which she beat back the French, conquered Alsace and Lorraine, and compelled her German allies to unite under her hegemony. Surely, it looks like irony of fate, for grand and unequalled as the Prussians are in war, as civilizers they can hardly be said to have emerged from feudalism. And yet Prussia is the Power which has been intrusted with the government, that is, with the education in liberty and in self-rule, of this noble and gifted nation! Far be it from me to put all the blame on the Prussian Government itself; half of it probably belongs to the representatives of the people who were weak enough to allow their power to be wrested from them step by step and inch by inch. We have only witnessed over again the old spectacle with which we are also quite familiar in our republic. Somebody distinguishes himself in war, becomes colonel or general, and straightway is held to be capable of managing with equal success any or all of the affairs of peace, from the smallest village post-office up to the Presidency at the White House. So with Prussia.

But there are numerous signs that the Germans are tiring of this peace in arms, and are getting their eyes open to see the inevitable financial ruin which is awaiting them if the Prussian military policy be continued. Any one who has had the opportunity of living among the real people, of talking with them and drawing them out, cannot but have been struck by the spirit of disappointment and hopelessness that pervades them. Proud enough they are, and grateful, too, that the Fatherland is one, that the visions of their poets and of the nation itself have been realized so unexpectedly and so grandly. But they also remember that unity was not the only thing they had dreamed of. There was another watchword, dearer far than unity, and expressing the very essence of what lies most deeply imbedded in that old Teutonic nature, and that was liberty.

Some good things, it was thought at the close of the Franco-Prussian war, were sure to follow for the people themselves as distinguished from the various States—a larger share in the management of their own affairs, greater freedom from the paternal control of the government; in short, more real personal liberty. Now, let any one go and inquire among the people as to these hopes. Have they been realized? Has Germany become a freer country in the sense that greater freedom of movement across the ancient boundaries of class and caste prevails? Is the people's will more respected than formerly? Have their leading-strings been at all slackened? Has the privilege of initiating movements of their own been granted them? Is the press in general more independent? Or, to put the question negatively, is the press less given to fawning and cringing before the powers that be? I am sure that none but the average German journalist and the most inveterate optimist could answer these questions with anything like a decided yes. In all the discussions that I have had with Germans, as well as with Americans who know Germany, I have found that a no came far nearer to being the true answer. And why? What is it that has checked the march of liberalism and democracy which the Germans seemed willing to take up soon after the war? It is militarism, with its artificial and exaggerated distinctions of rank, with its haughty word of command from above, and its dumb, unreasoning obedience from below, and, worse than all this, militarism with its decivilizing and even brutalizing influences upon German life in general—influences which find their strongest expression in Prussian officialism.

If three years in the army do not succeed in weaning a young German from any democratic aspirations bequeathed to him, it may be, by a father who remembers '48, it is likely to be accomplished by his return to civil life, with all its official ordinances and regulations. And this, too, is a thoroughly Prussian trait. Officialism is simply militarism with a few brass buttons less, sometimes also without the awe-inspiring helmet and the clanking sword; but only too frequently it retains all the arbitrariness and brutality of the barracks. And how could it be otherwise? Is a régime like the Prussian, which does not distinguish between governing simply for the sake of governing and governing for the sake of educating a people into self-government—is such a régime more likely, or even able, to discriminate between managing the affairs of children and administering the affairs of grown people? Certainly not. The fact is that for such a régime no grown people exist, and, with the help of the God that makes the right of kings divine, never shall exist; for if they did, there would then be no longer any honor, any dignity, attached to being an official. Hence the constant interference with the doings of the people from above, the constant cry for such interference from below; hence the insolence of office on the one side and the exaggerated regard for official station on the other, down to the very *Heiratsgesuche* of lonely maidens, young and old, with their stereotyped *Offizier oder Beamter bevorzugt.*

The number of State officials in Germany is appalling even now, but it is sure to increase for a good while to come. Their exclusiveness, and their desire to be regarded as in some way or other superior to persons who are not paid by the State, has become a matter of serious concern with not a few, and sometimes borders upon the ridiculous, as when even city mayors, aping the officials of the State, petition for the right of wearing a uniform. Indeed, it is often hard to tell whether the officials exist for the people or the people for the officials.

Not that military discipline does not go far towards training a man into habits of order, decision, and obedience, habits which are very essential to the majority of officials, for it does; but at that point mere military discipline must also stop, and if no higher course of training can be added, if no further opportunity of developing the resources of intelligence and personal initiative can be granted, we get simply the machine official of the Prussian type, possessing neither so many good qualities nor so many bad ones as his long and peculiar training would warrant us to expect, but always those qualities which arise from a circumscribed field of activity, from a stunted growth of intelligence, and from the prospect of a far-off pension to be paid by the State—qualities which are sure *not* to make for democracy.

If militarism and officialism are calculated to repress democratic tendencies in the outward German life, historicalism lends itself to combating democracy with the weapons of reason and philosophy. And what I here mean by historicalism, or the *furor historicus*, is the form which the current mania for historical research takes when applied to social and political problems. Historicalism is the exaggerated, pedantic love of history for history's sake, or that perverted belief in historical development which often amounts to downright fatalism. Its minute, microscopic search in the dust of the past has blinded and incapacitated it for a broad and bold look into the future. An historian of this sort will not say that a thing or an institution may become this or that until he has gloated, as it were, over every single step by which it has developed into what it now is. Or, if perchance he ventures to predict its further development, he is apt to disregard the factors which the present age has introduced into the problem, and keeps on figuring with the old ones only, thus arriving at the conclusion that whatever has been will also continue to be, in spite of transient indications to the contrary. For him no William Tell, neither the ideal nor the real, has ever lived and inspired the Swiss, if he cannot get hold of the hero's bow and arrow. For him a poem in which Goethe sings of "yonder mountain" loses in poetic value if he cannot locate the mountain on the map. For him, too, the wail of the millions and their confused and desperate attempts at self-help are matter for historical comparison with former ages rather than signs of an approaching change or crisis. Hence the sublime complacency with which a Treitschke defends Prussian royalism, and the summary manner in which even so excellent a philosopher as Paulsen settles the question whether a monarchy or a republic is the better form of government. As well ask, says he, whether it is better to breathe through lungs or through gills!

One must have read some of the German campaign literature and the provincial newspapers before an election or on a prince's birthday in order fully to appreciate the kind of historical padding that is being used nowadays to preserve the ancient shapeliness of royalty. Besides that, one must have talked with schoolmasters, preachers, and others who have charge of the instruction of the young. Almost everywhere the same prescribed and circumscribed views of history, combined with the most preposterous worship of royalism, particularly as embodied in the Hohenzollerns. So thoroughly has this mechanical or fatalistic notion of historical development been inculcated, and so common has it become, that it is met with at every turn. Tell a German something about America, especially about the way in which people govern themselves, and even if you do not ask him, "Why don't you try to do the same?" he will anticipate you by saying, "But America has had a very different historical development. We cannot pattern after your republican institutions; you know we are monarchists and always have been." Any insinuation that they may not always continue to be is promptly met with the same kind of cut-and-dried arguments with which people who had read Butler's 'Analogy,' Paley, and other apologists used to meet the attacks of freethinkers.

It may not be superfluous to add that I have simply tried to point out what democracy has to hope for or to fear from these three powerful factors of the present German life: militarism, officialism, and historicalism. I have not for a moment intimated that the democracy of our Republic is in all points, or even in any one of them, perfect. Heaven knows we are at times making sad enough work of our self-government, and, like the trees in the fable, are in constant danger of having the bramble instead of the vine or the fig-tree rule over us. And yet I firmly believe that, in spite of all these shortcomings and apparent failures, the goal of the evolution of more adequate forms of civilized government lies in or

beyond democracy, and that, notwithstanding the present reaction, even Germany is sure to reach that goal. Prussian militarism and officialism will only have served as correctives of that excessive individualism and *Partikularismus* from which the Germans have suffered so much in the past. And historicalism, too, that enervating craving to know how the fates made history for us or through us in the past, will have had its day, and will give place to a worthier desire to know how men ought to make history for themselves in the present and for the future. Just now, to be sure, life in Germany seems cramped, dark, and hopeless in not a few of its aspects. Even the intellectual life, once so broad and cosmopolitan, seems to have been despoiled of some of its greatest charms by a narrow nationalism, but not, let us hope, permanently, for the real excellences of the German national character remain the same as of old, and a temporary reaction will not prevail against them. X.

REPRESENTATIVE INSTITUTIONS IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, June, 1890.

AMID the gratulations and plaudits which have attended the grant of the Japanese Constitution of 1889, we must not forget, if we would understand the conditions and historical influences amid which it is to be put in force, that its advent is but the final one of a series of events, the culmination of repeated efforts spread over the years from 1868 to 1881. To attempt to comprehend its significance in history, except in the light of the decree of 1875, the agitation of 1876-81, the decree of 1881, and the attendant circumstances, would be as great a mistake as to ignore, in considering our own Constitution of 1787, the Declaration of 1776, the ensuing struggle, and the peace of 1783. In the questions at issue there is, of course, no parallel, but in the order and relative importance of events there is not a little resemblance. As no connected account of previous efforts to establish representative institutions has, I believe, ever been published, I will venture to relate the story briefly.

The resignation of the Shogun, November 9, 1867, and the *coup d'état* in Kioto of January 3, 1868, left the Imperial party in possession of the power for which they had so long schemed and toiled. This party was led by a small band of men, composed of a few leading *kuge* (imperial nobles) and some influential *samurai*, representing three or four of the clans. The whole movement of the Restoration had practically been supported by the general body of the samurai, and the reconciliation of conflicting opinions and rival claims was a pressing question for the new leaders. It was just at this time that men began to look to the West for guidance, and to borrow attractive features of its civilization. The Western method of securing political harmony, a representative assembly, seems to have been in their minds and to have suggested the body which was speedily organized. By the famous imperial oath of April, 1868, it was promised that a parliament should be established, and all measures be decided by public opinion (though doubtless at that time the constituency to whom these privileges were to apply did not in their minds extend beyond the samurai themselves).

The plan of this assembly was under discussion for some time. The form at last fixed upon involved a representation of the samurai only, on the basis of the clan organization. Three samurai were to be sent by each large clan, two by each of medium size, and one by each small one. These delegates were appointed nominally by the daimio, but in fact by the leaders of the samurai of each clan, that is, practically by the public opinion of the clan. Their powers were meagre enough, and were deliberative only. They met first in Kioto in 1868 and discussed various subjects. The debate on the colonization of Yezo was published in the London *Times*. In April, 1869, the assembly met again, this time in Tokio. The name *Kogisho* (Office of Parliament) was given to the place of meeting, and *Gi In* (Parliament), afterwards changed to *Shiugi In* (House of Commons), to the body itself. They debated the question of permitting partnerships between foreigners and Japanese, and of forming a new constitution, but no decided conclusions were reached.

The future of this body would doubtless have seen the gradual concession of greater powers, but its end came soon, from causes within itself. The debates showed the leaders of the Government that the samurai of the time could not be looked to to assist by political action the progress that was absolutely necessary for the nation. On motions, for instance, to abolish *hara-kiri* and the carrying of swords, the figures of the unfavorable votes were respectively 200 to 9 and 213 to 0. In the same year the Shiugi-In adjourned sine die, and was never resummoned. The truth was, that it had not been created in answer to an explicit demand, either of the people at large or of the samurai, for political rights, but rather as a means of uniting the clans by deferring in semblance to public opinion while yielding nothing of the real control; and its existence could, in the nature of things, hardly have been more than temporary.

The principle of consulting outside opinion, however (so it was given out), was to be retained. The place of the Shiugi-In was taken by the Sa-In, a sort of Senate, created in 1871, whose members were nominated by the Prime Minister. But this was in no sense a representative institution. It was regarded as a home for all kinds of visionaries; its debates were never published, and it was quite without influence. Its successor of 1875, the *Genro-In* (usually called Senate), though heralded as marking an important advance, was for a long time of little more practical consequence, and only within a few years has it shown evidences of an influence on legislation. The next essay at genuine national representation had its beginning in 1873. It came about not so much through the desire of the Government to consult public opinion as through the very need of obtaining information and advice for administrative purposes from various parts of the country. Beginning with 1872, if not earlier, uprisings in different provinces, and other signs of discontent, had made it clear that the new order of things—involving as it did changes in methods of taxation, in political status, in various customs of immemorial validity—was not to be introduced without friction. In April, 1873, Inouye, then acting Minister of Finance, called a meeting of the provincial governors, to listen to their views upon the pressing administrative problems. They seem to have accomplished nothing definite, but this meeting of 1873 was the germ of an institution which, from 1875 onwards, occupied the place of a national assembly, and, nominally at least, did not end its existence until the present year.

This body was the *Chihokwan Kwaigi* (Parliament of Local Officials). Along with the distress and discontent of the time, there had been naturally some talk of a representative assembly as the balm of all evils. Late in 1873 the resignation of Itagaki, Soyejima, Goto, and others, on the question of war with Corea, gave them a chance to utilize the situation, and in January, 1874, they presented a memorial calling for a national assembly as the one means of governing smoothly. They did not, of course, escape the reproach (certainly unmerited by some of them) that their discovery of the crying need of the country occurred strangely soon after their departure from office. But their memorial was widely read, and gave a countenance to the agitation which powerfully assisted it. It is noticeable, however, that the memorialists were unable to take their stand on charges of oppression of any sort, but claimed simply that an assembly would educate the people, concentrate public opinion, and strengthen the Government. The *Kwaigi* was already in contemplation by the Ministry, and early in 1875 came its establishment. When the change of constitution was made by which the Genro-In took the place of the Sa-In, and the *Daishin-In* (Supreme Court) was created, the same decree contained the following provision: "We also call a council of the officials of our provinces, so that the feelings of the people may be made known and the public welfare attained. By these means we shall gradually confer upon the nation a constitutional form of government. The provincial officials are summoned as the representatives of the people in the various provinces, that they may express their opinion on behalf of the people."

The Kwaigi (sometimes called *Gi-In*) met in July, 1875, at the *Hongwanji* (a temple), and was hailed as a decisive token that the promise of 1868 was in process of fulfilment. It consisted, of course, of appointed officials only, but the Government treated it as the mouthpiece of the people, and undoubtedly regarded the method of selection of its members as only temporary. An imperial speech opened the session, and the able Kido (the "brain and pen" of the Restoration) was appointed *Gi-cho* (President). There were seventy delegates, who were either governors or their deputies. Rules of procedure had already been drawn up by the Government. The results of this first session were not at all promising. The Assembly had no initiative. It occupied most of its time in discussing a system of roads and bridges laid before it by the Government. The meetings were not opened to the public or to the press, and the publication of the debates by the Government did not mitigate the general dissatisfaction which this caused. The Assembly itself showed a conservatism which did not tend to commend it to the people. In a discussion on the proposition to establish a national representative assembly, the vote was to constitute it of *ku-cho* and *ko-cho* (county and town mayors, appointed by the Government). At the same time its influence was weakened by contrast with the action of some of the citizens of local prominence, who had been brought up to Tokio by the governors to assist with their advice. These met and drew up a memorial asking for an assembly founded on popular election.

These and other events combined to doom the Kwaigi from the beginning as a body which would not be accepted by the people in place of a popular assembly, even as a basis for further development. Indeed, the withdrawal of Itagaki (for he had reëntered the Government in 1874) for the second and last time in 1875 was upon the express issue whether the Kwaigi should be accepted, even temporarily, as a substitute. Itagaki thenceforward dedicated himself to the cause of popular representation, and the movement for it now began in earnest. The Kwaigi was not called

together in 1876, because of the Emperor's extended journey to the north, said the Government; because the Government was afraid to allow the popular discontent to receive utterance, said others. With Itagaki and Saigo in secession, the very existence of the Government—practically made up of the little band of able men who had achieved the Restoration—was threatened. All sorts of charges were rife of official misgovernment and corruption. In the midst of all came the Satsuma rebellion. Every one knows of Saigo's failure. But it was Itagaki who, having no different causes of complaint and standing in no different attitude towards the Government, avoided brave, blunt Saigo's blunder—the resort to arms—and, with Tosa shrewdness, struck a note to which the nation responded as they did not and could not to Saigo's. When the Government sent to Itagaki, in 1877, at the time that he was raising troops "for the protection of Tosa," as he said, and asked whether his intentions were hostile, he replied: "Not if you guarantee the establishment of a popular assembly."

His society, the *Risshi-sha*, which had been formed in the preceding year and had for its object the establishment of a national assembly, spread far and wide. Its memorial of June 14, 1877, making eight specific charges of misgovernment and praying for representative institutions, has, by some, been considered one of the most important political documents since the Restoration, and certainly puts the case as favorably as can be for the popular cause.* A society on a similar basis, the *Aikoku*- (Patriotic) *sha*, was started by Itagaki in Osaka in 1878. By the next year the *Aikoku-sha* had branches in fourteen provinces, and was said to have over 13,000 members. The agitation went on with the greatest activity. In one district the Risshi-sha gave lectures daily to audiences of hundreds. They set songs of the French Revolution to Japanese airs, and even the children sang them in the streets. An old saying was remembered that "Liberty shall spring forth from the forests of Tosa," and its prophetic meaning was now seen.

Amid this fervor of feeling, the second meeting of the Kwaigi, in April, 1878, received little attention from the people. On this occasion reporters were admitted, but a new cause of complaint was found in that the President (Ito, then Minister of Public Works) was again appointed by the Government, not chosen by the members. That most important measure, the Local Assembly Act of 1878, was passed in this session, but even this proof of the readiness of the Government to establish popular institutions as soon as needed did not satisfy the popular clamor. The Kwaigi we may here dismiss from our attention, noting that it met again in 1880, omitting both 1879 and 1881, and that in 1882 a decree provided for the holding of an annual session until the national Parliament should assemble.

The agitation now took (1880) the form of petitions and memorials. From all parts of the country these were showered upon the Government. They bore thousands of signatures, representing all classes. Even women, wives of influential men, employed agents to canvass for signatures. The hotels in Tokio increased from 414 in 1879 to 1,605 in 1880, owing, it is said, to the presence of so many persons bringing petitions for a national assembly. Some of the nobles began to advocate it. By the end of 1880 it was rumored that all but two or three of the Ministry were favorable. It is certain that throughout the year the subject had been under discussion in that body, and that there existed a division of opinion. A draft constitution, said to be circulating among the societies, was made public. Finally, on October 12, 1881, came the well-known decree establishing a parliament in 1890.

This result was apparently a foregone conclusion, for all the members of the then Ministry, excepting perhaps the Satsuma men, were only delaying matters until they felt sure that the country was ripe for popular institutions. But the circumstances immediately responsible for the decree were as follows: To Okuma, then Minister of Finance (and undoubtedly one of the four or five ablest of the Restoration statesmen, and in some ways the cleverest of them), the crisis seemed to present a tempting opportunity to gain popularity for himself and at the same time to restore to some extent the waning influence of the Hizen clan in the Government; for now that Eto and Soyejima were gone, Oki and Okuma alone represented Hizen, and its power had diminished. Accordingly, just before the Emperor's departure for the North in the fall of 1881, Okuma laid before him a proposition for the establishment of a national assembly within six months. To this, of course, his colleagues would never agree. On the very night of the Emperor's return (till then the subject had necessarily been postponed) a protracted session took place, and at two o'clock in the morning the decree was agreed on establishing the Parliament, but not for nine years to come. But Okuma had gained his point; and, accepting with satisfaction his expected defeat, immediately resigned office, threw himself upon the country, and was able to fulfil his hopes and to form a political party which is to-day one of the most powerful political influences in the nation, as well as his own most efficient ally.

The moving cause of the grant of the Constitution seems clearly to have been the agitation of 1876–'81. But just how far the clamor arose from a thoroughly national emotion, just how far it was factitious, just how far it was the work of professional agitators—on these questions it is difficult to reach a conclusion. It is the opinion of Mr. Fukuzawa (than whom there could certainly be no keener or more impartial observer) that "not only has parliamentary representation not been conceded in consequence of any general demand on the part of the people, but that it has been given voluntarily, so far as concerns the great mass of the nation." That is to say, "the temporary agitation on the subject" was "a display of enthusiasm confined to a very limited circle, being merely a piece of strategy, wrought by various sections of the then unemployed *shizoku* (samurai)." To corroborate such a weighty opinion we have the undoubted fact that the *heimin* (commoners) of Japan have always been politically passive and indifferent, not greatly moved by sentiments of self-respect and self-assertion, and that a recognized problem has been that of educating them up to their rights, private as well as public. Yet, even if we cannot reasonably suppose them to have originated a broad political movement, we can at any rate believe that under the lead of the shizoku they would understand the issue and join in the protest. Certainly, to judge by appearances, there must have been a participation of some sort on their part. The Government, too, must have believed to some extent in these appearances, for the promise of 1881 was undoubtedly drawn forth by the agitation.

Mr. Fukuzawa, however, explains their action on the theory that they were aware of the ferment existing among the younger educated men as well as the samurai of the Restoration, who had never been admitted to taste official power, and were willing to provide a "national palaver" as a harmless place in which their efforts could be expended. Perhaps we cannot, with our present sources of information, venture much beyond this. It should be conceded, on the one hand, that the people as a whole took a real part in the movement; on the other hand, it is probable that the true grievances for the redressing of which a national assembly might properly have been looked to, were those of the shizoku alone, and that the mass of the people, harassed by economic difficulties for which the Government itself was not responsible, had no real occasion to demand representative rights, except on grounds of abstract justice and political theory which were not appreciated by them, and *a fortiori* could not be urged in their favor.

The genesis of the Japanese Constitution, then, is not to be explained according to the categories of European experience. It was neither wrested by the nation nor withheld by the Government. The people grew up to it, not the Government down to it. Historically it does not signify a safeguard against oppression, but a means of bringing the methods of government into accord with the popular wish. It was not the surrender of inherited power by an autocrat or an aristocracy to a plebs; it was (in token, of course, rather than in fulfilment) the relinquishment to a people of power hitherto held in trust for them by a self-chosen body of their own number until they should arrive at political majority.

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

*There is a translation in U. S. Pub. Docs., Foreign Relations, 1877, No. 204.

Correspondence.

HARRIET SHELLEY AND CATHERINE NUGENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation*, Nos. 1249 and 1250, June 6 and 13, 1889, appeared copies of twenty-three letters from Harriet Shelley to Catherine Nugent, which I had transcribed some years before from the originals. I expressed the opinion, "It is probable the originals have been destroyed." Fortunately they were discovered. They are now in the possession of Prof. Dowden. In my transcription, in retranscription for the *Nation*, and in putting into type, it was inevitable that minor errors should creep in. Prof. Dowden permits me to make use of his collation of the *Nation* with the originals. I append such errata as are of any importance. Most would have been avoided if I had, as I should have, compared the copies visually, not orally.

Letter III. Line 23, for "mist" read "rain."

Letter IV. Line 2, for "North" read "South." Last line, for "Baneichs" Prof. Dowden suggests "Barracks."

Letter V. Line 25, for [*sic*] read "go." Line 32, for "astounding" read "astonishing."

Letter VI. Line 68, for [*sic*] read "been."

Letter VII. Line 55, for "write" read "wish."

Letter VIII. Line 36, for "Irishwoman" read "Irishman."

Letter IX. Line 67, for "enough" read "a little."

Letter X. Line 12, for "are" read "were." Line 29, for "once" read "twice."

Letter XI. Line 54, for "plantiff" read "plantive." Lines 68 and 70, "Tory" and "Tories" read "Wig" and "Wigs" [*sic*].

Letter XIII. Line 11, for "stopped" read "stepped in."

Letter XIV. Line 22, for "he" read "we."
Letter XVII. Line 5, after "next" insert "spring." Line 11, for "immeasurably" read "unusually."
Letter XVIII. Line 30, for "was" read "were."
Letter XX. Line 39, for "heavily" read "keenly."
Letter XXI. Line 15, for "secure" read "seduce."
Letter XXII. Line 25, for "am about" read "mean."

I regret that these notes should be necessary.

ALFRED WEBB.

DUBLIN, July 10, 1890.

TALLEYRAND AND GABRIEL PERREY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of July 17, in speaking of Talleyrand's Memoirs, we read: "One theory is, that they may have come [fragments of the Memoirs] from a collection in the possession of a rascally secretary of Talleyrand's who is long since dead"; and, further on: "Talleyrand's faithless secretary was a certain M. Perret, to whom for more than thirty years Talleyrand had given his entire confidence. He discharged him at last, and from that time on—that is, for the last fifteen years of his life—he was in constant dread of the mischief he might make."

The name of Talleyrand's private secretary was Gabriel de Perrey, a member of an old and most honorable noble family of Franche-Comté. Like almost all the members of his family, he never used the *de* as a prefix to his name. He was not discharged by Talleyrand, but he declined to accompany Talleyrand to London when Louis Philippe appointed Talleyrand Ambassador to England, on account of his age and infirmities.

His position of private secretary of such a man as Talleyrand brought him constant demands for information from many quarters; and he was tempted more than once, and by high political personages (French as well as foreigners, more especially English statesmen), with reference to several questions and historical events in which Talleyrand played an important part. Never were any notes or papers furnished by him to anybody. A more scrupulously honest secretary than M. Gabriel Perrey has seldom served a great diplomat, and until the death of Talleyrand he was constantly in friendly communication with him.

Perrey was a tall man, with a most intelligent face, a fine physique, a gentleman in every way. His only weakness—a family weakness—was a special taste for good old French wines; and sometimes, at a choice dinner party, he would indulge, perhaps, beyond reasonable bounds. Those who tried to get secrets out of him, knowing his weakness, made use of it, more than once, and got in that way a few indiscretions—*in vino veritas*—which very likely were worked up by others. But as soon as he was sober, Perrey denied all knowledge of the matter.

The last time I saw Gabriel Perrey was in 1839 at Salins, Franche-Comté, a few years before his death. The conversation turned on the famous Col. Oudet, the chief of the secret society the "Philadelphes," an old and intimate friend of Perrey and his family. Being then a young man, I was all ears, and I remember distinctly Perrey saying that Oudet was massacred, with almost all the officers of his regiment, on the evening of the battle of Wagram; that he had fallen into an ambuscade, prepared to annihilate all the chiefs of that secret society, which had many members in the army, more especially among the soldiers and officers of the Army of the Rhine commanded by Gen. Moreau. He added: "If Gen. Mallet had been successful in his conspiracy against Napoleon in 1812, Gen. Lecourbe, a Philadelphe, would have been the military dictator of a French Republic until the return of Moreau from New York."

Perrey knew the inside of many questions and many of the secrets of the Consulate, Empire, and Restoration; and his memoirs, if any exist (which is not likely, for he was a very reserved person), would be most interesting.

J. MARCOU.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

THE THREE-YEARS' UNIVERSITY COURSES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To those who have had anything to do with the management of Canadian universities, it seems not a little singular that there should be so much controversy over the proposal to allow Harvard students to take a degree in arts in three years. In the University of Toronto, the immemorial practice has been to let the student take either a three or a four-years course, as best suited himself. There are two regular matriculation examinations, the junior and the senior, and the latter corresponds exactly to the examination at the end of the first academic year. A considerable proportion of candidates for matriculation have always preferred the senior entrance test, their aim being to proceed as soon as possible with advanced university work, and to turn that work as quickly and effectually as possible into a means of professional advancement.

Whether a three-years university course may be made as effective as a four-years course for purposes of culture, depends very largely on the character of secondary education. In the Province of Ontario we have what may fairly claim to be one of the best systems of secondary schools in the world, and the best of these schools can do much more for a first-year university man in some ways than any university can do. Their school year lasts from the first of September to the first of July, and as the matriculation examination takes place after the latter date, the candidate may get in school a longer preparation. He may also get a more thorough one, for in universities there is apt to be less individuality in the treatment of students than there is in well-conducted schools.

I have used the term "university" in our own sense of it, namely, as connoting an institution which educates candidates for the degree of B.A. As we have no post-graduate universities, we are not troubled with the necessity of distinguishing between a teaching university and a degree-conferring college.

WM. HOUSTON.

TORONTO, July 15, 1890.

ONE-MAN POWER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Measuring everything by one standard, I find myself applying it to the case of Speaker Reed and the interesting article of X. M. C. in the *North American Review*, which has elicited such high praise from the papers. Of course, it pulverizes Mr. Reed as far as logic and constitutional law go, but what else does it even tend to accomplish? The Speaker holds his place, for the duration of this Congress, by the choice of the majority of the House, and though he may have committed what in another century would have been called high treason, no earthly power can touch him, except a similar majority which is firmly held by the Democrats. It may be said that his course tends to destroy the future supremacy of the Republican party. But is that so clear? The Republican party, as shown by its every act in the last year, has deliberately chosen force and fraud as the means of perpetuating its rule. Its leaders are, politically speaking, sagacious men; and as far as success goes, and with the way in which our Government is carried on, it is by no means certain that they have not made a wise choice.

The last *Contemporary Review* contains a striking article, by M. Gabriel Monod, on "French Affairs," in which he says: "The history of the last two years has made it abundantly plain that the masses of the people are not to be satisfied with purely anonymous government. The State must be symbolized for them under the form of some man whom they can love, admire, and applaud." That is just as true of the United States as of France.

It may be doubted whether the Republicans have not gained more by putting forward a strong personality like Mr. Reed, than they have lost by the irregular methods he has adopted. A few thousands may read with indignation X. M. C.'s article. Hundreds of thousands, not to say millions, wholly unable to appreciate the constitutional argument, will be delighted at the appearance of an individual who, by sheer force of will, can make business in Congress move along.

The position of the Speaker in general is an illustration of the necessity of some leader in such a body as the House. The committees, which are its working machinery, must be created, and if by election, the process would be much more cumbrous, and much less certain to produce a purely partisan result. Hence the power of appointment was given to the Speaker, making him, instead of an impartial presiding officer, at once the most powerful man in the Government and the blindest tool of party, with almost complete freedom from responsibility. Mr. Reed's course this winter is only one more step in the continuous development of as dangerous a one-man power as could easily be imagined.

If Congress must have leaders, who ought they to be? Why, the Cabinet officers, who alone represent, through the President, the whole nation, and who are intrusted with executive work which just as much includes the conduct of business in Congress as the administration of the Post-office or the Mint. If this was the condition of things, such action as Mr. Reed's this winter would be wholly impossible, first, because the Speaker would hold the splendid position of the corresponding officer in the British House of Commons, or, for that matter, of the moderator in a New England town meeting—that of an impartial mediator, knowing no party, and equally respected by both sides; and secondly, because, while the party majority now tends constantly more and more to uphold its elected Speaker in the most outrageous usurpations, including the gagging of the minority, both sides would be always ready to join in resisting encroachment by the Executive. In fact, their combined hostility from the very start would be almost irresistible, were it not that, as the conflict would be carried on in full view of the public, a cabinet of competent men would, so long as they were careful to keep right on their side, have a compensating advantage in the simple but powerful element of personality.

G. B.

BOSTON, July 19, 1890.

Notes.

THE Baker & Taylor Co. publish immediately 'Talks with Ralph Waldo Emerson,' by Charles J. Woodbury, with a hitherto unpublished portrait.

Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have in press 'Abraham Lincoln's Pen and Voice,' an indexed compilation by C. M. Van Buren; and 'The Antiquities of Tennessee and the Adjacent States,' by Gates P. Thruston.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'Expatriation,' a novel and a study of Anglomania.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will add to their series of German texts 'Selections from Heine's Poems,' edited by Prof. Horatio S. White of Cornell.

Mr. W. J. Loftie, the learned historian of London, and the author of an elaborate work on the parish of Kensington, is preparing 'London City: its People, Streets, Traffic, Buildings, History,' which will contain some two hundred and fifty illustrations from drawings by Mr. W. Luker, jr. It will be published by Field & Tuer.

A Centenary Lexical Concordance to the Poems of Shelley that will rival in bulk Schmidt's 'Shakspere Lexicon,' is to be published by Bernard Quaritch on Aug. 4, 1892.

From the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan) has now issued the third and last volume of the fourth edition of G. F. Chambers's 'Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy.' We have already characterized this the most extended treatise of a general nature in the English language. The third volume, "The Starry Heavens," runs somewhat thin in comparison with the foregoing, as if the author had tired of his labor. It is largely occupied with a great variety of catalogues of stars and other celestial objects, and there is an index to the entire work.

Mr. Edward A. Samuels's 'With Fly-rod and Camera' (*Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.) is an illustrated account of the experiences of the writer in angling for salmon, sea-trout, and winninish in various streams of Canada and Maine. The illustrations are, as the title indicates, photographic, and, besides the very grave though common defect of being in most instances unrelated to the adjacent text, are many of them so poorly taken as to make one think that Mr. Samuels either did not know what he should, or did not care what he did, put in his book. The text is interesting and well written, consisting almost entirely of personal reminiscences of various salmon and trout rivers. The so-called land-locked salmon, variously known as the Schoodic or Sebago salmon and winninish, is the subject of parts of several chapters, and much useful as well as pleasing information is given concerning him. We can recommend the book as good reading for any lover of angling.

'The Lazy Tour of Two Idle Apprentices,' written by Dickens and Wilkie Collins in collaboration, and published in *Household Words* as a holiday number, has not hitherto been reprinted. It is now published in a volume with 'No Thoroughfare' and 'The Perils of Certain English Prisoners,' both having the same double authorship, and both being now reprinted for the first time in full.

Psychical influences, long recognized in the causation and the cure of disease, are receiving a new impulse under the collective name of hypnotism, to which increasing attention has been paid in the last ten or fifteen years. The charlatanry of Mesmer brought disrepute upon his facts as well as upon his theory, and the phrase "animal magnetism" became equivalent to an expression of quackery. But the scientific investigation of Braid (1842), and the numerous surgical operations of Esdaile (*circa* 1850) under this induced anæsthesia, were preludes, although with long intervals, to the studies and practice of Liébault, Charcot, Bernheim, and Florel. At this time hypnotism is an assured fact, with marked powers for good over a wide range, and with dangerous possibilities for evil in morals as well as in health. Both foci of this ellipse are clearly explained in 'Hypnotism,' by Fredrik Björnström, M.D., translated from the second Swedish edition by Baron Nils Posse, M.G. (New York: The Humboldt Publishing Co.).

'Cradle and Nursery,' by Mrs. Herrick (Harpers) is a prose proverbial philosophy of infancy reprinted from *Harper's Bazar*. Because it strains no one's receptivity, it is probably popular, and as it is true it is commendable. Mrs. Dacre Craven's 'Guide to District Nurses' (Macmillan) is a little book full of concise and clear advice for the care of the sick poor of crowded cities, and particularly admirable in not requiring special appliances nor contemplating impossibilities. 'A Manual of Nursing,' by Laurence Humphry, M.B., etc. (Philadelphia: Blakiston), is bald and pedantic, and of no use for the object in view.

One after another the contributors to the Paris *Figaro* are collecting their weekly articles. M. Albert Wolff, M. Bergerat, M. Fouquier, M. Vitu, M. Blavet have put their journalism into books as though it were literature. Finally, M. Philippe Gille, who prepares what passes (in the *Figaro*) for literary criticism, has begun a series called 'La Bataille Littéraire' (Paris: Victor-Havard; New York: F. W. Christern), to contain the few lines of obvious comment by which he has been wont to piece together abundant extracts from the book of the week for the Saturday supplement of the *Figaro*.

'A Waif of the Plains,' 'A Yankee at the Court of King Arthur,' and 'The Heritage of Dedlow Marsh' are the latest American books reprinted in the Tauchnitz series. But that Baron Tauchnitz still chooses to appeal to the purely British audience, one might expect, besides Mr. Hamerton's papers on "French and English," to see added to the series the acute and interesting 'French Traits' of Mr. Brownell.

The editions by Dr. Ferdinand Tönnies, the well-known sociologist, of Hobbes's 'Behemoth' and 'Elements of Law' (London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.), deserve to be recommended as very helpful college text-books for instruction in history and political science—the former, a report by an eye-witness of the Civil War from 1640 to 1660; the latter, of which Diderot said, "C'est un livre à lire et à commenter toute sa vie," a most lucid exposition of the fundamental principles of Hobbes's philosophy. Both treatises appear here for the first time in such a manner as to satisfy the demands of modern text criticism.

The picture of Goethe's mother, although familiar to us from Bettina's sketches and from Goethe's own recollections in 'Dichtung und Wahrheit,' has only now received its final touch through the publication, by Bernhard Suphan, of her letters to her son, daughter-in-law, and grandson ('Schriften der Goethe-Gesellschaft,' vol. iv.). One does not need to be initiated into the mysteries of that strange science called "Goethephilologie," to take delight in this pure draught from the fountain of classic German literature; and it is to be hoped that a Sainte-Beuve or a Herman Grimm will be inspired by it to give us the long looked-for biography of a woman who, as she herself said, like Cæsar, would tolerate none but cheerful faces at her court, and to whom her son owed a gift which she described thus: "Meine Gabe, die mir Gott gegeben hat, ist eine lebendige Darstellung aller Dinge die in mein Wissen einschlagen, Grosses und Kleines, Wahrheit und Märchen: so wie ich in einen Zirkel komme, wird alles froh und heiter, weil ich erzähle."

There has recently appeared 'Les Inscriptions de Salmaneser II., Roi d'Assyrie, 860-824 B. C.,' by A. Amiaud and V. Scheil (Paris, H. Welter). The work consists of a transliteration and translation of all the texts of the king, together with the other Assyrian texts thus far known which have reference to his reign. Such a work has a considerable value for the historical student, both because of its completeness and from the fact that the various portions of the texts relating to the same period are placed together. Appended is a valuable philological commentary, showing at times much acuteness and originality, and an index of proper names. All Assyriologists will no doubt regret the absence of an index to the words of the text. The text of the Black Obelisk contains many new readings, and, both in this regard as well as in the translation, exhibits a marked advance over the recent work on the same subject of Drs. Winckler and Peiser. As this is probably the last work we shall see bearing the name of Arthur Amiaud, we cannot let the opportunity go by of expressing the profound regret of all Oriental scholars at his untimely death in Paris just one year ago. His loss left a void not only among French scholars, but in the entire school of scientific Assyrian workers, which it will take years to fill.

In the midsummer number of *Puck*, the editor, Mr. H. C. Bunner, begins a series of brief semi-humorous, semi-pathetic sketches called "Short Sixes: Stories to be told while the Candle Burns." They are to be illustrated by Mr. C. J. Taylor. Of late, Mr. Bunner's chief contributions to the weekly he edits have been his direct and incisive editorials on current politics, and his fiction has more generally been printed in one or other of the magazines. The first sketch, "Col. Brereton's Aunty," gives promise of an entertaining series.

The July Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains the annual address on the progress of geography by the President, Sir M. E. Grant Duff, and the report of Mr. Mackinder, Reader in Geography at Oxford, showing an increase of interest in this study at the University. Two courses of lectures were given on the Historical and the Physical Aspects of Geography, the former being much more largely attended than the latter. There is also a paper on the Solomon Islands, by Mr. C. M. Woodford, which is principally devoted to notes on their discovery by the Spanish expedition of Mendaña in 1567–'69. An excellent map accompanies the paper, showing the track of the Spanish vessels and the names which they gave to the islands and places visited.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July opens with Mr. Stanley's address to the Society. This is followed by a paper descriptive of a voyage inland from Canton made some years ago by Dr. W. G. Dickson. There is also an admirably clear political sketch-map of Equatorial Africa by the well-known cartographer Mr. J. G. Bartholomew, showing the new boundaries according to Lord Salisbury's despatch of June 14, 1890. It is hardly necessary to say that it entirely ignores the Portuguese claims to the "Hinterland," both that back of their possessions on the Mozambique

coast, as well as that rich country watered by the Kasai lying to the east of Angola.

The second and last volume of that original publication, 'Les Ports du Monde Entier' (Paris: Librairie Scientifique et Économique; New York: F. W. Christern), has been begun with *fascicules* 1 and 2, and starts off with America, leaving Asia, Africa, and Australia to follow later. Montreal is the first port to be described and illustrated, then Quebec, Halifax, St. John, Boston, New York, etc. There are some queer transformations of familiar names, as Bunkerhill-Obelisk, Common-Park (Boston Common), Brooklyn-Brücke (!), etc, and Franklin is wrested from his birthplace in Milk Street, Boston, and made to lend an "historic interest" to Governor's Island. The work attempts to combine statistics with literary form and readableness.

Mr. William S. Baker has undertaken a much-needed itinerary of Gen. Washington during the War of Independence, or from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783. The first instalment appears in the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History* for July. Apt citation of authority for each stage makes the reading of this diary very pleasant and instructive.

Part II. of the 'Handy Lists of Technical Literature,' compiled by E. K. Kaferkorn and Paul Heise (Milwaukee, Wis: National Publishing and Printing Co.) comes to us with the endorsement of Mr. Linderfelt, Librarian of the Milwaukee Public Library. It embraces military and naval science, navigation and ship-building in all forms, etc., and furnishes a supplementary list of non-technical books illustrating the life of soldier and sailor, and lists of pertinent periodicals. A Key to publishers accompanies the List.

A one-year's course in the History and Principles of Education will be given at Clark University from October, 1890, to June, 1891, by President Hall and Dr. Wm. H. Burnham, Docent in Education. The historical exposition will deal respectively with antiquity, the middle ages, and the present time, and will be followed up by philosophical conclusions and practical applications, with American needs in view.

The eleventh annual conference of the American Library Association will be held at the Fabyan House, White Mountains, from September 9 to 13. Library trustees are particularly invited to be present.

The fourth International Black and White Exposition will be held in the Pavillon de la Ville de Paris (Champs-Élysées) from October 1 to November 30. Pastels and water-colors will be included. President Carnot offers a *prix d'honneur*, and the Director, M. E. Bernard, a travelling purse of 500 francs. M. Bernard's address is 71 rue de La Condamine.

The Harvard College Observatory gives notice that it is empowered by Miss C. W. Bruce to distribute $6,000 during the present year in aid of astronomical research, in sums not exceeding $500 each, as a rule. Applications must be made to the Director, Prof. E. C. Pickering, before October 1, and he will also be glad of suggestions as to the best mode of meeting the donor's wishes.

—A more striking case of maladministration of public funds could hardly be found than that of which Mr. Edward Cummings tells the story in the July issue of the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. Mr. Cummings contributes a review of the history and promise of coöperative production in France and England, and caps the narrative for the former country by an account of the legacy which Benjamin Rampal left to the city of Paris in 1878 for the aid of coöperative societies. The legacy amounted in all to 1,500,000 francs, and a first instalment of 400,000 francs became available in 1883. This large sum was loaned to forty-nine societies. The results, as gathered from an official statement of December, 1889, are summarized thus:

"There are fifteen societies still to be heard from whose time of repayment has not yet expired, their joint loans amounting to 196,950 francs. Three are actually behindhand—14,250 francs; eighteen are either in process of liquidation, or have already dissolved and disappeared—132,250 francs; seven are bankrupt—89,900 francs; and six societies only, representing the modest sum of 13,950 francs, have met their obligations. . . . The sums lost or compromised are nearly half the total loan of 447,200 francs, a percentage of loss which is simply astonishing when it is remembered that 196,950 francs are not yet due, and that the losses really represent an enormous proportion of the 250,250 francs actually in question."

This discouraging outcome is not surprising when one reads of the attitude of the municipal officials towards the coöperators, and, indeed, towards all aspirants in the ranks of "labor." The coöperative societies are coddled and encouraged; they are preferred in public contracts, and at the same time freed from the guarantees usually required of public contractors; in the official report they are excused for failure because of "the redoubled energy of competing houses" and "the distrust of their customers." The report states that the loans were made to societies selected on the grounds of "their constitutions already tried, their interior organization, and the professional merit of their members"; but it is obvious that in fact they were made indiscriminately and almost eagerly to the first applicants for the spoils. Conditions of this sort are not likely to bring out the moral fibre indispensable for a successful coöperation, and the Rampal legacy so far has only added to the long list of coöperative failures.

—'Zur Gutturalfrage im Gotischen' (Boston, 1889) is a doctor's dissertation of ninety pages presented to the Faculty of the University of Zürich by Miss Helen L. Webster of Boston. The dissertation is a purely scientific contribution to the history of the labialization of the guttural, concerning which there is among philologists a diversity of opinion. Grassmann, in 1860, opened the discussion with the assumption that the process of labialization was already present in the original language, and that the absence of the labial affection in the different Indo-Germanic languages is to be explained by a subsequent disappearance. Miss Webster considers the question solely from the standpoint of Gothic. She shows that if the labial affection is absent in the other labialized languages, it is also absent in Gothic; and that it enters in Gothic not only not initially, but in no part of the word before consonants. Comprehensively stated, the result arrived at is, that Gothic "has retained unchanged almost without exception, as regards this question, the phonetic condition existent in preceding Germanic." To establish this point it has been necessary to determine the character of the guttural wherever it occurs in the whole Gothic vocabulary, and to distinguish whether the presence or absence of the labial affection is, or is not, dependent upon specific laws. The whole historical etymology of the words, so far as it is known, is, accordingly, given with the use of complete subsidia. The dissertation is a thoroughly scholarly and conclusive treatise upon the special point selected, and well merits for itself the *summa cum laude* with which the doctor's degree was bestowed upon its author. Since her return, Miss Webster has delivered a course of five lectures on the "Study of Philology" at Barnard College. More recently, she has been called to Wellesley College to fill in that institution the new chair of Comparative Philology.

—M. Kayserling, so well known for his researches into the history of the Spanish and Portuguese Jews, has laid this department of study under a new obligation by the production of a 'Biblioteca Española-Portuguesa-Judaica' (Strassburg: K. J. Trübner). This handsome volume consists of an introduction on the literature of the Spanish Jews, the bibliography (including a large number of MS. works), a list of Jewish-Spanish journals (among them we notice one in the City of Mexico founded last year), Spanish writings against the Jews, a collection of the proverbs of the Spanish Jews, and three carefully prepared indices. When Spain was conquered from the Saracens, the Jews of the country, and especially of Castile and Aragon, rapidly replaced the Arabic with the Spanish language. It is said that a Spanish translation of the book of Esther was made in the thirteenth century; by order of Alphonso X., three Jewish scholars translated some works on astrology from Arabic into the vernacular. From that time until their expulsion in 1492, the Jews of Spain produced works of permanent literary value and scientific interest. With the expulsion they settled in many places—Constantinople, Egypt, Italy, Rumania, Amsterdam, London—and for centuries continued to use, to some degree at least, the Spanish language. In northern Africa the Jews have preserved the Spanish of the fifteenth century; and they developed, probably before the expulsion, a dialect called Ladino, which has much interest for Romance philologists.

—M. Berthelot, the Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy of Sciences, has just published, through the house of M. Alcan, a new work, of which the title is 'La Révolution Chimique: Lavoisier.' It appears from M. Berthelot's preface, which is printed in the *Temps* of June 12, that the biographers of Lavoisier have been singularly tardy and belated in their work. No account of his life has ever, for instance, been read before the Institute. M. Dumas, who was for many years at the head of French chemistry, and who was a fervent admirer of Lavoisier, undertook early in life a biography of him, and the editorship of the official edition of his complete works. But beyond some few enthusiastic pages in his 'Leçons de Philosophie Chimique,' which besides are "more eloquent, perhaps, than exact," he did not, so far as writing the biography went, realize his intentions. It was not till 1888 that the documents relating to the life of Lavoisier were collected by M. Grimaud and published by Félix Alcan. M. Berthelot gives much praise to Grimaud's book, but says that it is essentially biographical, and so devotes but little space to the methodical exposition of Lavoisier's discoveries and to critical appreciation of their value. This lack he undertakes to supply in his own book. One feature of M. Berthelot's volume cannot fail to be of considerable interest. Lavoisier, left behind him thirteen volumes of laboratory notes, running in date from February 20, 1782, to October 23, 1788. They have never been published, but have been kept in the archives of the Academy. They contain records more or less complete of the manifold labors and researches of their author during those active years. Sometimes they are minute and precise, some-

times mere hints and jottings. Of course, no new discoveries of great value will be found in them, for Lavoisier published his discoveries in his lifetime; but they will show very clearly his methods of work, the attempts that failed as well as those that succeeded, the growth of his discoveries from their first faint conception in his mind till they came to full birth. These registers M. Berthelot has carefully gone through, and he gives a methodical analysis of them, transcribing also in full all the passages wherein Lavoisier records his personal feelings and thoughts and impressions. This part of his book will be, in fact, a history of Lavoisier's mind—the psychology of a savant.

—We have our share in the widespread regret caused by the death in Venice, on July 16, of Eugene Schuyler, Consul-General of the United States at Cairo. Mr. Schuyler began to write for the *Nation* with its ninth number, and our issue of last week contained a brief contribution from his pen, in the letter accompanying which he spoke of his impaired health, though by no means discouragingly. From 1865 to 1890 he was, amid all his changes of residence and with occasional silences, a member of the *Nation's* staff, the sum of his writing being very considerable. In 1888 and 1889 his activity redoubled, and our readers can hardly have forgotten the striking series of letters from Italy on Dickens in Genoa, Milton's Leonora, Mrs. Browning, Shelley and Byron, Smollett, Samuel Rogers, Hawthorne, George Sand, Mme. de Genlis, Mme. de Staël, Canova, Carducci and Dante—to mention no others. His diplomatic career is reflected in the articles and reviews furnished to the *Nation* during the quarter-century just elapsed. "The Progress of Russia in Asia" is the title of one printed in No. 42, not long before he was made Consul at Moscow, a post from which he soon advanced to be Secretary of Legation at St. Petersburg. There he improved his opportunities to delve among the imperial archives for a Life of Peter the Great; and, having presently a chance to travel in Central Asia where now the Czar holds undisputed sway, he produced two volumes on Turkistan, which are his most important work, and which at once made him an authority on that branch of the Eastern question most interesting to Englishmen. Subsequently he was transferred to Constantinople as Consul-General, and his reports on the Bulgarian massacres of 1876 aroused public sentiment in England, led by Gladstone, to such a pitch that Beaconsfield's Government was compelled to abstain from interfering on behalf of Turkey in the war of 1877–'78. To this period belongs an article in the *Nation* on the best works on the Eastern question, and another on Americans in Turkey. In 1878 he was transferred as Consul to Birmingham, and published in these columns an account of the nascent Birmingham caucus. His consul-generalship at Rome bore no fruit for the *Nation*, but that at Bucharest led him to write on the Rumanian language and fairy tales. His highest degree in the service was reached when he was appointed Minister Resident and Consul-General to Greece, Servia, and Rumania. No other nation but our own would have dispensed with so experienced and apt a diplomat, but Mr. Schuyler was discarded, and given leisure to write his third significant work, on 'American Diplomacy and the Furtherance of Commerce' (1876), which was made the pretext for the Senate's rejecting his nomination as Assistant Secretary to Mr. Blaine, under the present Administration, and its grudging him the appointment to Cairo in which, we think we may say, he sacrificed his health and his life.

—Mr. Schuyler chose for his European residence, while out of the service, Alassio on the Riviera, and it was clear that Italy suited him as well as any country in the world, reviving his literary interests and gratifying his tourist's instinct, so that he followed in turn "In the Footsteps of Dante," and of those other eminent personages whose names have been cited above. His versatility was remarkable, his love of language perhaps ranking first, and being accompanied by musical taste and study and a fondness for botany. He was educated at Yale and Columbia for the bar, and it was the accident of the visit of a Russian frigate to this port which determined his lot in life. He had a very genial and companionable temperament, and a great fund of anecdote, good-nature, and obligingness. He had perhaps hardly the qualities of an historian, but he was an excellent observer and a diligent explorer, and it is noticeable what sympathy he showed in his newest surroundings. His translation of 'Fathers and Sons' and of 'The Cossacks,' together with magazine articles on Turgeneff and Tolstoi, were among the earliest introductions of these great writers to the English-speaking public. In short, Mr. Schuyler's life had on the side both of letters and of world-politics a marked influence, and that, too, as a forerunner. Mr. Schuyler was born at Ithaca, N. Y., on February 26, 1840, a son of the late George W. Schuyler. He married, somewhat late in life, a daughter of the late Gov. John A. King, and sister of the wife of the French statesman, M. Waddington.

RECENT POETRY.

SEVENTY-FIVE years ago, Goethe was already anxious lest the multiplicity of poets should drive poetry out of the world:

> "Wisse dass mir sehr missfällt
> Wenn so viele singen und reden!
> Wer treibt die Dichtkunst aus der Welt?
> Die Poeten!"

The critic learns to his cost that the tuneful brethren are still at it, and, instead of growing smaller and choicer, as they reasonably should, the poetic tomes grow thicker and heavier. New lands and zones are ransacked, and a volume of more than six hundred pages comes to us, entitled 'Australian Poets, 1788–1818' (Cassell), and edited by Mr. Douglass B. W. Sladen, B.A., Oxon., B.A., LL.B., Melbourne, Australia. (Like the Vicar of Wakefield, we love to give the whole name.) Mr. Sladen says regretfully that, being editor, he "can give nothing about himself but a summary," and follows with nearly a page of autobiography in small type, this being duplicated by a page and a half of biography of him at the beginning, stating essentially the same facts from another hand. The book itself represents much labor, but not much discrimination; and its chief interest, beyond that of general human sympathy, lies in its giving us some added poems by Alfred Domett (Browning's "Waring"), whose one strong Christmas hymn, "It was the calm and silent night," stands strangely isolated among the pages of trash by men less gifted. Its dignity and music almost refute the theory that a poet should cultivate local coloring, since all Domett's other poems, as here collected, possess that attribute, and yet are all incomparably inferior to the "Hymn." Henry Kendall, on the other hand, is at his best in local coloring, and has some really noble descriptive passages, although we cannot but think him overrated by his editor. None of these poets seem to have made so much out of Australia, however, as some of the minor Irish poets—Callanan, for instance—have made out of Ireland; and Pringle wrote many years ago, in South Africa, a "Desert Ride" which far surpassed any similar description in this volume. The fairest comparison would be, perhaps, between this Australian collection and the volume just published by the Western Association of [American] Writers; and the result is unquestionably in favor of Australia.

There is an endless interest in the problem of the transplantation of fame, especially across the ocean. An American fame is easily transplanted to England by the mere fact of local residence; indeed, it is sometimes, as in "Joaquin" Miller's case, created in England by the mere fact of novelty, and afterwards very imperfectly transplanted to the poet's own land. Then there is the more striking case of Lowell, who was known in England only as the author of the "Biglow Papers," and classed habitually with Artemus Ward and Josh Billings, until the mere accident of his residence in London as American Minister made known the thinker and the scholar. But in this country the fact of personal residence makes little difference; we know Englishmen through their books, if at all, and who can tell by what law of selection? Of three men frequently named in English journals as possible candidates for the Poet Laureateship, Sir Edwin Arnold has more readers in America than in his own country, while Alfred Austin and Lewis Morris are almost completely unknown; hardly a volume of theirs has ever been reprinted, nor do their names appear in the newspaper corners. In the thick volume, 'The Works of Lewis Morris' (Longmans), one looks in vain for a solution of this mystery, nor indeed is it quite clear what is the origin of his popularity at home. Perhaps the best solution is in the fact of his prevailing commonplaceness. Like the late Dr. Holland in this country, he has the faculty of saying better than others the things which the average man thinks; and this, with a generous and hopeful spirit—for he is not, like Alfred Austin, a Tory of the Tories—gives him a hold upon the people. He goes among the dreadful sights of the London streets by night; and while he does not, like a more gifted poet of the same name, come out a Socialist, he at least remains a high-minded and sympathetic man, who closes the story of a street outcast with the terse lines—

> "Only blind me in heart and brain,
> Or ever I look on the like again." (P. 48.)

Another point of interest in Lewis Morris is that he is not, like so many of the men now prominent in London, a Scotchman; he is a Welshman, and proud of his traditions. Indeed, he gives us in "David Gwyn" a Welsh ballad that needs but a little more of fervor and dramatic power to take rank with Browning's "Hervé Riel." On the other hand, he has that drawback of tastelessness and rudeness which marks so many Englishmen; imagine, for instance, a man's ending a strain of serious and even profound feeling with an image so grotesque as that which closes the poem called "Drowned":

> "And, O Infinite Cause! didst Thou,
> When thou mad'st this hapless child,
> Dowered with passions, fierce and wild,
> See her lie as she lies now?
>
> "Filled with wild revolt and rage,
> All I feel I may not speak;
> Fate so strong and we so weak,
> Like rats in a cage—like rats in a cage."
> (P. 19.)

A similar offensive grotesqueness is found in the very first line of Mr. Wilfrid Scawen Blunt's 'A New Pilgrimage, and Other Poems'

(London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribner & Welford). The book opens with the lines:

"Care killed a cat, and I have cares at home
Which vex me nightly and disturb my bed."

Inasmuch as the most important part of the book consists of sonnets, and he tells us in his preface that "Next to the last, the first line of each sonnet is the most important," we may assume that this image of the wailing cat is in his mind almost the high-water mark of poetry. Mr. Blunt is nothing if not whimsical, and devotes himself as eagerly to overthrowing the Petrarchan model of the sonnet as others now labor to exclude all other types; nor is he haunted by any doubts of his own ability to illustrate his own propositions, for he says of himself: "He is far from saying that the octave is not more perfect without it [a third rhyme], but he has found *by experience* that many a good sonnet cannot be written except with this indulgence" (p. xi). The italics are our own, and we should pronounce that man happy who had found "by experience" the art of writing many good sonnets on any plan conceivable.

It is doubtful whether Mr. Austin Dobson's publishers have done him a real service in issuing an edition of his 'Poems' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The freshest and daintiest confectionery only serves as mockery of a genuine meal, and the more one sees of it beyond a certain point, the worse. A single poem by Austin Dobson, found in a newspaper corner, is delightful, and two or three might safely be carried in one's pocket, and administered without fear to admiring audiences; but a volume of them gives satiety, and two volumes an inconceivable surfeit. The very daring of his fancies, the absolute neatness and precision of his rhymes—where was there ever such a *tour de force*, for instance, in respect of rhymes, as in his "Molly Trefusis"?—these awaken at last not merely a sense of fatigue, but even a slight resentment, as when a man tries us with too many puns. And when we find him, just once in all these 500 pages, rising to the dignity of real emotion—in the oft-quoted "Once at the Angelus"—it makes the reader feel that the best thing in the book after all is the modest preliminary self-estimate, "*Majores majora canent.*" Alas, his motto has hardly been heeded, and it is the *minores* and *minora* following profusely in the wake of Mr. Dobson from whom English literature has had most to suffer.

Turning to recent American volumes, we have before now expressed with some frankness our opinion as to the exceedingly crude and imitative poetry of Mr. Madison Julius Cawein, to whom Mr. Howells has been so injudicious a friend. We have in 'Lyrics and Idyls' (Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co.) the same wearisome alternation of Poe and Swinburne as in his former volumes; he unearths dead Gloramone from the tomb, with the one, and borrows "hard kisses" and alliterative cadences from the other. One sole sign of progress is visible, that the author has added another and a better model to his list, and is now Browningesque in addition to his previous predilections. If Bayard Taylor or some clever author of imitative verse had undertaken to reproduce Browning's "The Laboratory," he could hardly have hit it off more completely than Mr. Cawein has done it in "His First Mistress—Reign of Louis XIV." The measure is the same, the compounder of subtle poisons, the glass mask, and all the rest of the properties; only that Browning's conspirator ends, "Next moment I dance at the King's," and Cawein's, "Now away to the royal levee." If the only aim for an American author is to select some older poet and serve him up with the admixture of a large dilution of *aqua fortis*, Mr. Cawein has well chosen his career. In any other point of view he has missed it, and all, perhaps—since he unquestionably has talent—for want of a little wholesome repression at the outset.

A complete edition of the 'Poems' of Harriet McEwen Kimball (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) will be welcomed by the many readers whom the devout and modest writer has won. They will seem over-evangelical, perhaps, to those less steeped in technically Christian traditions, and there is a certain incongruity in a dedication "To my Mother, the Holy Catholic Church," preceded by a prelude addressed to John Greenleaf Whittier; but such combinations are now not infrequent, and the book may be freely commended for what it gives. We would gladly say as much, if we honestly could, for 'The New Pandora: A Drama,' by Harriet H. Robinson (Putnams). It is mentioned in some newspapers as an "epoch-making" book, but we should rather call it epoch-made, and only a rather over-ambitious expression of the thoughts and aims of the period. It is, however, unexceptionable in tone and allusion, and is therefore altogether more pleasing than such works of the femininefleshly school as 'The Fallen Pillar Saint, and Other Poems,' by Susie M. Best (Dillingham), in which "red, wet lips" and "smooth, lithe limbs" are constantly forced upon our attention, here and there tagged with the moral that all this is vanity, as thus:

"The emollient sweet of a lingering kiss
Has no power to charge the heart with bliss
When Cloyment deadens delight, I wis."
(P. 32.)

We should say that Cloyment must ensue quite rapidly on such delight as these verses give. But it must be owned that worse remains behind when we are told, in a circular by the publishers of 'Cleopatra, by J. C. J.' (San Francisco: Bancroft), that the first part of this poem was "written on a wager that the author [as a woman] could not treat the subject with the necessary warmth and color." This is certainly bidding pretty low, as regards both author and publisher, but the wager was clearly won, and the fact that the poems—which are quite worthless except in the direction here adroitly intimated—have reached their third edition, seems to imply that the author knew her San Francisco pretty well. But is not all this a curious subject of contemplation for the many who have hoped to see literature purified by feminine influence? When a mere man, like Algernon Sydney Logan, takes "Messalina" as a subject for a tragedy in five acts (Philadelphia: Lippincott), he has a theme far more repulsive than any treated by either of these ladies, and yet handles it in a much purer spirit. It would be a curious outcome of the present tendency if it should ultimately be necessary to debar carefully reared young ladies from all books written by their own sex, and limit them strictly to a literature supplied by men.

In 'Poems' by John Hay (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) the well-known "Pike County Ballads" are put first, as if presenting their author's claim to eminence. It is already evident that he must have some higher claim, if any; they floated into popularity on the wane of Bret Harte, and must follow his ebb. Indeed, they are coarser in texture than his, and now seem even less genuine. Against them may fairly be set, by way of protest, the Deacon Brown, who is quite as fitly celebrated by Charles Henry Webb (John Paul), in 'Vagrom Verse' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), who says of his hero:

"Ef he'd been a high-toned gamboller
Or the rough of a minin' camp,
With a bushel of sin in his kerrieter,
An' a touch of Sairey Gamp:
Or an injineer or an injin thar—
Any kind of a rum-histin' lout,
P'raps he'd a done some pretty big thing
Fur me to be splurgin' about."
(P. 23.)

But, as it was, Deacon Brown simply plodded on in "a good square way" till he was killed at Gettysburg. And so in regard to Mr. Hay, it is when he forsakes dialect and accepts the standards of civilization that he is strongest; as in his "Triumph of Order," and in this his one really profound and thoughtful poem:

THE STIRRUP CUP.

My short and happy day is done,
The long and dreary night comes on:
And at my door the Pale Horse stands
To carry me to unknown lands.

His whinny shrill, his pawing hoof,
Sound dreadful as a gathering storm;
And I must leave this sheltering roof
And joys of life so soft and warm.

Tender and warm the joys of life—
Good friends, the faithful and the true;
My rosy children and my wife,
So sweet to kiss, so fair to view,

So sweet to kiss, so fair to view—
The night comes down, the lights burn blue;
And at my door the Pale Horse stands
To bear me forth to unknown lands.
(P. 124.)

Several good volumes of selected verse have recently appeared. Mr. A. H. Bullen still continues his welcome explorations of the resources, seemingly inexhaustible, of the Elizabethan literature, and gives us 'Poems, chiefly Lyrical, from Romances and Prose-Tracts of the Elizabethan Age: with Chosen Poems of Nicholas Breton' (London: Nimmo). The selection and editing are admirable, as is customary with Mr. Bullen; and the book gives a renewed sense of the wealth and poetic range of that extraordinary period. In 'Songs of Fairy Land,' compiled by Edward T. Mason (Putnams), we have a remarkably attractive selection of poems on the theme indicated, including, we are glad to say, Hood's thoughtful and beautiful "Plea of the Midsummer Fairies."

Mr. George Johnston, whose 'Poets and Poetry of Cecil County, Maryland,' was once commended in these columns, has now followed it up by a similar work on 'The Poets and Poetry of Chester County, Pennsylvania' (Lippincott). Mr. Johnston is a literary delver so honest and industrious that it seems as if he might go into any newly settled county of South Dakota and turn up a nest of poets under every wayside stone. In Chester County he has found it easy enough, and he might almost have labelled his book 'Flora Cestrica,' after a similar work done in the department of natural history many years ago. His most notable authors are Bayard Taylor and Thomas Buchanan Read, but he has given minute biographies, with specimens, of more than eighty versifiers; and there is a pleasant Quaker flavor prevailing through the volume. Another volume which has the merit of a local coloring is 'Songs of Syracuse, and Other Poems,' by William Burt Harlow (Syracuse, N. Y.: W. B. Harlow). 'Bluebird Notes,' by Ira Billman (Funk & Wagnalls), has also a little out-door atmosphere, though scarcely enough to flavor so large a book.

'Poems of the Turf, and Other Ballads,' by Em. Peirce (Buffalo, N. Y.: The Wenborne-Sumner Co.), show nothing of the demoralization supposed to attend that "profligate animal" the horse, but they also show little of the poetic interest associated with him. The publishers of 'Helen,' by Campbell Waldo White (Chicago: Dibble), announce it as being "the American Lucile." But the first mortgage on the English work here mentioned was taken long ago by the author of 'Geraldine,' and it seems a pity that three poor books should be built upon the same model. 'Young Kon-

kaput, the King of Utes, a Legend of Twin Lakes, and Occasional Poems,' by Prof. Thomas Nelson Haskell of Colorado College (Denver: Collier & Cleveland), has a motive so generous that the reader readily ignores some grotesqueness in detail, and an evident absence of the sense of humor.

There are two really encouraging volumes in the latest American poetry. One of these is 'In the Garden of Dreams; Lyrics and Sonnets,' by Louise Chandler Moulton (Boston: Roberts Bros.); and it is encouraging because it shows a distinct advance in imagination, depth of feeling, and artistic execution, with a diminution of that over-sensibility which has threatened, in times past, to obscure this author's power. The other is 'The North Shore Watch,' by George E. Woodberry, a book which, while censured in some quarters as too cold and academic, has yet been accepted by many gratified readers as being full of promise. The influence of Matthew Arnold and Lowell is just as distinctly seen in it as are those of very different exemplars in Mr. Cawein's verse, but in a form how different! There is no direct and flagrant copying, nothing second-hand or enfeebling. As is apt to be the case with first volumes, the longer poems afford less sure indication of permanent acceptance than the shorter; but it may be safely said that the two sonnets written at Gibraltar have had but few equals in recent American or English literature, and are of themselves sufficient to make a reputation:

AT GIBRALTAR.

I.

England, I stand on thy imperial ground,
Not all a stranger; as thy buxies blow,
I feel within my blood old battles flow—
The blood whose ancient founts in thee are found.
Still surging dark against the Christian bound
Wide Islam presses; well its peoples know
Thy heights that watch them wandering below;
I think how Lucknow heard their gathering sound.
I turn, and meet the cruel, turbaned face.
England, 'tis sweet to be so much thy son!
I feel the conqueror in my blood and race;
Last night Trafalgar waked me, waits to-day
Gibraltar wakened; hark, thy evening gun
Startles the desert over Africa!

II.

Thou art the rock of empire, set mid-seas
Between the East and West, that God has built;
Advance thy Roman borders where thou wilt,
While run thy armies true with his decrees;
Law, justice, liberty—great gifts are these;
Watch that they spread where English blood is split,
Lest, mixed and sullied with his country's guilt,
The soldier's life-stream flow, and Heaven displease!
Two swords there are: one naked, apt to smite,
Thy blade of war; and, battle-storied, one
Rejoices in the sheath and hides from light.
American I am; would wars were done!
Now westward, look, my country bids good-night—
Peace to the world from ports without a gun!

PROCONSULSHIP UNDER THE BRITISH EMPIRE.—II.

Thirty Years of Colonial Government: A Selection from the Despatches and Letters of the Right. Hon. Sir George F. Bowen. Edited by Stanley Lane-Poole. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

THE three colonies which Sir George Bowen had hitherto governed all possessed representative institutions and responsible government. In such the Crown has only a veto upon legislation, and the home Government has no control over any public officer except the Governor. The general principle by which the Governor of such a colony is to be guided was laid down by the Duke of Newcastle, when Secretary for the Colonies, to be, "that when imperial interests are concerned, he is to consider himself the guardian of those interests, but in matters of purely local politics he is bound, except in extreme cases, to follow the advice of a ministry which appears to possess the confidence of the Legislature." Mauritius and Hong Kong, to which the Governor next proceeded, were both governed as Crown colonies. In such colonies the Crown has the entire control of legislation, while the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the home Government.

From 1879 to 1883 Sir George Bowen governed Mauritius. That island, which Thiers called "the fair Malta of the Indian Ocean," is still very much of a French colony, although it is a British possession. With his knowledge of their language, and with his cosmopolitan character, the new Governor soon made himself at home with the islanders. He found, however, that as the Governor of a Crown colony he had at least three times more official work than as Governor of colonies like Victoria, Queensland, or New Zealand, where he was only a constitutional ruler. He then realized Louis XIV.'s dictum, *L'Etat c'est moi.* "You Governors of English Crown colonies are almost the only despots left in the world, and you are not even, as Voltaire said of Russia, tempered by regicide," remarked Gambetta to Sir George Bowen when the latter stopped for a while in Paris on his return to England. During his short term as Governor, Sir George gave his attention to questions of public instruction; a new labor code for the East Indian immigrants and their employers; the sanitary state and laws of the island; forest conservation and culture; irrigation and public works generally, and to numerous other questions. While he put up a monument to the memory of Paul and Virginia, he raised one to himself by the establishment of a public library and colonial institute.

The island of Hong Kong, which Sir George Bowen governed from 1883 to 1886, is the great entrepôt for European commerce with China and Japan. While Mauritius has suffered by the opening of the Suez Canal, Hong Kong has gained very much by the work of M. de Lesseps. From a pirates' stronghold Hong Kong has been transformed into a first-rate mart of commerce in the less than fifty years that it has been in the possession of Great Britain, by cession from China. The results of Sir George Bowen's rule in this colony were important. On his recommendation the Council was reconstructed so as to give the inhabitants a voice in the management of local affairs. A representative of the Chinese community, along with other unofficials, now took his seat at the board. Water supply, sanitation, and education were dealt with. The question of defence was urged upon all concerned, and, the colony being then free from debt, a loan of £200,000 was raised for fortifications. Mindful as he was of local affairs, it was, however, in his imperial capacity as Consular-Lieutenant that Sir George Bowen's tenure of office was memorable. It was while he was Governor of Hong Kong that hostilities broke out between the French and Chinese, and that war between Great Britain and Russia had nearly broken out. During these times the British Governor showed himself a wise and most capable, as well as patriotic, public servant. Had he listened to some of the people with whom he was surrounded, he could not but have embroiled Great Britain with France, China, and Russia. He maintained British rights and British neutrality, and at the same time preserved friendly relations with the belligerent Powers. Government House was made a friendly meeting-place for all comers. The Governor himself describes it as "a neutral ground on which English, French, American, German, Russian, Italian, Chinese, and Japanese Ministers, admirals, generals, and other high officers, on visiting this port, frequently met, and so learned to be in good humor with England, and, to some extent, with each other." No wonder that Lord Dufferin and other authorities congratulated the Governor upon the skill and tact with which he had preserved the peace of the world in that quarter.

The handsome hospitalities extended to strangers at Government House, Hong Kong, were as handsomely acknowledged by the neighboring governments when Sir George Bowen gave them the opportunity of doing so. The accounts which are given in the book of visits so paid are highly interesting, for the Governor saw things under every advantage. His visit to Macao, as the guest of the Portuguese Governor, gives a glimpse of that blighted colony, which, nevertheless, sends a representative to the Parliament at Lisbon. He had several interviews with Li-Hung-Chang, the Bismarck of China, and by him was entertained at a splendid banquet. Prince Kung, head of the Chinese Foreign Office, wrote to excuse himself for not asking Sir George to dinner, "because the Princess, one of my consorts, died last night," but he showed the British Governor the highest mark of Chinese respect by sending him a magnificent dinner of twelve courses, with two large *amphoræ* (just like those of ancient Rome) of Chinese wine from the imperial cellars. In Japan, the Governor was entertained as a guest of the State, in recognition of the hospitality he had shown to Japanese officials when visiting Hong Kong. Most interesting are some of the things Sir George Bowen has to tell us of the people whom he met. Thus, Li-Hung-Chang told him that he was himself in favor of external peace, and of the introduction of the railway and the telegraph, but that the country gentry and *literati* thwarted him in giving effect to his wishes. Sir George consoled the great man by remarking that the "country gentry and *literati*" of England, in the memory of men still living, were generally in favor of war with France and opposed to railways. In Japan Sir George Bowen found that some of the more advanced politicians seriously proposed to proclaim Christianity as the religion of the State, not because they believed in it themselves, but because they thought that a "heathen country would never be admitted into the full comity of nations"; such admission being, we are told, the ardent desire of every patriotic Japanese.

On the 19th of December, 1885, Sir George Bowen left Hong Kong on leave of absence. On his way to England he visited the Viceroy of India, his friend Lord Dufferin. At the close of 1886 Sir George resigned the government of Hong Kong, and, although it was again offered to him on the sudden death of his successor, Sir George Strahan, he made up his mind to retire finally from public service, with a view to entering public life in England, having some hope of a seat in Parliament. Had Sir George been a brewer, a railway director, a country solicitor, or a landowner, he might have had some ground for hoping for a seat in the House of Commons. His career as an imperial statesman would, however, have but little recommendation to constituencies whose representatives are elected upon questions affecting the parish rather than the empire. As a member for one of the universities, he may yet take his seat; but otherwise the ex-Governor must await the consummation of Imperial Federation, when he may make sure of becoming a Senator of the Empire.

The British Government having decided to

give a more liberal form of government to the colony of Malta than that dependency had hitherto enjoyed, Sir George Bowen was appointed, in 1887, one of the Royal Commissioners to visit Malta, and to report upon the electoral arrangements connected with the new Constitution. His knowledge of the Italian language now stood him in good stead. Having, among other matters, to report upon the mode of representation which should be accorded to the ancient nobility of the island, comprising twenty-eight families, the commissioners were waited upon by a deputation of the nobles. At the head of the deputation was the "Premier Noble," a charming girl of twenty-one, with a title conferred upon her ancestor by the Spanish King of Sicily in 1350, and with a pedigree of a terrible length. The recommendations of the Commissioners with regard to the political arrangements of the future were approved by the Government, and thus closes the last official act which the editor of the papers records.

To the official papers Mr. Lane-Poole has appended an address upon the subject of Imperial Federation, which was delivered before the Royal Colonial Institute in London in 1886. The consolidation of the British Empire seems to have early secured the sympathy of the ex-Governor, whose advocacy of the cause was solicited by the late Mr. W. E. Forster, himself one of its stanchest promoters. The question of Imperial Federation involves the union, in the first instance, of the outlying dependencies, as, in the case of the Dominion of Canada, has already been accomplished, and, as it would seem, will shortly be done in the case of the Australasian group. The next stage is that of the union with one another and with the parent state, under Federal conditions, of the Colonial States. Regarding the British Empire as one great commercial enterprise, the project of Imperial Federation is to raise the colonies from the position of dependents to the rank of partners in the concern. The colonies will be required to put capital into the business by bearing some share of the imperial burdens, and the parent State will share with them its present monopoly of the control of the affairs of the Empire. Something of the sort appears inevitable in the face of the vigorous growth of the Canadian, Australasian, and South African communities.

From beginning to end this book will be found of unflagging interest to those in any way concerned in affairs of state. Its pages reveal the practice of imperial sway on the justest and noblest principles. The correspondence is throughout that of men of the highest culture. The two volumes, with Walrond's 'Life of Lord Elgin,' the admirable Governor of Jamaica, Canada, and India, successively, should form part of the outfit of every Governor appointed by Queen Victoria; and the reading of them by any American statesman of the present hour must excite salutary reflections on the woful lack of administrative training and ability in this Republic.

Varieties and Synonyms of Surnames and Christian Names in Ireland. By Robert E. Matheson. Dublin: Thom & Co.

THE foregoing book was published, as the title-page informs us, for the guidance of registration officers and the public in searching the indexes of births, deaths, and marriages. It contains a list of nearly 2,000 surnames occurring in Ireland, with their variations and equivalents in common use. As many of the equivalents are to all appearance totally distinct names, it has been thought convenient to add a list of the districts where the more noteworthy occur; and the whole is supplemented by an index of the names in alphabetical order, numbered agreeably to the principal list. Variations in Christian names are also made the subject of a short chapter, the utility of which will be evident from one or two examples. Thus it appears that "Edie" occurs as the name both of a man and a woman, in the former case being a shortened form of "Adam." So, again, when we find that the same name may be written indifferently Alicia and Elisha, still more when Bridget or Delia may be the appellation of a person with *one* Christian name, the difficulties which have been encountered by the compiler of the work become apparent.

Although the nominal object of the publication is to assist persons whose business demands the easy recognition of names in their various forms, the three short preliminary chapters, touching as they do on the origin and philosophy of the changes which names in Ireland have undergone, appear to indicate that the work is, if not a labor of love, at all events something more than a register for official convenience. These chapters are in some respects the most interesting part of the book, for they deal with not the least attractive portion of the history of the loss to Ireland of her national language and literature. It is a peculiar feature, both of the Irish language and name-lore, that we are enabled to contemplate in them the actual process of change which, in the case of other peoples, is more or less conjectural. We can see how name after name has been corrupted by alien speakers, or has become unintelligible or not respectable, until finally another has been substituted. The change is of considerable antiquity, but it is probable that in former times it took place in both directions, according as the Celtic tongue, and therewith the Celtic nomenclature, forsook or reconquered the districts of plantation. But within the last hundred years Irish has given ground with unparalleled rapidity, and no doubt the name changes in that time have been all one way. Not to be overlooked as a factor in the process is the dispute into which Gaelic names have sunk through the apathy of their possessors or the prejudice of the upper classes. For it is scarcely credible that the mere desire of finding an English substitute could have dictated such changes as that of "Diarmuid" to "Jeremiah," "Murchadh" to "Mortimer," "Tadhg" to "Timothy" or "Thaddeus."

However, there can be little doubt that in many cases both caprice and accident have been at work in multiplying one name into many. A good instance is quoted by the author, of a district where the name "Markey," from Irish *marcach*, a horseman, has been replaced by the synonym "Rhyder" in certain families, both names thereafter remaining in fashion. The familiar Irish word *carraig*, a rock, has given birth to four different names, Carrick, Craig, Cregg, and Rock. *Craig*, it may be remarked, is Welsh for rock, borrowed by the Anglo-Saxon. The names "Phelan" and "Whelan" are so like each other that it seems scarcely necessary to explain that they are both from the Irish *Ui-Faolain*. A point has, however, been missed in the explanation given, for *f* before *a* in Irish has a sound nearly the same as *fw;* consequently, when the *f* is sunk by aspiration, the sound *wh* is the natural residue.

The few Gaelic words which are still the natural birthright of Irish-born persons are represented in the synonyms "White" and "Bawn," "Black" and "Duff" (*dubh*); "Waters" and "Uiske"; "Smith" and "Gow"; "Oaks" and "Darragh." Less well known are "Sheedy" (*sioda*), "Silk," "Quillan" (*cuileann*), "Holly." The common name "Whitehead" appears in its Irish form as "Canavan;" *Ceannbhan* is the Gaelic word for "Bogdown," or white, cotton-like flower of the rush.

Some of the equivalents are very puzzling. To those without experience even the more simple would present difficulties. Thus an Englishman would find it hard to see the connection between McCrory and Rogers. But strip the prefix from the former, the postfix from the latter, and we get the intelligible substitution of Roger for Ruaidhrigh or Rory. The transformation of Connor into Nober is easy to understand, bearing in mind the liability of initial *c* to degenerate into *h*. In the same way McCavish for Combes, and McTavish for Thompson, are instances of the tendency of *m* in an Irish mouth to become *v*. Keary for Carey, McGurl for McGarrell, and Rountree for Rowantree, are instances of Irish methods of pronunciation which no one with a pair of ears could fail to notice.

We cannot forbear quoting as an example of the difficulties which beset the name-fancier one that has occurred in our own experience. The name "Footwengler," which appears over a shop in one of the streets of Dublin, was for us an unsolved riddle till, passing down the Strand, London, by chance we saw a name which, while scarcely differing in sound, supplied a clue to the mystery. This name was "Furtwangler," and the corruption affords a good illustration of the facilities for deception caused by the erroneous division of compound words. In the case of Irish names the clue is often to be sought, as Joyce has pointed out, in the traditional pronunciation preserved in the locality where the name occurs.

It is somewhat ludicrous to reflect on the different fate which has befallen the seemingly French termination, "ville." This, in the names Woodville and Mandeville, is thought to mean the prince of darkness. But in Ireland, in the name Melville, it signifies his principal antagonist; for Melville is the synonym of Mulvehill, and the formula for Mulvehill is *maol-mhicill*, the slave or tonsured priest of St. Michael. The latter part of the name is correctly preserved in the more ordinary equivalent, "Mitchell." Interesting, also, are the two distinct synonyms, each with its own varieties, which we find for Johnson—McKeown and McShane. Eown (or, correctly, Eoin) is the Irish Scriptural equivalent of John. Shane, of course, owes its origin to the Gaelic mispronunciation of English *j*.

Those interested in the variation of names through illiterate spelling or obscure pronunciation should consult the list itself, which contains numerous examples of modifications arising from those sources.

A History of Philosophy. By J. E. Erdmann. English translation edited by W. S. Hough, Ph.M. 3 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

ERDMANN'S 'Grundriss der Geschichte der Philosophie' has been for the last twenty-five years a standard handbook in Germany. Revised and enlarged again and again, it now, in the final form given it in 1878, offers a conspectus of human thought from the times of Thales to the present day. The learning shown in it is large, the arrangement orderly, the mental candor unusual, the point of view—that of Hegel—clear and frankly acknowledged, the style perspicuous and without affectation. These are excellences enough to make a book

of solidity and serviceableness. Erdmann's is something more: it is a book of a certain distinction. Homely as it usually is, on every page we encounter not the dryasdust compiler, but a freshly working mind, full of sympathies and beliefs, individual in its attitude, its processes, and its terms of expression. Strength and honesty of personality give a winning impress to large scholarship.

"The open, I might almost say the innocent (*unschuldigen*) character of my book would have lost its physiognomy if I had copied from others without verification. Everything I have made an author say has always been found in him with my own eyes."

This is the spirit and method of the book. A hard-working man, of no great cleverness, tells what he himself has discovered. "The gratifying consciousness that I have not deviated from this singleness of view (*i. e.*, that not chance and planlessness, but coherence, rules the history of philosophy) will be felt, if I mistake not, by the attentive reader."

In a similarly individual fashion, the bibliography makes no attempt at completeness. Titles are selected according to a "wholly subjective principle," that of naming those books which have been of value to the author himself. Humanity, frankness, and inclination to first-hand judgment stamp the entire work. In reading it one feels himself safe from the hands of the bookmaker.

Yet Erdmann's work has not the evenness of execution which the bookmaker is careful to secure. The parts are treated with widely different degrees of thoroughness. The Greek and Roman period, having been already exhaustively discussed by Zeller, is here condensed into about one-third the number of pages which the mediæval occupies. Indeed, it is scholasticism which is treated with the greatest fulness and affection. The three or four hundred pages devoted to it form the best part of Erdmann's book, and perhaps the best compendious statement of the subject now existing in English. Whether through distaste or through less ample knowledge, slighter favor is shown to the English schools, especially the Sensational. A scant hundred pages suffices for them all. With Hegel, at the conclusion of the second volume, the history ends; but a third volume is added in the form of an appendix. Here are given accounts of recent German philosophy, accounts more fragmentary, but still valuable because not easily to be obtained elsewhere. An index of proper names concludes the whole, and each of the first two volumes is also supplied with its own special index. Indeed, each volume might well stand alone as an independent work.

Among English books this translation of Erdmann will find a welcome place. It is not a philosophical dictionary like Ueberweg, nor a smart piece of newspaper writing like Lewes. It is not condensed beyond understanding like Schwegler, nor distended beyond endurance like Maurice. The stamp of the facile lecturer is not upon it, as on Bowen's 'Modern Philosophy,' nor the awkwardness of the half-informed compiler, as on Bax's 'Handbook.' No excellent history of philosophy has yet appeared in English. This cannot be called excellent. There is no mark of genius about it. Seldom is it swiftly enlightening. Weber's 'Histoire de la Philosophie Européenne' excels it in skilful neatness of exposition; Windelband's 'Geschichte der Neueren Philosophie' in weight, in breadth of view, and in power of compact statement; and of course Kuno Fischer's 'Geschichte' in scale and brilliancy. But it is a good average book, with a human being behind it; one whose honesty, patience, and learning everywhere commend him to our respect. Whether such a book may be profitably read from cover to cover, may be doubtful; but it certainly will piece together helpfully that acquaintance with individual philosophers which has been acquired elsewhere. The translators deserve the thanks of English readers for the success with which they have performed a very difficult task.

Decorative Design: An Elementary Textbook of Principles and Practice. By Frank G. Jackson, Second Master in the Birmingham Municipal School of Art. London: Chapman & Hall.

ACCORDING to the preface, this book is "based upon a course of lectures delivered at the Birmingham Municipal School of Art," and "its object is to assist young students in their early decorative attempts by showing them the constructive origin of ornamentation, and to place before them such guiding principles and orderly methods as are found to underlie all true decoration of every kind." Judging from internal evidence, its object is to enable young students, with the least possible study, to produce a merchantable article of design; and its title should be 'A Mechanical Method of Designing Wall-paper.'

A few of the more obvious "principles"—repetition, variety, contrast, symmetry, and radiation—are disposed of in the first chapter; a bald account of the symbolic origin of certain decorative forms occupies the first part of the second chapter; and then, with a sudden and irrelevant "hence," the "practice" begins:

"Hence, let the student begin his practice by drawing a few lines, at equal distances apart, and others crossing them at right angles, producing square meshes; then emphasize certain portions, after the manner of the examples shown on Plate VII.; and he will, by exercising a little ingenuity, having regard to contrast of line and varying quantity, be able to evolve various patterns, more or less pleasing."

Practically all the rest of the book is taken up with the development and enriching of the "patterns" thus "evolved" by the exercise of "a little ingenuity." The continuous diaper is almost the only form of ornament dealt with, and a rigidly mathematical symmetry is constantly insisted on, all the higher forms of decoration being entirely ignored. In the same way, all natural forms of a higher order than plant-life are left out of the count, while color is nowhere mentioned between the two covers. Such a treatment is not "elementary," it is simply one-sided. On the other hand, it is eminently "practical," and we have no doubt that Mr. Jackson's pupils learn, in a remarkably short space of time, to produce a salable commodity.

It is a vexed question whether or no design can be taught at all. Mr. Jackson says: "If by the use of the term design, pure invention is meant, then undoubtedly it cannot be taught; it is an impossibility. But if, on the other hand, simple composition or arrangement is implied, then it can be taught, for the laws that govern composition are capable of demonstration." Perhaps so; but if composition can be taught, it is not by such kindergarten methods as these. Also, it would be well that the teacher should be a man who is himself capable of producing good design, and such a man, judging from the head and tail pieces which he has furnished for this book, as well as from the examples, Mr. Jackson is not. They are altogether empty and characterless.

The only chapters of any interest are that on "brushwork," in which the author attributes the origin of the Greek "honey-suckle ornament" to a mere inventive arrangement of brush strokes rather than to a conventionalism of the lotos or any other plant form, and the final one on the development of the acanthus. The style of the book is often slovenly and confused.

The Salmon Fisher. By Charles Hallock. New York: Harris Publishing Co. 1890.

THE titles of the chapters of this excellent book give an idea of its contents, *e. g.*, "The Distribution of the Salmon," "Life History of the Salmon," "Technology of Salmon-fishing," etc. The first and second chapters named are the most valuable, and are certainly an addition to the slowly growing mass of information about this mysterious fish. Mr. Hallock says, in refutation of the commonly received opinion that the salmon of the Pacific Coast never takes the fly, that in several rivers, notably the Clackamas in Oregon, the fish rise freely, and that from one pool in this river fourteen salmon have been taken by one rod in a day. On page 19 he confirms a fact known but to few, that there is a late autumn run of salmon which remains all winter in the headwaters of various of the Laurentian tributaries. This accounts for the June kelts, so frequent in many of these rivers, which it is not reasonable to suppose come from the fish that ascended ten to twelve months previous. Two hundred of these fresh-run autumnal fish were taken last winter with nets through the ice in the River St. John, thirty miles from its mouth. We cannot agree with Mr. Hallock's belief that the winninish shares the habit of the salmon in visiting the sea, the belief being based on the fact that no observations have proved that he does not. There are many rivers accessible to the sea in which we know positively that the trout remains the year around, though in the same rivers there are migratory trout; and we further know that in some rivers a portion of the trout migrate, while others pass their lives without a smell of salt water. As regards the winninish, we think that the burden of proof rests on those who assert that they go to the sea, and until this habit is established the statement that it exists cannot stand.

Mr. Hallock devotes considerable space to the question of salmon feeding in fresh water. This would not be necessary in a book written for people who are more familiar with the subject than Americans, but the prevailing belief here is that the salmon takes his last meal for several months before entering fresh water. How this belief can maintain itself in the face of the mass of evidence to the contrary is very strange. The fact that food is very seldom found in the stomachs of ascending salmon is held to prove that they never feed, and that the flies, artificial and natural, they rise to, and the numerous baits they greedily take, are only seized in sport. That nature has given them the power of long abstinence from food in fresh water is, we think, undoubted, as well as that their appetites then become capricious and irregular. Mr. Hallock quotes from a contributor to the *Fishing Gazette* who thinks that salmon in fresh water are not only voracious, but omnivorous, and states that bait-fishing is becoming more and more in vogue in the Scotch salmon rivers.

Regarding the quantity of food consumed by ascending fish, Mr. Hallock advances the theory that they feed on the sandworms, which exist in salmon rivers, and are not seen by reason of being nocturnal in their habits at other times lying concealed in burrows under stones on the bed of the rivers. These creatures are soft and

pulpy in consistency, and rapidly dissolve in the stomach of the salmon. That a sufficient quantity, however, of these annelids exist in fresh water (for they are essentially marine forms) to assuage the appetite of so voracious a fish as the salmon, when at its full strength, may be questioned; and that other food in the shape of minnows, small trout, parr, and flies are not plentiful enough to do this in a well-stocked salmon river is certain. Salmon can and do live for months before spawning, in ponds of running water made for the purpose, without material loss of condition or failure in the development of the ova, which, with other reasons that want of space forbids our mentioning, proves their ability to subsist for months with scanty and occasional food. That they do feed, however, and at times with eagerness, in fresh water is amply established.

In the chapter on the "Technology of Salmon-fishing," Mr. Hallock says (p. 62), that "the only way is not to strike when a salmon rises, but to let him pull the point of the rod down three or four feet, and then fix the hook in his jaw by a gentle lifting of the rod," etc. While this is true of rivers where the current is uniformly strong and heavy, the angler who makes it a hard-and-fast rule will find that, in the smaller and less impetuous streams, he will get but few fish by this method, for in such rivers the salmon rise like the trout and detect the cheat quite as quickly. In several of the streams running into the Bay of Chaleurs, the salmon must be struck the instant the rise is seen, to insure hooking him, while in the larger ones Mr. Hallock's advice is perfectly good. There are various other instructions in the art of salmon fishing, and information as to the habits of the salmon, with an itinerary of salmon waters and an account of some remarkable fishing on the Godbout River, all of which are well worth reading. Mr. Hallock's little book is an important one in its subject, and will repay perusal by all interested in angling or ichthyology.

Girls and Women. By E. Chester. [The Riverside Library for Young People, No. 8.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890. Pp. 228.

It is seldom that one has occasion to praise a book of advice to women. There is no subject on which so much that is foolish and trivial has been written, and almost nothing has been written on it which any right-thinking mother would wish to put into the hands of her daughters. But this little volume, which can be had in an attractive dark-blue binding for the modest sum of seventy-five cents, is of a totally different calibre from the usual writing on the subject, and, in fact, from writing that is usual on any subject. In clearness and force, in temperance, in wisdom, and in elevation of feeling, it is not too much to say that it is a very remarkable book. If all young girls who are now growing up, and all older people who are not too old to be changed, could be got to read it and to ponder it in the quiet of their own rooms, it is not easy to say how much the world might be made the better thereby.

The most remarkable thing about this book is its real point of view. Too much that is said to women rests upon the assumed basis that, because women suffer certain evils, they are marked out by Nature for self-sacrifice, and that any movings they may feel towards a life of their own ought to be rigidly suppressed. It is true that much that is different from this is thought, but it is this wishy-washy view of the situation which most commonly gets itself expressed. Miss Chester is wholly a modern. She takes it for granted that her girls will be thoroughly educated, and that, whether they marry or not, they will readily, if not naturally, turn to some science or to some form of literary or artistic activity, as the outlet for at least a considerable portion of their energies, in all those cases in which their energies are not used up in self-support. On the other hand, if any one has supposed that the modern view, which regards women as an independent creation, is destined to rob them of the sweetness and beauty of character which have characterized them in the past, he will be reassured by the tone of this book; he will see that a profound feeling of intellectual responsibility not only is not incompatible with a high ideal of noble living, but is one of its essential elements, and that it creates a strength of character with the aid of which sweetness is a far more effective weapon for the regeneration of the world.

Miss Chester gives a large number of instances of girls, now middle-aged women, who have ordered their lives wisely, or not, under widely differing circumstances. She shows keen powers of psychological analysis in estimating the degrees and kinds of happiness and unhappiness that have attended their theories of life; but, more than that, she makes them wonderfully effective as incentives and warnings to the girls whose lives are yet to be ordered. And it is not only girls who may profit by her expositions; almost any one may learn wisdom from her in the difficult task of choosing, at every moment, the best that circumstance may offer.

The quality of Miss Chester's book is not easy to illustrate by extracts. It is chiefly a matter of tone—that is, of a higher kind of style—and only its admirable simplicity is apparent at the first glance. It is rather by contagion with a fine nature than by direct argument that books aimed at changes of character accomplish their work. In this book, however, the cogency of the presentation is no less remarkable than its persuasiveness. The reviewer has nothing to do but to wish that it may have a very wide circulation.

Views and Reviews: Essays in Appreciation. Literature. By W. E. Henley. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

This collection of the more permanent portion of a journalist's literary reviews for the past fourteen years is a fair example of the minor criticism of the period, and is characterized by the best qualities for which our journeyman-work is often praised. Its range includes a considerable section of French literature, from Hugo, Dumas, and Balzac to Banville, Champfleury, and Labiche, but the English subjects are the more numerous. The novelists easily hold the leading place in the volume. Richardson, Fielding, Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot, and George Meredith, with Tolstoi and the three great French story-tellers already named, are all critically touched upon, with intelligence and without enthusiasm; and the remainder and slighter part of the collection consists of short paragraphs upon such authors as Herrick, Gay, Byron, and others of the classical poets who have been revived by books of selections in the last decade, or upon Dobson or Tennyson's last volume. The traits of the time reflected are thus our predominant interest in the novel, the literary attention given by English writers of the new generation to poets of a rank below the first, and the very small original production of the time. The matter of the book is of a piece with its period—it is distinctly *petite*. It is very well-informed, good-tempered, restrained in both praise and blame, non-committal, modestly independent; the style is slightly artificial, full of adjectives like "plangent," of turns of phrase, of smart quotations; and the excellence of the whole is very even, neither better nor worse than the thousand similar notices of books that have appeared in reputable journals in England in the same space of time. The only unfavorable remark to be made is that there is so little original force in the volume that, when it has been read, one remembers hardly anything that the critic has said; a dislike of George Eliot and of Browning, not very openly expressed, is almost the only impression one gets of the author's personality, and that is a very trifling thing. One does not like to say that it is commonplace, and yet it is without distinction either of style or thought. It is petty criticism; but when so much else in our current literature is petty, what need to single out the fault in this instance?

Dr. Muhlenberg. By William Wilberforce Newton, D.D. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

The occurrence in the fourth line of Dr. Newton's preface of such a false note as "the brilliancy of Channing"—for he was never brilliant—may well make the reader bodeful of the book to come; but if he is so, he is disquieted in vain. It is a tribute of glowing admiration to a man deserving of it all. It has too much of the nature of a commentary on what is generally known: the author goes soaring away in his rhetorical balloon when we would fain keep him down upon the solid earth, and ask him a few simple questions as to various details of Dr. Muhlenberg's activity. But the rhetoric is always forcible, and often eloquent. It is seldom so much lacking in simplicity as in the following variation of a well-known proverb: "The electric glare of too great familiarity tends to do away with that healthful obscurity which is necessary to conserve and recruit the world's great personalities." Some of its phrases are extremely happy, as, for example, one describing a certain type of Catholic sentiment as "the fungous accretion of a cavernous antiquity." Dr. Newton's spirit, as here manifested, is exceedingly broad and kind. We are not less drawn to him than to the subject of his sketch.

The story of Dr. Muhlenberg's life is briefly told in forty pages. He was a descendant, with three intervening generations, from "Father Muhlenberg," one of the most active founders of the Lutheran Church in America. In this church William Augustus Muhlenberg was born September 16, 1796. In 1817 he took deacon's orders in the Episcopal Church, priest's orders in 1820, at which time he took charge of "a Low German society, without ideas, without refinement, almost without language," in Lancaster, Pa. There his vocation was quite as much educational as ecclesiastical, and in 1826 his desire to realize his ideas of the education of youth took him away from parish work to a school at Flushing, L. I., where he worked successfully for ten years, and was in a fair way to establish St. Paul's College on a liberal foundation when the crash of 1837 came near to spoiling all. The projected buildings were not built, but the college went into operation in quarters of a provisional character, and Dr. Muhlenberg gave himself, heart and soul, for eight years, to the spiritual leadership of the work, only ceasing when, in 1845, all could raise his flowers because all had the seed. His next enterprise was a free church

in New York, the "Church of the Holy Communion," out of which came in time St. Luke's Hospital, and a Deaconess Sisterhood to carry on its work, with much besides. Meantime Dr. Muhlenberg put much of his strength into an endeavor "to emancipate the episcopate," and "unsectarize the Church," and in 1866 was born "St. Johnland," "the child of his old age," a village community on Long Island, with special reference to the needs of old men and children of both sexes, especially cripples. What was intended more than this is left painfully obscure. Here Dr. Muhlenberg was buried, near his dear and noble friend, Dr. Washburn, April 12, 1879, his death occurring on the 8th, after a brief illness.

What we miss most in Dr. Newton's short account of Dr. Muhlenberg's life is some link between it and the contemporary world. There is not a hint that he was ever touched by any of the great events occurring in America during his later manhood. Yet he was not the conventional ecclesiastic, trying to give everything an ecclesiastical stamp. His field was the world; his ambition, to make the Church largely effective for educational, charitable, and social ends. Dr. Newton follows up his biographical summary with a chapter on "The Development of the School Idea in American Church Life," and rightly claims for Dr. Muhlenberg an important influence upon it. Those who prefer a purely secular education will think his energy so spent might have been better used. Next we have a chapter on "The Type of Churchmanship of which Muhlenberg was the Creator," the "Evangelical-Catholic" type; and, continuing the subject, one on "The History of the Memorial Movement," *i. e.*, of the Memorial to the House of Bishops by Muhlenberg and others advocating the Episcopal right to ordain those not strictly Episcopalians, and favoring a certain freedom of worship unlimited by the "Book of Common Prayer." These chapters are extremely interesting, and show Dr. Muhlenberg in a very pleasant light. His fondness for ceremonial observance brings into sharp relief his freedom from its bonds. It is evident that he was frequently and sometimes wilfully misunderstood. His multiplication of religious services in his own church did not imply a multiplication of them for the individual —to this he was opposed; but he desired frequent opportunity for all. That his beloved Episcopal Church was a church for rich men only was to him the gall of bitterness, and he did his best to take the curse away. A fifth and again very vague chapter is devoted to St. Luke's Hospital and the Deaconess Sisterhood and St. Johnland. A final chapter attempts to measure Dr. Muhlenberg's influence, and finds it considerable in all the particulars of his activity. But it must be confessed that it was least in that which was most central to his heart's desire—a closer sympathy of the different sects. Some of his hymns have had wide currency in all the churches. The best known, "I would not live alway," was written in his early manhood, and had not the approval of his maturer judgment. The changes that he made in it bettered its thought to the injury of its form, and it is not probable that they will be generally adopted. The original hymn is one that less and less expresses the consciousness of a Christianity which appreciates the meaning of this present life.

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Allen, F. M. The Voyage of the Ark. J. S. Ogilvie. 25 cents.
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Balch, Col. G. T. Teaching Patriotism. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Besant, W. All Sorts and Conditions of Men. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Chambers, G. F. Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy. 4th ed. Vol. III. The Starry Heavens. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Clark, A. Wood's City of Oxford. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Courbertin, P. de. Universités Transatlantiques. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Davis, E. W. An Introduction to the Logic of Algebra. John Wiley & Sons.
Deichmann, Baroness. The Life of Carmen Sylva (Queen of Rumania). London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Deighton, K. Shakespeare: Julius Cæsar. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
DeLeon, T. C. Four Years in Rebel Capitals. Mobile: Gossip Printing Co.
Duncan, Sara J. A Social Departure. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Forster, J. Four Great Teachers. Scribner & Welford. $1.
Heimburg, W. Cloister Wendhausen. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Hosie, A. Three Years in Western China. London: George Philip & Son.
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Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

COLORADO, Golden.

STATE SCHOOL OF MINES.—Established 1874. Fall term opens Sept. 24, with new buildings and greatly enlarged facilities. Full courses in Metallurgy, Mining Engineering, Analytical Chemistry, and Assaying. Tuition free. Circular for fall term sent on application.

CONNECTICUT, Clinton.

A HOME AND SCHOOL.—*I. H.* Sperry, A.M., Asst. Prin. Morgan School, which fits thoroughly for College or business, receives four boys into his family. Personal Circular and School Catalogue on application.

CONNECTICUT, Greenwich.

ACADEMY AND HOME FOR TEN Boys.—(Sixty-fifth year of Academy, Eleventh of Home.) Thorough preparation for college or for business. Absolutely healthful location and genuine home, with the most refined surroundings. Good Gymnasium. Highest references given and required.
J. H. ROOT, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Hamden.

RECTORY SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—$325 to $375. Homelike influences combined with firm discipline and thorough school system. Extensive grounds, gymnasium, boat-house, etc. Send for circular. Rev. H. L. EVERETT, M. A., Rector.

CONNECTICUT, Hartford.

WOODSIDE—*Home and College-Preparatory* School for Girls will reopen September 17. Address MISS SARA J. SMITH, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Lyme.

BLACK HALL SCHOOL—*A FAMILY* and preparatory school for boys; highest references from parents and from members of the Faculty of Yale University. CHAS. G. BARTLETT, A.M., Prin.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven.

1660-1890.—*HOPKINS GRAMMAR* School. Prepares thoroughly for Colleges and Scientific Schools. For Catalogue address GEORGE L. FOX, Rector.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven, West End Institute.

MRS. CADY'S SCHOOL FOR YOUNG Ladies. Institute Course of Study and College Preparatory Course. Admits to either Smith, Vassar, or Wellesley by certificate. Circulars. Early application necessary.

CONNECTICUT, Pomfret Centre.

THE MISSES VINTON'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen Tuesday, October 7. Number limited.

CONNECTICUT, Wallingford.

ROSEMARY HALL.—*BOARDING* and Day School for Young Ladies. Academical and preparatory courses. Principals—Miss LANSING and Miss RUTUS REES. Autumn Term begins October 2. For Catalogues address Rosemary Hall.

CONNECTICUT, Waterbury.

ST. MARGARET'S DIOCESAN School for Girls.—Sixteenth year. Advent Term begins (D. V.) Thursday, Sept. 18, 1890. The Rev. Francis T. Russell, M.A., Principal. The Rev. John H. McCrackan, M.A., Junior Rector.

DELAWARE, Wilmington, Franklin Street.

THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1890.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

THE COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY—College, Medical School, Dental School, Law School, Scientific School. For catalogues, address DR. JAMES C. WELLING, President.

ILLINOIS, Rockford.

ROCKFORD SEMINARY FOR YOUNG Women.—42d year. Full College and Preparatory Courses. Special advantages for Music and Art. Resident physician. The Seminary has a fine gymnasium building, generously equipped for the Sargent system of work, and the official records show that delicate girls make a marked gain in strength while pursuing regular courses of study. Catalogue, with full particulars as to entrance examinations, furnished upon application. Correspondence with regard to admission in fall of '90 or later is invited. Address SARAH F. ANDERSON, Principal, Lock Box 10. Please mention the *Nation*.

ILLINOIS, Woodstock.

TODD SEMINARY FOR BOYS AND Youth.—42d year commences Sept. 17, 1890. Boys from 8 to 18 years preferred—prepared for college or business. A delightful home—manners, morals, and health carefully guarded. Address Rev. R. K. TODD, A.M., Principal.

MAINE, Portland.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN A. BELLOWS School for Young Ladies reopens September 16, 1890. Address 61 Deering St., Portland, Me.

MARYLAND, Annapolis.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—*102D SESSION* commences September 17. Eight Departments and four courses of study. Buildings heated by steam. Terms moderate. For Catalogues, address the President. THOMAS FELL, LL.D., Ph.D.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 1214 Eutaw Place.

MISS RANDOLPH'S SCHOOL, located in the most beautiful part of the city, opens Sept. 25, with a very able corps of teachers. Students prepared for college. Principals—Miss S. N. Randolph, Mrs. A. L. Armstrong.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 16 Mount Vernon Place.

MOUNT VERNON INSTITUTE.—Mrs. Julia R. Tutwiler and Mrs. Anne Cabell Rust Principals. Boarding and Day School for Young Ladies and Little Girls. Boarding pupils limited to twenty. Reopens September 24.

Schools.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 915 and 917 N. Charles Street.

SOUTHERN HOME SCHOOL FOR Girls.—Mrs. W. M. Cary, Miss Cary. Established 1842. Summer address, Bar Harbor, Me.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122 and 124 West Franklin Street.

EDGEWORTH BOARDING AND DAY School for young ladies will reopen Thursday, September 18. Mrs. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal.

MARYLAND, Catonsville.

ST. TIMOTHY'S ENGLISH, FRENCH, and German Boarding School for Young Ladies reopens September 18, 1890. Principals—Miss M. C. and S. R. CARTER.

MARYLAND, Lutherville, near Baltimore.

$225 *PER YEAR AT LUTHERVILLE* Seminary for Young Ladies. 38th year. Graduates in English, Classical, Scientific, and Music Schools. Modern conveniences, full Faculty, thorough training, and *home* comforts. Send for Catalogue. Rev. J. H. TURNER, A.M.

MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

OAK GROVE, HOME SCHOOL FOR Young Ladies, reopens September 18, 1890. Building remodelled and enlarged. Pupils admitted to Smith and Wellesley on our certificate. Miss VRYLING W. BUFFUM, A.B., Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

MRS. W. F. STEARNS'S HOME School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 18, 1890.

MASSACHUSETTS, Andover.

ABBOT ACADEMY FOR YOUNG Ladies will begin its 62d year Sept. 11, with enlarged facilities, in its new and improved buildings. Terms, $400 a year. PHILENA MCKEEN, Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Berkshire Co., Berkshire.

CRESTALBON FARM.—*A Home School* for six boys. Preparation for college or business. For circular, address EDWARD I. FISHER.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY Law School, Address the Dean. EDMUND H. BENNETT, LL.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 259 Boylston Street.

CHAUNCY-HALL SCHOOL (*62d Year*). For boys and girls.—Preparation for the Mass. Institute of Technology is a specialty. Reference is made to the Institute Faculty. The location of the school building, on Copley Square, is especially attractive and is very near the Institute.
Preparation also for college (with or without Greek) and for business. Special students received.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 324 Commonwealth Avenue.

THE MISSES GILMAN WILL RE- open their Home and Day School for Young Ladies October 1.
Circulars on application.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 18 Newbury Street.

MISS ABBY H. JOHNSON'S HOME and Day School for Young Ladies reopens October 1, 1890.
Superior opportunities for the study of Language, Literature, History, and Philosophy.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 112 Newbury Street.

THE MISSES HUBBARD'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen October 1, 1890. A limited number of boarding scholars will be received.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 5 Otis Place.

MR. HALE'S SCHOOL PREPARES for Harvard College and the Institute of Technology, on the same course of study. Physical Science, Mathematics, and Modern Languages the prominent features.

MASSACHUSETTS, Bradford.

CARLETON SCHOOL FOR YOUNG Men and Boys.—Superior training; best home care. Number limited. Reopens Sept. 10, 1890. $500 per year. I. N. CARLETON, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge.

THE CAMBRIDGE SCHOOL AND Margaret Winthrop Hall, English, Classical, and Elective Courses for Girls. Home comforts and social cultivation. Building and furniture new. No crowding. Applicants must be over fourteen. Address Mr. ARTHUR GILMAN.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, 13 Appian Way.

DAY AND FAMILY SCHOOL FOR Boys. Fits for college. Boys taken care of during the summer, with or without instruction, on the coast of Maine. Address for the Summer, Islesford, Me. Circulars, JOSHUA KENDALL, A. M.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, Larch Street.

HOME FOR BOYS.—*DR. ABBOT AD-* mits not more than four boys into his family, to fit for college or educate privately. Separate tuition, with best of care in all respects. Charming location with fine tennis-court. F. E. ABBOT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Concord.

HOME SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—*SIX* boys received into the family to prepare for College or business. Charming situation. Tennis, rowing, and canoeing. French spoken in the family. Separate tuition and best care of health of pupils. JAMES S. GARLAND, A.B., Harv., 1866.

MASSACHUSETTS, Duxbury, Fowder Point.

POWDER POINT SCHOOL.—*PRE-* pares for scientific school, college, or business. Laboratories. The boys are members of the family. FREDERICK B. KNAPP, S.B. (M.I.T.)

Schools.

MASSACHUSETTS, East Hampton.

WILLISTON SEMINARY.—PREPARES boys for any college or scientific school. Opens September 4, 1890. New laboratories and bath-rooms. All buildings heated by steam. Address Rev. WILLIAM GALLAGHER, Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Greenfield.

PROSPECT HILL School for Young Ladies.—21st year. Regular and Special Courses. Beautiful and healthful location. Our certificate admits to Smith. Science, Art, Music. J. C. PARSONS, Prin.

MASSACHUSETTS, Plymouth.

MR. KNAPP'S HOME SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Twenty-fourth year begins Oct. 1, 1890. Mrs. Knapp, Prin.; H. B. LEARNED (Harv.), H'd Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Quincy.

*ADAMS ACADEMY, PREPARA*tory and Boarding School for Boys.—School Year begins September 17. For all information address WILLIAM EVERETT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, South Braintree.

THE THAYER ACADEMY.—FIRST Term, fourteenth year, begins September 17, 1890. For information address J. B. SEWALL.

MASSACHUSETTS, Springfield.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN McDUFFIE, Successors to Miss Catharine L. Howard in her School for Girls. Address MRS. JOHN MCDUFFIE, care of Miss Catharine L. Howard.

MASSACHUSETTS, West Newton.

WEST NEWTON ENGLISH AND Classical School.—Thirty-seventh year begins Wednesday, Sept. 17, 1890. A family school for lads and misses; prepares for college, scientific school, business life. For catalogue and particulars, address NATH'L T. ALLEN. At home first week in August and after Sept. 10.

MASSACHUSETTS, Wilbraham.

WESLEYAN ACADEMY—ONE OF the half-dozen best academic and classical schools in New England. The payment of $61 in advance will cover ordinary tuition, with board, for Fall term, beginning August 27. Send for catalogue to Rev. G. M. STEELE, Prin.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

JOHN W. DALZELL'S PRIVATE School for Boys, at 66 West St., opens Sept. 10. Preparation for College. Send for Catalogue.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

MRS. THROOP'S SCHOOL FOR Young Ladies and Children. College preparatory. Reopens Oct. 1. $600 per year.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

*THE HOME SCHOOL.—MISS KIM*BALL'S Day and Boarding School for Girls is finely located in the delightful city of Worcester. Pleasant, cheerful home. College-preparatory and special courses. Desirable home for motherless girls. Address HOME SCHOOL.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

WORCESTER ACADEMY.—56TH Year. Thorough preparation for any college or scientific school. Certificate admits to Brown, Colby, Cornell, Dartmouth, Vassar, Williams, and to Amherst *in the classics*. New building, admirably equipped with laboratories, superb gymnasium, libraries, etc. Dormitories, single and double rooms. Both buildings heated by steam. Ample playgrounds.
D. W. ABERCROMBIE, A.M., Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

*THE HIGHLAND MILITARY ACA*DEMY begins 36th year Sept. 17. Classical, Scientific, Business. JOSEPH ALDEN SHAW, A.M., Head Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

*WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC IN*STITUTE.—Courses in Civil, Mechanical, and Electrical Engineering, Chemistry, and Physical and Political Science. New and finely equipped laboratories and workshops. Address H. T. FULLER, Ph.D., President of Faculty.

MICHIGAN, Houghton.

MICHIGAN MINING SCHOOL.—A State School of Surveying, Mining, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, Physics, Chemistry, Assaying, Ore Dressing, Mineralogy, Petrography, Geology, Drafting, Machine Design, etc. Tuition free. For catalogues and information address M. E. WADSWORTH, A.M., Ph.D., Director.

MICHIGAN, Orchard Lake.

MICHIGAN MILITARY ACADEMY. —A College Preparatory School of the highest grade. Location thirty miles from Detroit, and unsurpassed for beauty and healthfulness. For catalogue, address Col. J. S. ROGERS, Supt.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, Exeter.

*THE PHILLIPS EXETER ACADE*MY. The 108th year begins September 10, 1890. For Catalogues and information apply to the Secretary.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, Portsmouth.

MISS A. C. MORGAN'S SCHOOL FOR young ladies reopens Sept. 24, 1890. J. G. Whittier says: "A better, healthier, and pleasanter place for a school could scarcely be found in New England."

NEW JERSEY, Beverly.

TRINITY HALL.—YOUNG LADIES' Home-School of the highest order. Solid culture in English, Music, Art, and Languages. Careful training in manner, mind, and heart. Twenty-third year begins September 25. For circular address the Principal, RACHELLE GIBBONS HUNT.

NEW JERSEY, Bridgeton, Seven Gables.

MRS. WESTCOTT'S BOARDING School for Young Ladies, in South Jersey, prepares for any college. Climate mild and dry. Gymnasium. Illustrated circular.

Schools.

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.

ST. MARY'S HALL, THE OLDEST Church School in the country for Girls, will begin its 54th School Year on Sept. 29. For Catalogue apply to the Principal, Miss CHARLOTTE TITCOMB, or to the Bishop of New Jersey, the President.

NEW JERSEY, Englewood, Dwight Place.

*MISS CREIGHTON AND MISS FAR*RAR'S School for Girls. Near Palisades of the Hudson.

NEW JERSEY, Mount Holly.

MOUNT HOLLY ACADEMY FOR Boys.—Near Philadelphia. Healthful, helpful, homelike. Education with formation of character. College Prep., English, and Business Courses. $350 per year. HENRY M. WALRADT, Yale, Prin.

NEW JERSEY, New Brunswick.

*RUTGERS COLLEGE PREPARA*tory School. Boarding school for boys and young men. Prepares for the best colleges, scientific schools or business.
E. H. COOK, A.M., Ph.D.,
Head Master.

NEW JERSEY, Short Hills.

BAQUET INSTITUTE.—ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and children. Mlle. HARRIET S. BAQUET, Principal.

NEW YORK, Albany.

THE ALBANY ACADEMY.—77TH year. Prepares boys for any College or Scientific School. Twenty reliable boys placed in small groups in private families. HENRY P. WARREN, A.B., Prin.

NEW YORK, Aurora.

WELLS COLLEGE FOR WOMEN.—Three Full Courses of Study. Location beautiful and healthful. A refined Christian Home. New building ready next September. Session begins September 10, 1890. Send for Catalogue.
E. S. FRISBEE, D.D., President.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn.

BROOKLYN HEIGHTS SEMINARY. —Boarding and Day School for Girls. 40th year opens Sept. 25. Address for circulars, 138-140 Montague St.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn, 140-142 Columbia Heights.

THE MISSES ELY'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen October 1, 1890.

NEW YORK, Buffalo, 284 Delaware Ave.

*BUFFALO SEMINARY.—THE FOR*tieth year begins September 17. For circulars, address Mrs. C. F. HARTT.

NEW YORK CITY, 6 and 8 East 53d St.

THE REED SCHOOL.—MISS JULIA G. McALLISTER, Principal, succeeding Mrs. Sylvanus Reed, who continues as visitor. 27th year begins Oct. 1.

NEW YORK CITY, 32 and 34 East 57th Street.

*MISS PEEBLES AND MISS THOMP*SON'S School for Girls will reopen Thursday, October 2, 1890.

NEW YORK CITY, 624 Madison Ave., near 59th St.

THE BENTLEY SCHOOL FOR BOYS. —Principal, William Jones, A.B., Harvard. July and August, Far Rockaway, L. I.

NEW YORK CITY, 1961 Madison Avenue.

CLASSICAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—Unusual advantages for boarding pupils. Certificate admits to Vassar and other Colleges. Reopens Oct. 1. MISS NORTH and MISS BARNES, Principals.

NEW YORK CITY, 525 Park Ave., cor. of 61st St.

ACADEMIC CLASSES FOR GIRLS.—Preparation for the Harvard Examinations, Barnard, and other colleges for women; number limited to fifteen; special attention to English, elocution, and physical culture; Delsarte system employed. For circulars and other information, address MISS LOIS A. BANGS, or MISS MARY B. WHITON, A.B.
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NEW YORK CITY, 32 West 40th Street.

*THE COMSTOCK SCHOOL.—ESTAB*lished 1862. Boarding and Day School for Girls. Reopens Oct. 1. Miss DAY, Principal.

NEW YORK CITY, 55 West 47th Street.

MISS GIBBONS'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen October 1. Three boarding pupils will be received into the family.

NEW YORK CITY, 50 West 104th St.

THE RIVERSIDE SCHOOL FOR Girls, removed to 50 West 104th Street, corner Manhattan Avenue. Miss Emily A. Ward, Principal. College preparation. Spacious quarters for resident pupils. Reopens September 17.

NEW YORK, Claverack.

*CLAVERACK COLLEGE AND HUD*SON RIVER INSTITUTE.—Healthfully and beautifully located in the Hudson River Valley. Affords superior advantages for thorough and systematic education to young men and women. Careful attention given by a strong faculty of experienced professors and teachers to intellectual, social, moral, and physical culture. A Conservatory of Music and Art of high grade. 87th Year opens Sept. 10. Send for illustrated Catalogue. Rev. A. H. FLACK, A.M., President.

Schools.

NEW YORK, Fort Edward.

*FORT EDWARD COLLEGIATE IN*stitute for Young Women. Superior buildings, appointments, and advantages. $220. Send for illustrated Catalogue. Jos. E. KING, D.D., Pres.

NEW YORK, Glen Cove.

DOSORIS SCHOOL—A HIGH CLASS school for boys; $600 to $750 per year. Summer session June 16 to September 15. Terms, $75 per month. B. F. O'CONNOR, B.L., Ph.D., Director.

NEW YORK, Kingston-on-Hudson.

GOLDEN HILL PREPARATORY School for Boys. Sixth year begins September 24. JOHN M. CROSS, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Long Island, Garden City.

THE CATHEDRAL SCHOOL OF ST. Paul.—Endowed school for boys. Seventeen miles from New York. Ten resident masters; seven visiting Instructors. Prepares for any college or scientific school. Has graduates in the leading colleges. Military drill under a U. S. Army officer. Through the munificence of the late Mrs. A. T. Stewart the building is one of the finest school buildings in the U. S., and every department is thoroughly equipped. Excellent laboratories for individual work in Chemistry and Physics. English required throughout the course. Location unsurpassed in healthfulness. WILLS. STURTEVANT MOORE, A.B. (Harvard), Head Master.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.

RIVERVIEW ACADEMY.—55TH Year. Prepares thoroughly for College, the Government Academies, and Business. Military drill. BISBEE & AMEN, Principals.

NEW YORK, Saratoga Springs.

*TEMPLE GROVE LADIES' SEMINA*RY.—Superior facilities for the higher Sciences, Philosophy, Languages, Music, Painting, Aesthetic and social culture. 36th year begins Sept. 17. C. F. DOWD, Ph.D., Pres.

NEW YORK, Syracuse.

MRS. ALFRED WILKINSON'S School for Girls. Reopens September 17, 1890. Refers to Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, Chauncey M. Depew, Wm. Curtis, Hon. Wayne McVeagh, Rev. Edward Everett Hale, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Hon. Andrew D. White.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown.

HOME INSTITUTE.—A BOARDING and day school for young ladies and little girls. Will reopen Sept. 17. Miss M. W. METCALF, Principal.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown-on-Hudson.

MISS BULKLEY'S BOARDING AND Day School for Girls will reopen Wednesday, September 17.

NORTH CAROLINA, Asheville.

*RAVENSCROFT SCHOOL.—PREPAR*atory Boarding and Day School for Boys. Head Master, Ronald MacDonald, B.A., Oxford.

OHIO, Athens.

*ONLY STATE-AIDED PEDAGOGI*cal Department in Ohio. Elementary and advanced courses. J. P. GORDY, Principal.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

BARTHOLOMEW ENGLISH AND Classical Home and Day School for Girls. Board and tuition $600 school year. G. K. BARTHOLOMEW, Ph.D.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

MISS ARMSTRONG'S SCHOOL FOR Girls, Liddesdale Place, Avondale. Family limited to eighteen. Circulars sent on application.

OHIO, Columbus, 151 East Broad Street.

MISS PHELPS'S ENGLISH AND Classical School for Young Ladies. Special advantages in Language, Literature, Music, Art, Home and Social Culture. Fall term begins September 25, 1890. New school building.

PENNSYLVANIA, Bryn Mawr.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, A COLLEGE for Women, ten miles from Philadelphia, offers graduate and undergraduate courses in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Mathematics, English, Anglo-Saxon, French, Old French, Italian, Spanish, German, including Gothic and Old High German, Celtic, History, Political Science, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and lectures on Philosophy. Gymnasium, with Dr. Sargent's apparatus complete. Fellowships (value $450) in Greek, English, Mathematics, History, and Biology. For Program address as above.

PENNSYLVANIA, Bryn Mawr.

*MISS BALDWIN'S DAY, BOARD*ing, and College Preparatory School for Girls reopens Sept. 30. For circular address Miss F. BALDWIN.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chambersburg.

WILSON COLLEGE FOR YOUNG Women. For Catalogue or advice on preparation, address Rev. J. EGGAR, Ph.D., Prest.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chester.

*PENNSYLVANIA MILITARY ACA*DEMY.—Twenty-ninth session opens Sept. 17. *A Military College.* Civil Engineering, Architecture, Arts. A Preparatory Course of one year. Circulars of Col. C. E. HYATT, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Lititz, Lancaster County.

LINDEN HALL SEMINARY FOR Young Ladies. Ninety-seventh year. A safe, comfortable school-home. Aims to be thorough and rational in its methods and training. Careful oversight of individual pupils. Very pleasant location.

PENNSYLVANIA, Meadville.

THEOLOGICAL SCHOOL.—UNDER Unitarian direction. No sectarian tests. All properly furnished students for the Christian ministry welcomed. Three years' course—four years for those not college graduates. Tuition free. Address BOARD OF INSTRUCTION.

Schools.

PENNSYLVANIA, North Wales.

NORTH WALES ACADEMY AND School of Business.—Twenty-first year September 10. Board and tuition, $240. Graduates, either sex, enter Freshman best colleges. Smith or Wellesley College graduate assistants. S. U. BRUNNER, P. O. Box 41.

PENNSYLVANIA, Ogontz, Montgomery County.

*OGONTZ SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LA-*dies, removed in 1883 from Chestnut St., Philadelphia, to Ogontz, the spacious country seat of Jay Cooke, will begin its forty-first year Wednesday, September 24. For circulars apply to PRINCIPALS.
Principals—Miss Frances E. Bennett, Miss Sylvia J. Eastman. Principal Emerita—Miss H. A. Dilleye.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Germantown.

FRANKLIN SCHOOL, A CHARTERED institution for Boys and Young Men, offers advanced preparation for the best Colleges and Schools of Science, and extended courses in History, English Literature, French, German, Drawing, Elocution, and Vocal Music. An excellent system of physical culture (founded on Delsarte). Fine building and extensive grounds. Circulars and full information sent on application. GEORGE A. PERRY, A.M., Head Master.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Germantown, 202 and 204 West Chelten Avenue.

*MISS MARY E. STEVENS'S BOARD-*ing and Day School. 22d year begins September 24, 1890.
Prepares for Bryn Mawr and other Colleges.
Bryn Mawr entrance examinations held in the school. Certificate admits to Vassar.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Chestnut Hill.

MRS. COMEGYS AND MISS BELL'S English, French, and German Boarding School for young ladies reopens Sept. 29, 1890.
Students prepared for College. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1350 Pine St.

MISS ANABLE'S BOARDING AND Day School for Young Ladies will reopen Sept. 26.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 4301 Walnut St.

WEST WALNUT ST. BOARDING School for Girls. Homelike, thorough, and progressive. Miss J. TRAUTMANN, Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Swarthmore.

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE OPENS 9th month, 8th. 20 minutes from Broad St. Station, Philadelphia. Under care of Friends. Full college courses for both sexes leading to Classical, Engineering, Scientific, and Literary degrees. Healthful location, extensive grounds, buildings, machine shops, laboratories, and libraries. For full particulars address WM. H. APPLETON, Ph.D.,
President.

RHODE ISLAND, Providence.

FRIENDS' SCHOOL FOR BOTH Sexes.—Founded in 1784. Excellent home. Students from 18 States. All denominations. Thorough work in English, Science, Classics, Music, and Art. Our certificate admits to College. Address AUGUSTINE JONES, LL.B.

RHODE ISLAND, Providence, 63 Snow St.

ENGLISH AND CLASSICAL SCHOOL. —37th year; 21 teachers. Prepares for College, Scientific school, or Business. Strong in English, Mathematics, Science, with *Laboratory*. Ancient and Modern Languages and Elocution. Chapel, Gymnasium, Military Drill, Field Athletics. For catalogue, address GOFF, RICE & SMITH.

TENNESSEE, Nashville.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.—Over 50 Professors and 600 Students last year. Seven distinct departments: Academic, Theological, Law, Medical, Dental, Pharmaceutical, Engineering. For catalogue, address WILS WILLIAMS.

VIRGINIA, Bellevue.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 31, 1890.

The Week.

A PAINFUL impression will, we think, be produced upon the country by the Bering Sea correspondence—painful because it shows that we have not advanced an inch towards a settlement of the difficulty since Mr. Bayard went out of office, but have rather receded from one which then seemed to be in sight. Another painful circumstance (although this view will not be shared by all) is that the correspondence on our side is so conspicuously Blaineish—that is, so full of twists and dodges—that the nation is bulletined before the world as a pettifogger. It is really difficult to make out from Mr. Blaine's papers what our position is. He holds in one place that seal-catching in open waters is *contra bonos mores*, by which, probably, he means that it is piracy under the law of nations. Lord Salisbury understands that this is the meaning of *contra bonos mores* as used by Mr. Blaine, since anything else that is done *contra bonos mores* on the high seas in time of peace can be punished only by the nation whose ships have been guilty. He accordingly argues against Mr. Blaine that seal-catching is not piracy under the law of nations—a point not difficult to establish. Then Mr. Blaine shifts his ground and tries to maintain that we derived from Russia by purchase exclusive jurisdiction in Bering Sea, and when Lord Salisbury points out that we denied Russia's exclusive jurisdiction before the purchase, quoting the celebrated Adams despatch, Mr. Blaine retorts, in an offensive way, that Lord Salisbury has misquoted the Adams despatch so as to make it "defective, erroneous, and misleading." How far these adjectives are justly applicable may be seen by placing the two in juxtaposition:

Lord Salisbury's quotation from Mr. Adams:

"The United States can admit no part of these claims: their right of navigation and fishing is perfect, and has been in constant exercise from the earliest times throughout the whole extent of the Southern Ocean, subject only to the ordinary exceptions and exclusions of the territorial jurisdictions."

Full text of Mr. Adams's paragraph:

"The United States can admit no part of these claims. Their right of navigation and of fishing is perfect, and has been in constant exercise from the earliest times, after the peace of 1783, throughout the whole extent of the Southern Ocean, subject only to the ordinary exceptions and exclusions of the territorial jurisdictions, which, so far as Russian rights are concerned, are confined to certain islands north of the fifty-fifth degree of latitude, and have no existence on the Continent of America."

Territorial jurisdictions confined to certain islands! What does that mean? It depends, of course, upon the meaning of territorial jurisdiction. If that is, as Lord Salisbury contends, and as Mr. Adams contended, a jurisdiction within three miles of the land, then the omission of the last few lines of the quotation was of no importance whatever. But Mr. Blaine's strong point, and the one which he insists upon to the last, and with a sort of triumph, is that the British Government suspended the negotiation for a time, while Mr. Bayard had it in charge, at the request of the Canadian Government. This would be conclusive on our side if the suspension had been continued. It was perfectly reasonable that the British Government should wait for fresh information from any source. If we had suspended negotiation for a time in order to hear what the Alaska Commercial Company might have to say, and if Great Britain had brought that up as an offence against us, we should have been very much surprised. It is extremely Blaineish, too, to make it an objection that Great Britain has "encouraged" her subjects to commit these acts *contra bonos mores* when the point in dispute is whether the acts are *contra bonos mores* or not. If they are not, then they may be lawfully encouraged, although it does not appear how Great Britain encouraged them except by letting them alone. Upon the whole, we find here much justification of the remark made a few days ago by Senator Frye to Mr. Blaine, viz.: "Your letter leaves me in some doubt as to the facts."

Mr. Blaine has written another letter to Senator Frye in defence of his project of reciprocity with Cuba and the southern portion of the American hemisphere. In reply to Mr. Frye's request for detailed information as to what we might expect from Spain, he points in a general way to the treaty of reciprocity negotiated with Spain by Minister Foster, under the Administration of President Arthur. "Your question surprises me," says Mr. Blaine, "for you cannot have forgotten that only six years ago the Prime Minister of Spain, in his anxiety to secure free admission to our markets for the sugar of Cuba and Porto Rico, agreed to a very extensive treaty with Mr. John W. Foster, then our Minister at Madrid." Leaving Mr. Frye to digest his surprise as he may, we note (and this is a very important matter) that the sugar duties were touched upon in the Senate debate on the McKinley Tariff Bill on Friday, and that Senator Aldrich, who has charge of the bill, said that, whenever the Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations had prepared his statement of the probable expenditures and of the probable receipts, the Finance Committee would take into consideration whether the Senate could afford to make such a large reduction of the duty on sugar. This was in reply to questions put by Senators Plumb and Gorman. The former complained that there had been no detailed statement of receipts and expenditures, and the latter asked Mr. Aldrich to give such a statement approximately. Mr. Aldrich said that if importations were the same as before, the revenue would be reduced about $20,000,000. Mr. McKinley himself had estimated the reduction of revenue from import duties alone at $60,936,536. A discrepancy of $41,000,000 in the two estimates is not to be accounted for by the few changes recommended by the Finance Committee. As to the expenditures Mr. Aldrich could give no information, but he said that his Committee would not create a deficit knowingly. All this tremulousness works in favor of Mr. Blaine's project. If it is ascertained, as seems now most probable, that the revenue from sugar cannot be spared, it will be the shortest way out for the Republican party to say that these duties are reserved temporarily for the purpose of securing reciprocity and a wider market for agricultural products, the real purpose being to avoid a deficit.

After weeks of silence the *Tribune* in its Sunday issue ventured to say something about Mr. Blaine and reciprocity and the sugar duties. What it says, however, is extremely murky and indecisive, as becomes a muzzled newspaper. It thinks that Mr. Blaine must have reasons for the views he has advanced, which he cannot disclose because they are of the diplomatic sort. In other words, the *Tribune* is in exactly the plight of Senator Frye. Mr. Blaine's letters have left it in some doubt as to the facts. If so, Mr. Blaine can hardly be surprised, as he was in Mr. Frye's case, because he knows that muzzled newspapers are always in doubt. On one point, however, the *Tribune* is free from doubt. It sees that the sugar duties have a close relation to the autumn elections, and that the Republican leaders are going to vote with Mr. Blaine or against him, according as they may consider their own seats in Congress affected thereby. It is thus possible that they may agree with Mr. Blaine in principle, but oppose him in practice. Finally, it says that Congress and the Administration must be brought into harmonious relations on these national and continental issues. This is a perfectly safe position for a muzzled newspaper to take. The only wonder is that the *Tribune* was so long in finding it.

Congressman Butterworth is reported to have in mind an intention to ask Congress to postpone final action on the McKinley Tariff Bill till the next session, in order that its danger of acting as a complete bar for foreign exhibitors at the Chicago World's Fair may be averted. He has been informed by the managers of the Fair that the success of it is imperilled by the fact that foreigners will not think of asking for space while they are threatened with the passage of a bill which is framed for the avowed purpose of excluding from the country the goods which they might wish to exhibit. Just how postponement will improve the outlook, Mr. Butterworth does not say. The idea that unsuspecting foreigners

could be beguiled by postponement into taking space for exhibits, and that, after we had got them pledged to show their goods, we could clap on prohibitive duties and they could not escape the obligation to display their wares in a market in which they could not hope to sell them, is too childish for any one to entertain seriously. A World's Fair which should depend for its international character upon a cheap trick like that would not rise above the level of a Wanamaker Bargain Counter.

The price of silver has receded a fraction from its highest point since the new Silver Act was signed by the President. Apparently the speculation due to the action of Congress has exhausted itself. Very likely some of the governments of Europe have availed themselves of the opportunity to "unload," but if they have done so, they would keep the matter as secret as possible. Probably the future course of the market will be downward, because the advance of 10 per cent. in the price that has taken place must stimulate the production everywhere. But it is a mistake to suppose that the "goldbugs" are dismayed or disappointed by the advance. Nothing that could happen would please them so much as to see silver advance to $1.29 per ounce, when our legal ratio of sixteen to one would be re-established. They would not be sorry to see it go even higher. Anything which should deliver us from the everlasting turmoil about silver would be eagerly welcomed.

Mr. Leech, Director of the Mint, speaking of the new Silver Act, says in the first place that the purchases of silver will be made in accordance with the letter and spirit of the bill. They will be 4,500,000 ounces per month. Of this there has never been any doubt in any rational mind, although some of the extreme silverites in the Senate pretended to doubt it when they were trying to defeat the conference report on the bill. Next Mr. Leech thinks that the new act "will expand the volume of money in circulation" more than the former law did. The reasons he gives for this belief are two in number: (1) that the new Treasury notes are full legal tender, and (2) that these notes are actually paid out for bullion, whereas under the old law the payments were made out of money in the Treasury, *i.e.*, by checks on the Sub-Treasury. Both of these reasons are, in our judgment, fallacious. The legal-tender character of the new Treasury notes gives them no advantage over the silver certificates for purposes of circulation, unless it can be shown that some people somewhere are in the habit of refusing to take silver certificates. No such instance can be found. As to the second reason, it is easy to see that the sellers of bullion will deposit their Treasury notes in the banks, and the banks will meet the Sub-Treasury the next day at the Clearing-house, and will turn in for redemption all that are not wanted for purposes of circulation—all that commerce has no demand for. Whether this latter sum will be greater or less, nobody can tell in advance of the experiment, but it is certain that the sponge when full will hold no more of one kind of currency than of the other kind when both are at par with gold.

Minnesota and Nebraska are two of the strongest Republican States in the West, which is the stronghold of the Republican party. Each of them always gives a thumping majority for the Republican candidate in every Presidential campaign. In 1888 Nebraska cast 108,425 votes for Harrison, against 80,552 for Cleveland; while in Minnesota the Republican candidate received 142,492 votes, against only 104,385 for the Democratic nominee. Republican State Conventions were held in each of these States on Thursday. The preliminary canvasses had been full of interest, and the conventions were largely attended. It was consequently assured in advance that the convention in each State would be fairly representative of party sentiment in the State, and that the platforms would correctly reflect the attitudes of Republicans in two strongly Republican States towards the issues of the day. Each convention adopted a long platform, and there is no lack of words as to the position of the party in either State towards the tariff issue, the silver question, and the matter of pensions, as well as regarding other questions which are up for public discussion. For example, each platform has a plank regarding the need of ballot reform, and calls for the adoption by the Legislature of the Australian system. But as to one issue each platform is absolutely silent, and it is what the bloody-shirt leaders have declared to be *the* issue of the day. Neither in the Minnesota platform nor in the Nebraska one is there a single word in favor of the Force Bill, which is now before the Senate.

This is a slap in the face to the bloody-shirt faction, and will do much to swell the rising tide of opposition to their policy among the Republican members of the Senate. When State conventions meet in two of the strongest Republican States in the Union, and each of them refuses to say a word in favor of the Force Bill, nobody can any longer keep up the pretence that the party demands its passage. Senator Paddock of Nebraska has already announced his opposition to the scheme, and the course of Thursday's Convention at Lincoln shows that the Republicans of his State wish both of their Senators to vote against the bill. Senator Washburn of Minnesota was quoted the other day as saying that the people in his part of the country have no interest in the Force Bill; and the action—or rather the non-action—of Thursday's Convention at St. Paul shows that he was entirely right. Moreover, the attitude of these two conventions towards this question shows that such leading Republican newspapers as the Omaha *Bee* in Nebraska and the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* in Minnesota have correctly represented the sentiments of the party in their earnest opposition to the Force Bill. In view of all this, how humiliating is the position of the muzzled organs, like the New York *Tribune* and the Philadelphia *Press*, which meekly followed the orders of Chairman Belden and called for the passage of this odious measure!

The memorial against the passage of the Force Bill which is being signed by the Republicans of Alabama, under the leadership of ex-Gov. Smith, is a document of much force. One objection to the law which is made prominent is the fact that its enforcement in any locality is made to depend upon the petition of a number of citizens, and the petitioners are "put in the position of accusing their neighbors of dishonesty and fraud, which will be resented, and, in all probability, end in strife and bloodshed, and the fault of such disgraceful scenes will be all that of this law. In our State," says the memorial, "where we have not only differences in politics, but difference in races, this law, by its means of enforcement, as described above, may lead to a race conflict, and thus imperil our present grand industrial system, which is just starting on its career of unequalled progress." The argument that, unless the law passes, the negro cannot vote and have his vote counted fairly, is thus disposed of: "In the districts in this State, such as the northern part, where the negro is in the minority, his vote is counted fairly, and hence there is no need for the law. In the districts of the middle and southern parts, where the negro is largely in the majority, if, after a quarter of a century of freedom and access to all fields of wealth and learning, he is not able to command the respect of his fellow white man, he is then practically a small element in our political fabric, and not of sufficient importance to justify a hazardous experiment in our Government."

The final objection to the bill presented in the memorial is one that ought to have great weight with the men who are pushing the Force Bill. They assert that such a measure is needed to strengthen the Republican party in the South. On the other hand, ex-Gov. Smith and his fellow-Republicans of Alabama insist that "the passage of this bill into a law, instead of strengthening the Republican party in the State, will destroy the better element of it and drive away the great independent vote that is coming out all over the State." This is the opinion also of such other authorities among the Southern Republicans as the *Valley Virginian* of Staunton, Va., Congressman Ewart of North Carolina, and Congressman Coleman of Louisiana, who certainly ought to know better what is good for them than Northern men like "Bill" Chandler and Henry Cabot Lodge.

Georgia is in a state of ferment. The farmers, under the leadership of L. F. Livingston, who has for three or four years been actively engaged in organizing "alliances," are spreading dismay among the lawyers who now represent the State in Congress. Mr. Stewart of the Atlanta district has withdrawn from the race, as the primaries disclosed the immense popularity

of Livingston, who started out as a candidate for the House, but who is now aspiring to succeed Mr. Brown in the Senate. Gov. Gordon is so anxious for this honor that he has laid himself open to the suspicion of demagogy, having subscribed to the platform of the new party and advocated the boycott silliness. Mr. Grimes of the Columbus district has been defeated by Charles L. Moses, the farmers' candidate, and all of the other members except Messrs. Turner, Candler, and Crisp are in danger of defeat. The straightforward, manly manner in which the Georgia Representatives have condemned the class legislation demanded by the farmers cannot be too highly commended. Anxious to continue in their Congressional career, they have nevertheless deliberately invited defeat by prompt and vigorous condemnation of the absurdities now so rife at home. But the severest rebuke yet given to those who are urging the advocacy of the Sub-Treasury scheme as a condition of political support has come from one of their own members—from Mr. R. E. Park of Macon. In declining the request of the Alliance to announce himself as a candidate for Congress, Mr. Park suggests that the advocates of this wild plan should be a little modest when they confront the fact that it "has been condemned by the most enlightened and purest statesmen of the whole country, and has not the sanction of a single man of eminence as a political thinker or of large experience as a legislator." The movement to exclude lawyers and other professional men from the great employments of trust and honor, he pronounces an instigation of aspirants for office whose only hope of political preferment is the supposed gullibility and prejudices of the people. Their success, he assures the farmers, will be only temporary, and their downfall complete and humiliating.

Quay's campaign in Pennsylvania this year is evidently to depend on the corrupt Senator's "smartness" in stealing and turning away votes from his opponents rather than on any open work or real discussion of questions of the day. One of his devices has already come to light in the coal regions, where he has begun to start little newspapers in the assumed interest of the labor cause, which are to advocate with loud cries the nomination of labor candidates for Congress and the Legislature in every district where the number of wage-earners is large. In this way he hopes to keep the vote of the laborers from being concentrated on the Democratic candidates. This is really encouraging news, for it confirms the reports of the friendliness of the miners towards Pattison, and indicates that Powderly's open denunciation of Quay has alarmed that demagogue. His attempt to start a "back-fire" by the use of hirelings to pose as friends of the laborers will have a very poor chance for success this year. Any device nowadays that comes from Quay bears a stamp of fraud on its face, and he will find that it is a hundred times easier to expose and checkmate him now than it was before he was held up to the country as a public thief.

In an article entitled "Summing up the Tariff Discussion" in the July number of the *North American Review* (page 55), Mr. Andrew Carnegie says:

"Mr. Blaine has shown that in the case of steamship lines she [England] will permit no foreign steamship to compete even for carrying the mails. On the contrary, when the Postmaster-General of England had closed an arrangement with the North German Lloyd which gave much better service upon more favorable terms than the English lines had it in their power to give, Parliament promptly compelled him to forego the arrangement."

Anything that Mr. Blaine has shown is probably misleading. What Mr. Carnegie has shown in this case is not true. The North German Lloyd steamers carried the British mails from Southampton to New York for ten years, as was stated in Mr. Gustav Schwab's recent pamphlet on 'Shipping and Subsidies.' Of course, the Cunard and White Star Companies were very much opposed to this, and they used all their influence to prevent the North German Lloyd from getting a new contract when the old one expired. In 1886 the British Postmaster-General awarded a contract to the latter company for three months, in pursuance of a circular calling for tenders for that period of time. Parliament never interfered or took any notice of the matter one way or the other. The Cunard and White Star Companies, however, had a "pull," which enabled them to prevent the renewal of the contract after its expiration.

The last stage of the Harrison cottage case is a very awkward one for Mr. Wanamaker and his ten or more Philadelphia friends who had the cottage built at Cape May and presented it to the President's wife. They are in the position of compelling the President to buy a house in order to get himself out of a predicament into which they had plunged him. If they should have imitators, the President might be ruined financially by being forced to buy whatever anybody might take it into his head to present to Mrs. Harrison. If they had been confidence operators, they could not have proceeded more ingeniously than they did to "unload" this cottage on the President. They kept their purpose entirely secret until the cottage was built, furnished, and stocked with provisions. Then they slipped quietly into the White House, while the President was at luncheon, and presented his wife with the deed and the keys before he had time to say Jack Robinson. Then they induced the Presidential family to go down and try the cottage, and got Mrs. Harrison to say in an interview that it was a "gift" from them to her. After that the President had nothing to do but buy the house at the Wanamaker price. It was a very sharp trick for a Presbyterian Sunday-school superintendent to practise upon an elder in his own church.

Any one who was disposed to take a humorous view of the political situation in England might find materials for a good deal of mirth in figuring to himself what the Tories would be now saying had Mr. Gladstone been retained in office in 1886, and had the London letter-carriers and police struck and the Guards mutinied in the fourth year of his Ministry. How, like Squire Smalley, they would have "covered their faces and turned away," and heaped maledictions on his head, and said they always knew he would ruin England and break up the framework of society: even the Grenadier Guards could not stand him — the crack regiment of the British Army had refused to obey orders under his debauching rule. And suppose in the midst of this disorder they had caught the old rascal ceding British territory to a foreign Power during profound peace! A more impressive illustration of the imposture of Toryism than British politics presents at this moment history does not contain.

The appointment of a new Prussian Finance Minister, Miquel, in place of Von Scholz, who had filled the place for eight years, naturally excites much discussion in the German press, and is regarded as foreboding change of some sort, but of what sort nobody seems to know. The retiring Minister, although a man of great ability, had never shown any independence, but had entirely subordinated himself to Bismarck, carrying out with great thoroughness the extreme protectionist policy of the late Chancellor; his successor has a great reputation as a parliamentarian, has been the leader of the National-Liberals, and is considered by all parties as an important factor in the near future. Dr. Barth, the editor of the Berlin *Nation*, in a recent article on Miquel, says that he must very soon become the soul of the Ministry, and will doubtless be the chief parliamentary spokesman of the Government; that he is free from prejudices, and conscious of his mission as a reform Minister, but that he is placed in a position of great difficulty, and in his endeavors, as an eclectic politician, to please all parties, will satisfy none. Dr. Barth sums up by warning his friends, the so-called *Freisinnige* party, to reduce to a modest measure their expectations of the reforms to be effected by the new Finance Minister. In regard to tariff reform in particular, he remarks that it must be carried against the opposition of powerful and strongly intrenched interests, while the classes whom reform is to benefit are pecuniarily weak. It is curious to notice, by the way, that the new Minister is of French extraction, which is also the case with the Minister of War, while the German Chancellor is of Italian. This species of cosmopolitanism is quite foreign to the German spirit, but is not without precedent in other countries. Thus, France had a Minister of English descent (Waddington), and for more than a century Irish adventurers have held high military and civil places on the continent of Europe, as witness the O'Donnells of Spain and Austria and MacMahon in France.

THE ALLIANCE MOVEMENT.

THE Farmers' Alliance, North and South, seems likely to have considerable influence in the autumn elections. Nobody can now predict how much mischief it may do to the great political parties, or how this mischief will be distributed between them. That the Alliance can have any permanent existence, or can ever accomplish what it aims at, is simply impossible. Its aims, so far as they have been formulated, include the following:

(1.) The Sub-Treasury Bill so called, being a project for the Government to take farm products on storage and advance legal-tender notes on them to the producers. This is the prevailing Alliance craze in the South.

(2.) Abolition of the Supreme Court, abolition of laws for the collection of debts, the seizure of railroad property in behalf of "the people," the revaluation of mortgages, and the defeat of Ingalls. These are among the avowed projects of the Alliance in Kansas, or in Minnesota, or in both.

It is unnecessary to say that we have no sympathy with any of these pranks, not even with the defeat of Ingalls if it is designed to bring into his place anybody representing any part of the political programme here sketched. It is a part of the tasks of journalism, however, to "keep the run" of all kinds of organized voting movements, and we have accordingly noted the following facts relating to the spread of the Alliance. It should be stated that the declarations of the Alliance are more rational in some parts of the country than those specially enumerated above.

In Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Texas the farmers, under one of the several designations by which they are known, are very active. In Tennessee they have, for the first time in the history of the State, made themselves felt as a political power. Although they did not come together until August, 1888, they have made such effective use of their time and opportunities since as to have captured the Democratic State Convention at Nashville and nominated their man for Governor. In Alabama the old-line Democrats have sought self-preservation in the same way. Col. Thomas Hardman, their candidate for Governor, has withdrawn from the canvass, leaving the field clear for Col. W. J. Northern, the Alliance candidate. Judge "Jim" Brown, a brother of Senator "Joe" Brown of Georgia, who hoped to enter Congress as the regular Democratic Representative from the Ninth District, has given way to an Alliance man. Gov. Gordon, a candidate for Senator Brown's seat, sought to make his calling and election sure with the Legislature that the Alliance hopes to elect by subscribing some time ago to its numerous and whimsical articles of faith. The Democrats of Missouri have, in a measure, followed the example of their brethren in Alabama. At their recent State Convention they surrendered to the Alliance the Railroad and Warehouse Commissionership and the Superintendency of Public Instruction. In Arkansas, however, it is the Republicans who have decided to cast their fortunes with the Alliance, having endorsed Mr. Fitzer, its Gubernatorial candidate. But nowhere else, even in the West, have they followed this example.

In the Carolinas the Democrats have not been willing to give up their party identity or surrender their political principles. As a consequence, they are engaged in one of the most bitter contests ever known in those States. There being no Governor or other State officers to elect in North Carolina as in South Carolina, Alabama, and Tennessee, the battle is for the Congressional delegation, for the State Legislature, and for county and other local offices. Having refused to endorse the Sub-Treasury Bill, Senator Vance is no longer fitted, in the estimation of the Alliance men, to represent the State of North Carolina at Washington, and if they can elect enough members of the Legislature, they propose to displace him. Those members of Congress who, like Mr. Vance, refuse to sign the pledge that the Alliance has sent each one of them, will be similarly treated. The same policy is being pursued in Georgia, where it is believed that eight of the ten members of Congress from that State will be retired. But the bitterest contest anywhere waged is in South Carolina. There the Democrats are moving heaven and earth to prevent the nomination of Tillman. They are striving, too, with all their might to save as many members of Congress as possible.

The farmers of the Eastern and Middle States have not, as in other States, taken up the agitation. The Alliance has hardly obtained a foothold in New York or in Pennsylvania. The only State in New England where it has made headway is Connecticut. In the Western States, however, the movement is widespread and earnest. Here, as in the South, it was non-political at first, even the discussion of political questions having been prohibited. But this restriction has now been removed, and with it has come a contest for political supremacy.

In Michigan, Ohio, and Iowa there is still some question as to the wisdom of plunging into politics, and conventions will soon be held in each of these States to decide upon a course of action. But there is little doubt that in Michigan a State ticket will be nominated. The Alliance there is well organized, and Mr. Partridge, its President, has already announced that he is a candidate for Governor. In Ohio the farmers have been more reluctant to break away from party ties; only 300 alliances have thus far been organized, but even this small number is attracting the attention of the politicians of the old parties. Less conservative than their Ohio brethren, the Iowa farmers have organized nearly 1,700 alliances, 500 of which have come into existence within the past six months. In Illinois the Alliance has been still more active; it has been in operation for three years, and, according to the Chicago *Times*, it has a membership of 80,000, and is actively engaged in putting forward legislative and Congressional candidates. It will hold no State convention and make no State nominations. In Nebraska a State convention will soon be held in obedience to the Alliance petitions, which bore nearly 40,000 signatures, and a State ticket will be named. The Alliance ticket has already been named in South Dakota and in Minnesota, where the farmers have for the first time in the history of the State taken independent political action. This ticket is before the people, and nominations for Congress are in progress.

The situation that most resembles the campaign in South Carolina exists in Kansas. Such momentum has the movement acquired there that 2,500 sub-alliances have been organized with a reputed membership of 290,000. A State ticket has not yet been put in the field, but a convention for the purpose of naming candidates will meet next month. County, legislative, and Congressional nominations are, however, being made, the Alliance giving especial attention to the Legislature. The Alliance is determined to prevent the reëlection of Senator Ingalls if possible. It has already made twenty-three nominations for the Legislature, and in each case compelled the candidate to pledge himself to vote against Ingalls. As in North Carolina, the farmers believe that they are the salt of the earth. Lawyers they regard as one of the causes of their troubles, and they refuse to nominate any member of the profession even for a judicial position.

While in the South the Democrats most fear the Alliance, in the West the Republicans are most threatened. The single exception is Indiana, where many Democratic farmers have become imbued with the belief of their brethren in the South, that they have more to gain by independent political action than by loyalty to their old party. Although some Democrats have joined the movement in Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Ohio, Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas, by far the greater part of Alliance men in those States are Republicans.

THE SUGAR TRUST REORGANIZATION.

THE trustees of the Sugar Refineries Company, otherwise called the Sugar Trust, have issued a circular to the holders of their certificates, proposing that a plan of reorganization be formed "for the purpose of protecting the property and promoting the interests of the certificate-holders." No particular plan of reorganization is suggested. Indeed, they say that the responsibility of forming a plan does not rest with them, but that they are willing to give the certificate-holders the benefit of their experience and information, and to render all the assistance in their power. Certificate-holders who favor this proposition, and who desire to coöperate with the trustees in some plan of reorganization, may transfer their certificates to the Central Trust Company of New York, which will issue its own certificates, "which will be negotiable with the same facility as the present certificates of the Sugar Refineries Company."

This circular professes to deal with property

of the nominal value of $50,000,000, and of the selling value of more than $35,000,000. It is signed by some of the richest men and by one of the ablest lawyers in New York. It aims to find a solution of a question of vast concern, which has been passed upon by three public tribunals, including the Court of Appeals. It therefore challenges public examination.

The first thing to be noted is that the holders of this $35,000,000 worth of property are asked, or rather allowed, to put their holdings out of their own control in order that some kind of future disposition may be made of them. What that disposition may be is not stated or even remotely hinted, for the reason evidently that the signers of the circular do not know. They do not know that any plan can be formed. What position any certificate-holder would be in who had deposited his certificate and taken the Central Trust Company's receipt in place of it, if no plan should be formed, or if the plan formed were not satisfactory to him, is left to the realms of conjecture. The only thing promised in such a case is that the receipt he gets will be negotiable "with the same facility" as the certificate he now holds. Even this promise is subject to qualification, unless the Stock Exchange allows new-fangled securities to be dealt in on its floor at the option of the owner of the securities, which, we believe, is not the case. One of the "facilities" of negotiability attaching to the present certificates is that of being dealt in on the Exchange, although they are not on the regular list. Suppose that only one certificate-holder deposits his holding with the Central Trust Company, does it follow that he can, of his own motion, have the receipt that he gets for it sold and resold on the Stock Exchange? But this is a minor consideration.

The signers of the circular having left the public in the dark as to the plan of reorganization, or the possibility of one—and evidently because they are themselves in the dark—it is incumbent on the certificate-holders to investigate the important questions involved for themselves. The Trust certificates are aliquot parts of a mass of amalgamated stocks of certain incorporated companies, whose shares are bunched together and locked up in a safe. Each certificate is a claim upon all the shares of all the companies to the extent of its own nominal or face value.

Judge Barrett held that one of these amalgamated companies, the North River Sugar Refining Company, had violated the law of its being by joining in a conspiracy to create a monopoly. The General Term of the Supreme Court sustained Judge Barrett, and held further that the company had committed suicide by transferring all its powers to another company. The Court of Appeals held that the company had committed suicide as aforesaid, but declined, for the present, to say whether the monopoly feature was of itself sufficient to work a dissolution of the company, since a decision upon that point was not necessary. It follows that the decisions of the General Term and of Judge Barrett are in force, neither of them having been overruled, although taken before the court of last resort. Some words in the opinion rendered by the Court of Appeals have been considered to sustain the view that these companies might have been legally consolidated. Such words, even if they can be considered to apply to companies already wrongfully amalgamated, have not the force of law, and were not intended to have. They constitute at most a dictum, while the judgment in the lower courts is a decision in its broadest extent until overruled.

The North River Company was put in the hands of a receiver, who still holds it. Of course all the other companies are liable to the same treatment. A suit in anticipation of such treatment has been begun by the trustees of the Sugar Trust as individuals, the object being to get all the amalgamated companies put in the hands of a friendly receiver, except the one company whose case has already been adjudicated. We shall not anticipate the course of this legal proceeding, but it is plain to the common understanding that any plan, whether favored by the friendly receiver or not, which has for its aim the consolidation of these sugar-refineries so as to bring about a monopoly essentially like, or corresponding to, the Trust, will run against Judge Barrett's decision, and will be brought low by the encounter. There are other difficulties of a more technical character to be surmounted. What place, for example, will, or can, the North River Company have in the proposed consolidation? Shall the Attorney-General, after having taken this property out of the "combine," on the express ground that it had joined in a conspiracy to promote a monopoly, surrender it again to the uses of monopoly under another name? Can the certificates of the existing Trust be judicially separated from the North River Company so that all the other companies can be amalgamated without that one? Can the holders of the Trust certificates who may not assent to a plan which has not been explained to them, be restrained from appealing to the courts of law on their own account? Can the Attorney-General be restrained from going on as he has begun and putting all the companies where the North River Company now is? These are questions which will need to be answered before any reorganization can take place under the initiative of the trustees of the Sugar Trust.

INFLATION OF THE CURRENCY.

The Boston *Transcript* is of the opinion that the new Silver Act contains the elements of "inflation of the currency." It says:

> "The law explicitly provides for the issuance of Treasury notes in payment of the Government purchases of silver bullion, which notes are to be a legal tender for all public and private debts. These notes are redeemable in either gold or silver coin, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, and may, subsequent to redemption and under certain limitations, be afterwards reissued. As these Treasury notes, being a legal-tender currency, will serve all the functions of money, we are inclined to think they will be greatly preferred by the public, on account of considerations of convenience, to the coin dollars in which they are redeemable. A considerable amount, therefore, of the Treasury notes will, it is probable, remain in the hands of the people, and, to that extent, will constitute an addition to the existing volume of the currency of the country."

That the views here expressed by the *Transcript* are widely held is not to be doubted. We have received dozens of communications conveying the same ideas, and we choose the *Transcript's* article as a convenient text for stating our own. We observe, in the first place, that there is no definition, either in the *Transcript's* article or in any other article or communication that we have seen, of the phrase "inflation of the currency." Senator Sherman, in a recent speech, read a paper showing that the currency of the country had increased $600,000,000 in ten years. The same table is given on page 222 of Mr. D. A. Wells's 'Recent Economic Changes.' There can be no doubt about the facts, nor can there be any doubt that the rate of currency increase was more than double the rate of increase of population during the ten years. Probably the *Transcript*, if it had been asked at the beginning of the period whether an increase of $600,000,000 in the currency in the ensuing ten years would not be "inflation," would have said yes. We are now in a position favorable for looking backward, and we can ask whether it *was* inflation. If anybody says that it was, he is bound to tell us what are the signs, indications, and concomitants of inflation. How do we know that inflation exists at any time? What is the touchstone that enables us to distinguish inflation from non-inflation?

The most obvious token of inflation would be a rise in the prices of commodities, but Mr. Wells tells us, and indeed proves, that this ten-year period, when the currency increased $600,000,000, was a period of declining prices, perhaps the most remarkable decade in our history in that regard. So this test fails. Is there any other? And if there is no other, what evidence have we now that a farther increase of the currency would be inflation?

In our opinion there can be no such thing as inflation of a currency redeemable in gold. We are not unmindful that this is a disputed question among economists, but it is certain that a majority of them hold that inflation on a gold basis is impossible. If the question could be settled by authority, it would be settled in a sense contrary to the *Transcript's* idea. But mere authority is not generally accepted in such matters. We will, therefore, look for a moment into the reason of the thing. We are embarrassed at the outset by not knowing what the advocates of the inflation theory mean by inflation. It is, perhaps, fair to say that they mean the getting of more money of one kind and another into circulation than the people really need for the transaction of their business. If this is what they mean, it may properly be asked how they know that there is too much at any given time. This question is not to be answered by counting heads. Business requires more money at some times than at other times, population remaining the same. Thus, the year 1885 was a slack one in point of commercial activity. There was an excess of currency,

and the proof of the excess was that it went into retirement. It took refuge in the vaults of the banks until there was a surplus reserve in New York alone of about $60,000,000. By and by business revived; in the language of the Street, "money became active." The sixty millions found their way out of the bank vaults, much to the satisfaction of the bankers. If there was inflation of the currency at either of these periods, it must have been at the time the sixty millions were lying idle, since there was at that time more currency in existence than any profitable use could be found for. Yet nobody at that time would have called the stagnant period a period of inflation. Stagnation and inflation are the opposite poles of the business world. But can it be said that the second period, when the sixty millions of idle money found its way back into business channels, was a period of inflation? There was the same amount of currency in the one period as in the other, the only difference being as to the place where it was to be found.

Now, what is the operation of the new law? There is absolutely nothing in this law as to the getting of money into circulation which is different from the old law that it supersedes. Names are changed, and there are some variations in the machinery, and there is a heavier pull on the public Treasury, the latter resolving itself into more taxation than would otherwise be necessary, for if the Secretary spends more money for bullion, he will have less with which to buy and cancel interest-bearing bonds. The new Treasury notes are to be legal tender. They are to be paid out for bullion and to be redeemed on demand. There is just enough of shifting and turning of the kaleidoscope to change the aspect of things, but the essence is not changed one whit. There is a public declaration that it is the established policy of the United States to maintain gold and silver on a parity with each other at the legal ratio, but this public declaration merely confirms a preëxisting practice and does not change the practical effect of the silver comedy. To suppose that the public are going to take and *retain* more of the new Treasury notes than of the old silver certificates, both being of the same value identically and answering the same purposes, is idle in the extreme. The Chicago *Times* points out the remarkable difference between the new law and the old one, that

> "When the owners of 54,000,000 ounces of silver bullion sell it to the Government in the course of a year, they get, say, $60,000,000, and possibly $70,000,000, new notes for the bullion. That amount, whatever it may be, is so much *added to the volume of the currency.* The people do not use their own money to buy it with after it is printed. They buy it with commodities. Those who first get it buy it with the commodity silver bullion. Those who get it afterwards buy it with whatever kinds of commodities the holders of the notes buy from them. If the volume of currency is not increased in that way, how, pray, can it be increased? It is true that the new notes may displace an equal amount in gold and drive it out of the country, but that has nothing to do with the question whether the bill *will increase the circulation in the first instance.*"

Neither seventy millions nor one million will be "added to the volume of the currency" unless it is actually needed for currency purposes, and if so needed it will not be inflation. The "first instance" of an increase of the circulation beyond the actual wants of the business community will be signalled to the Secretary by the demand of the seller of the bullion for the redemption of the Treasury notes simultaneously with the delivery of the bullion. If the Secretary redeems them in silver coin, the seller will then demand the redemption of the silver coin in gold coin. And he will get the gold coin unless the new law and the whole fabric of the United States finance tumble all together.

MISSISSIPPI'S PROBLEM.

Mississippi held on Tuesday an election which was of far more than State concern. It was for the choice of delegates to a convention which is to meet in Jackson a fortnight hence to frame a new constitution for the State. A review of the situation seems peculiarly appropriate at a time when the Force Bill and the general question of Southern elections are being discussed throughout the country.

Mississippi had the most stormy experience of all the Southern States during the reconstruction period. One natural reason was the fact that the State was the home of Jefferson Davis. Another was the fact that the negroes largely outnumbered the whites, the first national census after the war showing 444,201 blacks to 382,896 whites. William L. Sharkey was appointed provisional Governor June 13, 1865, and soon issued a proclamation for a convention, which met at Jackson on the 14th of August. On the following day Gov. Sharkey received a telegram from President Johnson expressing his gratification that the Convention had been organized without difficulty, and giving this advice as to its action:

> "I hope that without delay your Convention will amend your State Constitution, abolishing slavery and denying to all future legislatures the power to legislate that there is property in man; also that they will adopt the amendment to the Constitution of the United States abolishing slavery. If you could extend the elective franchise to all persons of color who can read the Constitution of the United States in English and write their names, and to all persons of color who own real estate valued at not less than $250 and pay taxes thereon, you would completely disarm the adversary and set an example the other States will follow. This you can do with perfect safety, and you thus place the Southern States, in reference to free persons of color, upon the same basis with the free States. I hope and trust your Convention will do this."

Apropos of this telegram from Andrew Johnson in the summer of 1865, it is well to recall the letter touching upon the same question of negro suffrage which Abraham Lincoln, in the spring of 1864, sent to the Governor of Mississippi's next-door neighbor. Writing, under date of March 13, 1864, to Michael Hahn, Mr. Lincoln, after congratulating him upon having "fixed your name in history as the first free-State Governor of Louisiana," said:

> "Now you are about to have a convention, which, among other things, will probably define the elective franchise. I barely suggest, for your private consideration, whether some of the colored people may not be let in, as, for instance, the very intelligent, and especially those who have fought gallantly in our ranks. They would probably help, in some trying time to come, to keep the jewel of liberty in the family of freedom. But this is only a suggestion, not to the public, but to you alone."

Within a week after its assembling, the Convention of August, 1865, had passed an ordinance declaring that slavery should not thereafter exist in the State, and another declaring the secession ordinance null and void. An election for State and county officers and for representatives in Congress was ordered for the first Monday in October, and the Legislature then chosen met on the 16th of the latter month. The colored citizens had already taken alarm, and at a convention, October 7, adopted resolutions protesting against the reactionary policy which prevailed, and expressing the fear that the Legislature would pass such proscriptive laws as would drive the freedmen from the State, or practically reënslave them. These apprehensions were fully justified by the event, as the Legislature adopted one of the worst of the "black codes"; refused to ratify the amendment to the United States Constitution abolishing slavery; adopted memorials to Congress for the pardon of Jefferson Davis and Jacob Thompson; and did sundry other equally foolish things.

Under the State Government thus inaugurated the reactionary drift was perhaps more marked than anywhere else in the South, and when in 1867 the Republican Congress insisted upon its plan of reconstruction, it was opposed in Mississippi more bitterly than in any other State. Finally, after vicissitudes too tedious to recapitulate, a convention controlled by men loyal to the new order of things framed a constitution under which the State has lived for more than twenty years. The most important features of this constitution, so far as the present problem is concerned, are those which declare that all citizens of the United States resident within the State are citizens of the State, and that no property or educational qualifications shall ever be required for electors, and that this latter provision should not be amended before the year 1885. Lincoln had suggested to the Louisiana loyalists in 1864 the idea of allowing "the very intelligent" of the colored people to enjoy the elective franchise, and Johnson had advised the Mississippians in 1865 to extend the franchise to such of the race as could read and write and possessed a little property. The Southern whites rejected both suggestions, and finally had to accept the theory of suffrage for every negro, whether he knew anything or not, whether he owned anything or not, and in Mississippi's case with the key turned in the lock that forbade any change in the system for nearly twenty years.

We all know how different practice has been from theory. At first, indeed, the black majority, officered by white carpetbaggers, had their way, and the Republicans controlled State offices, Legislature, and Congressional districts. But the white minority steadily grew in power, and in 1875, by the adoption of what came to be known as "the Mississippi plan," carried all but one of the Congressional districts and both branches of the Legislature, and persuaded the Republican Governor to resign by threats of im-

peachment. Since then they "have had everything their own way," the present Governor having been elected without any opposition, while the Democrats have every seat in the Senate and all but seven of the 120 in the House.

As State and local officers are chosen in the odd years, the Force Bill, which applies only to the elections in even years at which Congressmen are chosen, could not help the negroes to recover their rights to a share in the government of the State and counties. The white minority have no fear lest they can continue to carry elections by the same methods as in the past, but they want to find some other way. For some years there has been a growing feeling that an earnest effort ought to be made to devise a legal and just system for getting rid of the ignorant negro vote. Thoughtful men have recognized that the present policy of bulldozing and cheating cannot be permanent, and ought not to be permanent, since it is bound to demoralize the whites as well as the blacks. The Constitutional Convention which meets next month is the outgrowth of this feeling.

Various plans for limiting the suffrage have been proposed and are now under discussion. What is desired is one which will cut off most of the negroes from the suffrage, and at the same time will not disfranchise any considerable number of whites—and this is a difficult result to secure. An educational qualification, for example, would rule out probably three-fourths of the blacks, but it would also take the ballot from one-tenth of the whites, including many ex-Confederate soldiers, and the "soldier vote" is as much a source of dread in the South as in the North. A property qualification would work in much the same way. The idea of a poll-tax was popular until it was pointed out that the Virginia Democrats had tried this device for getting rid of the negro vote, only to find that Mahone got rich Republicans up North to contribute money to pay the poll-taxes of the negroes, while many of the whites could not or would not pay their own.

The Vicksburg *Commercial Herald*, one of the leading newspapers, is urging with much force a novel plan which it has devised. The situation, it says, is this: "A large portion of the population of this State is so densely ignorant that it must be prevented from ruling by some means, or our lives, liberties, and property will not be safe, and our civilization will be blighted." The proportion of this ignorance is much greater in some counties than in others; in Issaquena, for example, with a dozen negroes to every white, the *Herald* thinks that there are twelve ignorant voters to one intelligent. These differing conditions it would meet by a constitutional provision excluding from the suffrage "persons so very ignorant as to prevent their having reasonably safe judgment of measures to be voted on, or being reasonable judges of the fitness of candidates for office"; and providing for an examination of all persons desirous of voting by three officials in each county, appointed by a board of State officers, which county boards shall decide whether applicants are qualified for the suffrage, subject to appeal to the State board and from that to the Supreme Court. "In a county where there are thirteen very ignorant voters to one reasonably intelligent voter," says the *Herald*, "the boards of examination and registration would trim the ignorance down to reasonable and perfectly safe limits, and everything would work smoothly without any illegal or violent methods." It is obvious that this would be a dangerous power to confer upon any board, and it seems hardly possible that the scheme will prove popular.

The truth is, that the problem is a most perplexing one, and the situation calls for the sympathy of outsiders. It is obvious that the negroes cannot be allowed the power in government to which their numerical preponderance would entitle them, but it is hard to see a method of restricting their votes which will not be objectionable to some element among the whites. The only hopeful feature of the situation is the evident anxiety of the best men in the State to find a solution which will be fair to all concerned.

FEMALE WRITERS OF SPAIN.

THE educational ideals and attainments of Spanish women were authoritatively sketched by one of the most noted of them, Doña Emilia Pardo Bazán, in an article in the *Fortnightly*, something more than a year ago—an article of which the Spanish original is just now appearing for the first time in *España Moderna*. Roughly speaking, she makes the present century in Spain one that marks a decided emergence for women from the profound ignorance characteristic of them in the eighteenth century, while it has not yet succeeded in equalling the achievements of the Renaissance.

"At the time of the Renaissance, Spanish women, whose learning equalled their piety, far from contenting themselves with no education, or with only a superficial one, held professorships of rhetoric and Latin, like Isabel Galindo, or widened the domain of philosophic speculation, like Oliva Sabuco. In the eighteenth century these traditions were so utterly lost that it was considered dangerous to teach girls the alphabet, on the ground that if they were able to read and write, they might correspond with their sweethearts. I have heard it told of a great-grandmother of mine, of noble family (grandees, in fact), that she was obliged to learn to write by herself, copying the letters from a printed book, with a pointed stick for pen, and mulberry-juice for ink."

In good keeping with this is what Valera writes in his 'El Comendador Mendoza' (a novel laid in the last of the eighteenth century):

"I suspect that our grandfathers, weary of the female bachelors of arts, and the Latin-speaking, pedantic ladies painted for us by Quevedo, Tirso, and Calderón, had fallen into the opposite extreme of taking pains that their women should learn nothing. Learning in a woman was to be considered a spring of evil. Thus it happened that in the provinces well-to-do and noble families educated their girls simply to be very active and systematic housekeepers. They learned to sew, to embroider, and to knit; many were good cooks; not a few ironed beautifully; but almost always care was taken that they should not learn to write, and they were taught little more than to read fairly well in 'The Christian Year' or some other pious book."

This reference of the trouble to the preferences of the men is abundantly supported by Señora Bazán, who says: "For the Spaniard, I do not hesitate to say, however liberal and advanced his ideas may be, the ideal of woman is not in the future, but in the past. . . . Men have gained rights and privileges in which women have no share." Nevertheless, the prospect is brightening: "Although there still exist men who commend absolute ignorance in women, the majority are beginning to prefer, at least in practical life, a wife who, without being ambitious of solid and serious instruction, has a shadow, veneer, or varnish of schooling which makes her presentable." "Few indeed are the avocations which are open to women in Spain, but fewer still are the women of the middle class who can make up their minds to exercise them. A few years ago, a lady, Martina Castells, graduated in medicine. The illustrated papers published her portrait as that of a remarkable and singular female."

A very striking and practical contribution to the question of the education of Spanish women, which reveals as clearly as anything could the partial recovery of the old ideals, is the series of articles published in several numbers of *España Moderna* within the past year, written by Don M. Ossorio y Bernard, and entitled "Notes for a Dictionary of Female Spanish Writers of the Nineteenth Century." Taking in all of Spain and her colonial possessions, the compiler presents a list of some 443 names. A large number of these—perhaps 50—can be at once dismissed as of slight significance, their literary activity being confined to having competed once or twice in the poetical contests so common in Spain, or to having contributed a poem to one of the yearly "albums" presented to the Queen. Among the rest figure many whose chief work in literature has been in the humble guise of translators, and not a few whose writings have seen the light only in the columns of newspapers. There remains, however, a goodly array of poets, dramatists, novelists, writers on pedagogy and elementary science, together with a half-dozen names whose eminence fairly calls for a distinct place in the history of modern Spanish literature.

Of the whole catalogue, a prodigious proportion—certainly one-half—is credited to poetry. The traditional facility with which Spanish verse can be written is thus exemplified afresh in the results of the new education of Spanish women. As a distinguished Spanish critic, Fray Benito Jerónimo Feijóo, has ventured to say of the men who write poetry, "The number of those who make couplets is infinite, but nowhere is there a poet," it may not be too ungallant to suppose that the women who are here set down as the authors of "poesías," cannot all be poets. Cuba naturally stands first among the colonies, having eighteen writers in the "Notes," almost all of them poets, while Porto Rico and the Canaries have each two.

Singling out a few of the names whose work has been most characteristic and noteworthy, in one way and another, we may take Doña Faustina Sáez de Melgar as a leading type of the fecund and versatile writers of her day. Born in 1834, she has been on the editorial staff of eighteen different periodicals, of one sort and another. She has published sixteen volumes, comprising novels, stories, legends, one or two serious treatises, and two dramas. In 1889 she became the Spanish translator of Carmen Silva, the Rumanian Queen. Worthy to be named with her is Doña María del Pilar Sinués de Marco, wife of the dramatist José Marco. She has been a life-long contributor to the leading papers of Spain, and Señor Ossorrio y Bernard enumerates sixty volumes published by her, adding that he is not at all sure that his list is complete.

Doña Concepción Arenal has a place all her own. She is a prolific writer on all topics connected with the administration of penal and benevolent institutions, on public charities and social reform. With great intelligence and persistence, she has examined in person penal colonies, penitentiaries, and the like, and has written on her subject with a courage and thoroughness that have fairly won for her the name of the Mary Carpenter of Spain. The union of a literary gift with the zeal of a philanthropist and a reformer is so unprecedented in a Spanish woman that Señora Arenal has no rival for the honors she has won in her peculiar field. Doña Emilia Serrano de Wilson, the Baroness de Wilson, enjoys a fame in South America probably greater than that of any Spanish woman of the day. This is due to her frequent visits to Spanish America, to her occasional periods of residence in Spain's lost possessions, and to the fact that more than one of her books of travel narrate her journeys and experiences in South America. Her very last volume, 'Americanos Ilustres,' 1889, is an instance of the main drift of her writing. In 1881 she was the recipient of a poetic crown from the Society of Writers of Colombia.

One famous name stands out among the poets—that of Doña Gertrudis Gómez de Avellaneda. Born in Puerto Príncipe, Cuba, March 24, 1814, she published her first volume of poems when scarcely more than a child. Her genius was not prolific—it was too rare—and her collected works, of the edition of 1869, number but five volumes; they do not include, however, several dramas and some devotional writings of hers. She died in Madrid, February 1, 1873. A memorial tablet was erected in 1876 in the wall of the house where she was born. The genuineness of her lyric gift appears to be beyond all question. We may well believe Don Juan Nicasio Gallego when he gives her "the primacy among all the members of her sex who have struck the Spanish lyre in this or any age," even if we are not prepared to go along with Don Nicomedes Pastor Diaz in declaring her "the greatest among the poetesses of all times."

A woman's name, too, is one of the most conspicuous in the history of the development of the modern Spanish novel. Doña Cecilia Bohl de Faber made her pseudonym, Fernan Caballero, known throughout Spain as being that of the first writer to break away from the extravagance of the Romantic school, and to find her inspiration and her themes in the common life of the common people. Her many volumes of "Tales" undoubtedly led the way to the realistic Spanish novel of to-day, and though long since surpassed even in her own field by Trueba, and, of course, knowing nothing of the high art and range of her greater successors, she stands as the initiator of a healthier and more natural movement in the Spanish fiction of the century. Her contributions to Spanish folk-lore were also considerable. She was born in Morges, Switzerland, December 25, 1796, and died at Seville, April 7, 1877.

We close with the name with which we began. Doña Emilia Pardo Bazán is undoubtedly the foremost living woman of letters in Spain. Indeed, it would be hard to name a man more eagerly sought after by editors than she, or more frequently a contributor to the leading periodicals of Spain. She herself was the founder, and is now, we believe, the editor, of the *Revista de Galicia*. Of a noble family, she early gave indications of her extraordinary literary faculty. Famous now as a novelist, she is something more than that, as may be inferred from these two titles, 'The Epic Christian Poets, Dante, Milton, and Tasso,' and 'A Critical Essay on Darwinism.' In 1889 a popular movement sprang up to secure her a vacant seat in the Academy. She so far yielded to the solicitations of her friends as to announce her willingness to be a candidate, though she would adopt none of the usual means to secure an election. This she failed of, owing to the prejudice of the respectable Academicians against so startling an innovation as the admission of a woman into their honorable ranks.

ON THE EVE OF THE ELECTIONS IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, June 28, 1890.

As the day of the elections for the House of Representatives draws near, the interest of the Japanese in politics becomes keener. On all sides are rumors of combinations and party changes. In a few days (July 1) the elections will take place, and the Japanese will then be committed to all the privileges and duties of representative government. The political and economic problems which have hitherto been deferred will then again press for a definite solution. The policy of hesitation and delay in the more important issues of state will have to be abandoned. The new experiment in government must justify some of the aspirations of its friends, or the experiment will prove a failure. It may perhaps interest the readers of the *Nation* to get an outline of the actual political condition of Japan.

The present Cabinet is confessedly a makeshift. The circumstances that gave it life are briefly these. Count Okuma, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and a man of first-rate diplomatic ability, concluded a treaty, last October, for the complete opening up of Japan to foreigners. The Japanese had long wished a change in their treaty relations; but a provision in the treaty that foreigners in this country were to be under the jurisdiction of their own courts, and under no restraints whatever in business transactions, soon produced a revulsion in the feelings of the Japanese. They were galled by the former provision, for the very natural reason that it placed them on a level with Turkey, Egypt, and other fourth-rate Powers. It clearly involved the premise that their courts could not be trusted to dispense even-handed justice. The second provision aroused opposition because the Japanese feared that foreigners would overreach them in industrial enterprises. The huge capital in the hands of the English, directed by that tremendous energy and ruthlessness which characterize all English mercantile ventures in the East, might easily, under equal conditions, wrest from the Japanese their more profitable industries. The feeling of hostility became more and more bitter, until finally the Minister of Foreign Affairs resigned his portfolio, not, however, before one of a certain class of irresponsible political characters called *soshi* threw a bomb at him which was nearly fatal.

A new Cabinet was formed in which neither Count Okuma nor his political followers had a seat. No political issues of any importance have since disturbed the country, though politics in a sense has been eagerly discussed in every nook and corner of the nation. And there is an uneasy feeling in the air, as if no one were quite sure of his ground. The reason for this uncertainty is due partly to the unstable economic conditions of the country, and partly to the failure of the Japanese to get their party organizations into working order.

Japan is at present suffering from a partial failure of last year's rice crop. The price of rice has been very high, averaging two or two and a half times its normal price. Such a rise in the price of an absolute necessary of life causes much more difficulty in a country like Japan than in any country of Europe or America. Rice in Japan occupies a more important place as food than wheat does in America. There are no substitutes for rice, as there are for wheat in America or Europe, and, what is worse, the Japanese in case of a short crop take to foreign rice with the greatest reluctance. A Japanese will eat Chinese or India rice only under the spur of absolute hunger. The Chinese rice seems to them inferior in every respect, and, so far as Americans can discriminate in these matters, there is much to be said in favor of Japanese taste. The result of this fastidiousness, however, is that there is scarcely an assignable limit to the price of Japanese rice in case of a short crop. With very little importation, and with every one striving to get his daily share of domestic rice, it is hardly to be wondered at that a shortage of a few million *koku*, say one-eighth of the crop, may readily result in a doubling or even trebling of the price. The present high price of rice has caused discontent and even incipient riots in certain districts; and in a country like Japan, where the paternal form of government is established, there is a widespread disposition to throw the burden of public distresses on the shoulders of the Government.

The position of various political parties has added to the feeling of uncertainty and discontent. The essential peculiarity of old Japan was loyalty to men instead of adhesion to principles. Each man must be faithful to his lord or master through life and death. This state of things continues still to be the actuating motive of political parties. One hears very little of parties distinguished by opposition of principles or ideas, but much of parties headed by Count Okuma or Count Goto or Itagaki and others. The result is, that thus far it has been next to impossible to get parties formed which stand for different principles or policies of action.

Parties there are in abundance, and they have even announced programmes, which to a degree are discriminating. There is the *Kaishin-to*, or Progressive party, undeniably the strongest and best organized party in Japan. It has had a brilliant history in many ways. It was the party to champion the cause of a constitutional parliament and local self-government. It led in the reforms of the currency and finance, and tried to take the lead in establishing new treaties with foreign countries; but the latter feat proved too great, on account of the combined opposition of other parties, and it fell from its commanding position. There is the *Jiyu-to*, or Radical party, which stands for more vigorous reforms; it wishes to introduce trial by jury, more diffused franchise, to abolish Government interference with industry, and restrict the powers of the Government in as many ways as possible. There is the *Aikoku Ko-to*, or Patriotic party, which likewise stands for the extension of political rights. All of these parties, however, are divided into sections, which are likely to oppose the general programme of the leaders. Besides these parties are the *Daido Danketsu*, or Combination party, whose motto is, "United on great questions, differing on small"; and *Chiusei-ha*, or Conservative party, whose principle is the vague one of preserving Japanese from foreign customs and influences. All these parties, as stated before, have political platforms, but in most cases there is neither a sufficient amount of union nor difference to make them distinctive. Nor is the opposition greatest between the parties whose principles

differ most widely. Frequently, as in the case of the *Daido Danketsu* some years ago, Radicals and Conservatives were seen in the same camp. The real effective influence in the formation of parties is personal popularity, or at best a temporary enthusiasm, created by some fleeting public question. As soon as the leader is under a cloud, or the issue settled, parties disintegrate and lose their character.

The result is, there is little more than confusion as yet in Japanese party politics. Many of the most sensible persons, among whom are candidates for the House of Representatives, stand entirely aloof from party organization. The hope of the most advanced opinion is that, after the opening of the House of Representatives, public questions will arise to coalesce the numerous parties into two, and that these will be distinguished by opposition of well-defined political purposes, as are the parties of England and the United States. That this "consummation devoutly to be wished" will be brought about before the meeting of the Representatives is scarcely likely. Even the approach of the elections, which it was hoped might bring about party amalgamation, has accomplished nothing. There has been talk of a union between the Liberal, Radical, and Patriotic parties, but thus far no successful union has resulted.

It is probable, therefore, that many Independents will be elected to the House of Representatives. In Tokio, where there are twelve electoral districts, there is an independent candidate in nearly every district, and, if the signs are to be trusted, a fair number of them will be elected. In all this uncertainty there is at least one great advantage. The enemies of popular government, both Japanese and foreigners, have predicted violence and riots; but, from the very diffusion of power and absence of party lines, it is likely that the election will go off very quietly. There are charges of corruption and bribery which in some cases recall the corrupt practices of American politics, but these charges have led to no Government interference. As a whole, for a people so liable to sudden enthusiasms as the Japanese, the country takes the advent of its first national election in undisturbed tranquillity.

G. D.

THE TUSCAN MAREMME.

ROME, July 1, 1890.

THE tenacity of the superstitions concerning the sanitary condition of Rome is a never-ending surprise to me. Not a year passes that I do not receive many inquiries as to the possibility of coming safely to Rome in June, sometimes even in May, or how long one may stay in Rome without danger. The climate is not an exhilarating one even in winter, and the summer life is too much like existence in a Turkish bath; but, for a brief experience, Rome in July is not without its peculiar pleasures if one has little or no work to do. But I was not prepared to find myself laboring under the same mistaken idea of the Italian climate which I have so often tried to dispel with regard to that of Rome, as I discover myself to have been by a run through the Tuscan Maremme, or sea provinces, late in June.

I confess that I had been a little nervous before leaving, and made my first stage to Orbetello by the early train so as to have time to get away by the second if I found the place untenable. Murray describes the town as situated in the great salt lake, "the cause of the malaria in the surrounding country during the summer," which is as curious a misstatement of the actual status as it was possible to make; for the town, as I found on investigation, is one of remarkable sanitary qualities, and is frequented as a summer bathing-place even by the Romans. When I want to obtain a rapid judgment of the intensity of malaria in a place, I study the faces of the children in the streets, and I was reassured before reaching the inn, and asked for a room without hesitation, for a more rosy and robust lot of urchins than those of Orbetello I have not seen in Italy. I found, on further investigation, that in a prison of some importance containing 300 to 400 prisoners, and a barrack giving quarters to a battalion of soldiers, there was not a single case of malarial fever, and none of the inhabitants take refuge in the mountains during the summer. In fact, I have rarely been in an Italian town where the population has in a more marked degree that alertness and energetic deportment which is a certificate of freedom from malarial influences.

It stands on the point of a long peninsula which projects into the shallow lake formed by the enclosure of the sea by two dunes, which have been thrown up by the surf from the two extremities of the island of Monte Argentaro, lying about two miles off from the mainland, and stands as nearly as may be in the middle of this sheet of salt water, in which the tide (such as the Mediterranean furnishes) flows and ebbs through great fishing weirs set in the dunes. The low lands along the shore and for a distance of half a mile back are no doubt malarious from the stagnation and drying up of the streams that come from the hills behind; but even there the terrors of malaria are enormously exaggerated, for the population, as we saw in driving through the district, show very few cases of the characteristic fever prostration. They were making their hay and hoeing their maize, and a large gang of men was at work cutting a new passage for the sea through the base of one of the dunes where the old one had become choked from the wash of the surf. Malaria there certainly is in that strip of land which is under the influence of the exhalations of the marshes formed along the shore; but when we note the extreme recklessness of the laborers in the fields, throwing themselves down to sleep out their siesta in any shade which is available after their dinners, utterly indifferent to all the precautions which are indicated by the simplest prudence, we are only surprised that there is a population there. The railway station was, they told me, at one time very unhealthy from the fevers, but when the Orbetellians made their aqueduct from the hills of Argentaro, and carried a main on to the station, so that pure drinking-water became obtainable, the sanitary condition improved at once and greatly.

When Garibaldi went to Marsala, he sailed from Talamone, just beyond the dune which forms the northern limit of the Lake of Orbetello, and the fishermen of the latter place furnished him with a considerable contingent of volunteers; and he is to-day the popular idol. All the streets are named after the battles of the Italian emancipation, and, what generally goes with a healthy political tendency, clean streets and good school-houses distinguish the town. In the four days I passed there I did not see a beggar or a cripple from disease. A large machine shop seems to be suffering from the prevailing stagnation in Italy, but beside it a branch for the manufacture of ice is doing a driving business. It supplies the ice for the fishermen of the fishing ports of San Stefano and Port Ercole, situated at the outer ends of the two dunes, of which that of San Stefano is being strongly fortified in conjunction with Talamone on the main land, forming the only important naval position between Spezzia and Naples. The population of all these places is a hardy fisherman stock, whose robustness is proof enough that the sea air and malaria cannot coexist.

The surroundings of Orbetello are of peculiar interest for the archæologist, and the polygonal walls of the city are of unique importance from their showing the only instance (so far as I am aware) of a Pelasgic city built out into the sea. It suggests the occupation of a lacustrine predecessor. On three sides of the irregular quadrilateral of the present fortification the wall remains, and, except where the rubbish heap of the moderns has covered the base of it, it rises out of the water. It is of the good period, well-worked with the hammer and faced with great precision, apparently belonging to the epoch of Alatri and Circeo. The employment of it as the substructure of the Spanish fortifications of the seventeenth century which now cover the isthmus with an intricate mass of works in the best style of that epoch, indicates the importance the site had in the contests between the Siennese, the French, and Philip II., as well as the solidity of the ancient work. Constructed of a hard limestone, though of extremely unequal texture, the drip and spray of incalculable centuries has left the surface so carious that I was at first sight disposed to regard it as a shell limestone of marine deposit and friable, and the work of a comparatively modern date; but when I found means to examine the stone closely, I found it of almost flinty hardness and containing no shells or other fossils, and that the carious condition was simply the work of time. The stones, some of them of approximately sixty cubic feet in size, were, as I found in subsequent researches, brought from the hills of the main land, and none of them from less than three or four miles away, as little or no loose stone occurs nearer.

Far more imposing, though presenting no feature of distinguishing novelty, are the Pelasgic ruins of Cosa, or Ansedonia, on a bold bluff a few miles to the south and looking down on the sea. The ruins of a double gate, of larger proportions than is usual, and grooved for a portcullis apparently, are of architectural interest, and the height of the wall in some places is remarkable as well as its preservation; but as a whole it is only another item in the great body of evidence of the power and prosperity of a civilization whose name has disappeared from history. Within a day's drive of this point are the ruins of what must have been great cities to the number of more than a dozen, some of which have even lost their names, and have not been inhabited since the formation of our oldest traditions. A magnificent piece of engineering work is to be seen below Cosa, and one which shows a knowledge of hydraulics equal to that of to-day. It is a drain made to carry off the water from the low lands between the hill of Cosa and the main range, whose sea end terminates in a tunnel cut through the solid rock, with a cross-channel cut in the rock also, so that the drain cannot be silted up by the wash of the sea, the two forming a T cut in the bluff with a wall defending the tunnel from the direct attacks of the waves. It is not, however, of the period of the construction of Cosa, for the workmanship is distinctly chisel-work, the mark of the chisel being everywhere visible; but it must be prior to the Roman conquest. It is a work well worth a visit from any one who is interested in the arts of the ancients. It contains the history of a long struggle with the elements, for it is clear that the drainage had been carried first through the low land close by, directly into the

sea, just as the people of Orbetello tried a few years ago to do a similar work; and that the engineers then found, as now, that the drain could not be kept from silting up, and that it had been seen, as later it is seen, that the drain must discharge into the deep sea; but the device of leaving a wall of the natural rock masking the mouth of the drain is one I have never seen elsewhere. The moderns, finding the drain necessary, had reopened it, but as the ancients did at first, through the beach, and had soon to accept the antique lesson and clear out the tunnel. W. J. S.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF THE DUCHESS OF ORLEANS.

PARIS, July 9, 1890.

OUR time is not fond of historical generalities and condensations. History has adopted the scientific method: it studies facts, it prefers what we call documents—that is to say, original letters, papers, memoirs. The 'Siècle de Louis XIV.' is still read, because it is Voltaire's—with a perfection of clearness, simplicity, rapidity, which has seldom been attained by any writer. But how many people read it twice? while you may read a hundred times, in a fragmentary manner, the Memoirs of Saint-Simon and the correspondence of Madame the Duchess of Orleans, the mother of the Regent.

Madame and Saint-Simon will always remain the permanent witnesses and, on many points, the permanent judges of the actors of the second half of the reign of Louis XIV. They will always be consulted; their judgments on men and things are invaluable. Of course they must be read with a critical spirit, as they had both strong prejudices; but their natures were fundamentally honest, they loved truth and righteousness, or what seemed to them righteousness. Their ideal was not the ideal of our time; but, such as it was, it stood well by them. It has always seemed extraordinary to me that Madame and Saint-Simon, who will be read in future ages when hundreds of other historians of the seventeenth century are forgotten, had both the most intense passion for rank; they never forgot for a moment what was due to a royal highness or to a duke and peer; but let us add at once that if they insisted on their rights, they did not ignore their duties: royal and aristocratic pride became for them a sort of virtue; it made them hate and despise what was low and ignoble. They both lived in the region of the mind where pride becomes dignity, truthfulness, and real excellence. Aristocracy ceases to be the characteristic of court life; it assumes its true character, it is the rule of the *best*. In this respect both Madame and Saint-Simon were eminently different from those who expected everything from the royal favor; they had not the spirit of Versailles, and they were thus able to judge Versailles, as it were, from the outside, though they were an integral part of it.

Madame had, besides, the advantage (I speak from the historical point of view) of being a foreigner; she was not blinded by the natural prejudices which inspire us with regard to those who belong to our race or family. She was the daughter of the Elector Palatine and of the Landgravine Charlotte of Hesse-Cassel, a thorough German, and a German of her time—a time when Germany had a number of small courts and of intellectual centres, with their independent and I might almost say their domestic life. Her father had suffered defeat at the battle of the White Mountains, and lost at the same moment the crown of Bohemia and his electorate. He spent some years in Holland and in England, with his uncle Charles I., and returned to Germany after the Peace of Westphalia (1648). Madame was born in 1652; her father and mother did not live well together, and Madame was really educated by her aunt, Sophia of Hanover. She remained with her from 1659 till 1663, at which time she returned to Heidelberg. She left Heidelberg in 1671, at the age of nineteen, to go to France, where she became the wife of Monsieur the brother of the King.

The two persons who really formed her mind were her father and her aunt Sophia. Her father contracted a morganatic marriage with the Baroness Louise of Degenfeld. He was of a gay and lively disposition, economical, a good father, very tolerant in religious matters, fond of the theatre, especially of the English theatre; he knew well the English, Italian, and French languages. He was much attached to his sister Sophia, who is well known by her Memoirs. I have had occasion to speak of her at some length in my review of a good book by M. Horric de Beaucaire, 'Éléonore Desmier d'Olbreuse, Duchesse de Zell.' The Duchess Sophia appears in her relations with Éleonore d'Olbreuse as very vindictive, aristocratic in the extreme, yet fond of jokes, even of coarse jokes.

The principal correspondent of Madame was her aunt Sophia. Leopold Ranke was the first to draw attention to these letters, and gave some extracts from them in his 'Französische Geschichte.' In a new edition of Madame's correspondence, just edited in three volumes by M. Ernest Jaeglé, professor of German at the military college of Saint-Cyr, we have now for the first time the whole of this correspondence. M. Jaeglé visited for this object the archives of Hanover, where these letters form twenty-four bundles. One hundred and fifty inedited letters have been translated from the original. To these are added a few which are in the royal library of Hanover (*fonds* Leibnitz). M. Bodeman had already used this *fonds* in his 'Briefwechsel zwischen Leibnitz und der Herzogin Elisabeth Charlotte von Orleans in den Jahren 1715 und 1716.'

The letters written by Madame to her half-sisters and brothers the Palatine Raugrafen have been published by M. Holland. Prof. Varrentrap of Marburg searched for the letters which she wrote to her father and mother; he supposes that the letters to the Electress Charlotte were burned, as well as those which were written to her father; one only of these last has been found. Among the regular correspondents of Madame was the eldest of the daughters of Monsieur, by his first marriage, the Queen of Spain, first wife of Charles II., and afterwards first wife of Philip V. None of these letters have been found in the Spanish archives; we may also consider as lost the letters of Madame to the second wife of Charles II., the Marie of Victor Hugo's 'Ruy Blas,' and to the Duchess of Este, her sister.

In the archives of Hanover are fortunately preserved, in a magnificent folio, many extracts of the letters which Madame, after the death of Louis XIV., wrote to the Princess of Wales, between 1715 and 1720 ('Auszug aus Madame, Duchesse d'Orléans, an ihre königliche Hoheit die Prinzessin von Wallis in den Jahren 1715 bis 1720 abgelassenen Schreiben,' etc.). Geheimrath von Praun published these extracts in Strasbourg in 1789, under the title of 'Anekdoten vom französischen Hofe, vorzüglich aus den Zeiten Ludwigs XIV. und des Duc Regent, aus Briefen der Mad. d'Orléans.' A year before this publication, a French translation, which is now rather rare, appeared, under the title 'Fragments de lettres originales de Madame Charlotte Élisabeth de Bavière, veuve de Monsieur, frère unique de Louis XIV.' (Paris, 1788).

Madame had a second correspondent in Hanover in the person of Herr von Harling, who had become the husband of her former governess, Fräulein von Offeln. In 1791, the letters to Harling appeared at Danzig with this title: 'Bekenntnisse der Prinzessin Elisabeth Charlotte, aus ihren Original-Briefen.' In 1820, there appeared in Leipzig a life of Madame with extracts of her letters, and in 1823 we note in Paris the 'Mémoires extraits de la correspondance allemande de la Duchesse d'Orléans.' Several editions of these Memoirs appeared in succession. The correspondence with the Raugrafen, which was kept in the archives of the Counts of Degenfeld, at Eybach in Würtemberg, was only brought to light in 1843 by Wolfgang Menzel, in the *Bibliothek* of the Literary Union at Stuttgart. Brunet gave a French translation of it in 1853, and in 1855 he published a more complete edition.

We must consider the edition which has now appeared as far superior to all the incomplete editions which we have mentioned in detail. We doubt if much more can be found in the archives of the various countries where Madame had correspondents. The letters have been arranged in their chronological order; an excellent index makes research easy. If there is anything to criticise, it is the translation itself. It seems to me that M. Jaeglé has been a little too careful to keep the Germanisms of Madame intact. There is a sort of affectation in saying, for instance, "Sa Dilection" (a translation of the German *Durchlaucht*), where he could easily have said Son Altesse, especially when the persons in question are princes of the royal family of France. The notes are exact and numerous, but they are too meagre; perhaps the publisher was afraid of augmenting the dimensions of his volume.

Such as it is, this publication will remain, we are inclined to believe, for a long time the standard edition of Madame's correspondence. Though I have read it over and over again in Brunet's edition, I have gone through these volumes with as much pleasure as if all its matter was new to me. There is a freshness in Madame's sensations and emotions which gives the reader a perpetual pleasure. Her powers of indignation are inexhaustible. She is all the time like a bird in a strange nest. She is touching at times—when she speaks, for instance, of the hours which she passed, in the early morning, on the hills of Heidelberg, eating cherries and dry bread. She loves her dear Palatinate; how could she like and admire those who devastated it? The glories of Versailles do not blind her. She hates the Jesuits, and hypocrites of all sorts. She remains a Protestant at heart; she falls asleep during the sermons she is made to hear. She is a German also, but she can admire, she even loves, Louis XIV., the most courteous of kings, who never fails to treat her with due regard and with kindliness. She is passionately fond of her son, but she never forgives him his mésalliance, his marriage with a natural daughter of the King. She sees in this unfortunate union the cause of all the disorders, not only of the Regent, but of the Regent's daughters. She hates Mme. de Maintenon, and speaks of her sometimes in the coarsest manner. Dress the *Misanthrope* of Molière in woman's clothes, place him in the French Court of the seventeenth century, among all the *Philintes* who are content to float with the tide of immorality and of corruption, and you have Madame. She is as eloquent, as unreasonable, as arbitrary, as unteachable as Molière's *Misanthrope*, as misera-

ble also, and incapable of putting her own mind and her own heart at rest; she is at the same time comical and tragical, almost ridiculous and almost sublime. Her tough and robust nature resists all the soft and enervating influences of the most refined Court. Her notion of duty is simple, even narrow, but no woman ever had it and preserved it so entire, and under so many difficulties.

Correspondence.

THE SEX OF SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of your editorial on "The Mythology of Silver," in your issue of July 17, 1890, and as throwing light on the vexed question of the sex of this deity of the American people, I send you the enclosed cartoon, reprinted in the *Kansas City Times* from the *Rocky Mountain News*. Coming as it does from the very heart of the silver region, and prepared presumably by an earnest devotee of the deity in question, it would seem to be very persuasive authority in favor of the opinion that silver is of the female sex.

It also, though most probably without having been so intended by the draughtsman, gives a clear idea of the effect of the adoption of the free-coinage policy, had the Senate Silver Bill become a law. "Mr. Gold Dollar" would undoubtedly have been "off his feet" in a short time after the inauguration of such a policy. Very truly,

A. R. Strother.

Kansas City, Mo., July 20, 1890.

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. will reprint from the Collected Works of Edward Fitzgerald, published last year, the 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám; and the first volume of 'Principles of Economics,' by Prof. Alfred Marshall.

'The White Mountains,' by the Rev. Julius H. Ward, will be issued at once by D. Appleton & Co.

Harper & Bros. will add to their series of translations from foreign authors Giovanni Verga's 'The House by the Medlar-Tree,' Englished by Mary A. Craig, with an introduction by Mr. Howells.

Mr. Frank Dempster Sherman will publish, through Houghton, Mifflin & Co., in the autumn, a new volume of poems entitled 'Lyrics for a Lute.'

Mr. Herbert Ward's 'Five Years with the Congo Cannibals' will be held back by the publishers, Robert Bonner's Sons, till October 15.

Mr. Frank Vincent's 'In and Out of Central America' (Appletons) is a little book in the author's now well-marked style—that of a hurried though sharp-eyed traveller, who gives his note-books in full, without troubling himself over native authorities or thinking the peoples he writes about worth careful study. The "out" part of the book—nearly one-half—ranges from Cambodia and Siam to Brazil and the Antilles.

The sixth volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of Washington' (Putnams) covers the period August 1, 1777–April 30, 1778, with the capture of Burgoyne, the loss of Philadelphia, and the rigors of Valley Forge, where, it is well to be reminded, on December 23, 1777, "we had in camp not less than 2,898 men unfit for duty by reason of their being barefoot and otherwise naked." Add to this distress the Gates-Conway cabal, and the trouble with foreign adventurers seeking commands in the army (there was even some friction over Lafayette); on the other hand, the invaluable accession of Kalb, Steuben, Pulaski, and Kosciuszko. The most important piece in the volume is a complete copy of Washington's paper to a Committee of Congress touching the reorganization of the army. On p. 347 there is an interesting foot-note on the employment of colored troops in Rhode Island, and Col. John Laurens's proposal to try the same thing in Virginia, as it would "advance those who are unjustly deprived of the rights of mankind to a state which would be a proper gradation between abject slavery and perfect liberty."

Mr. Andrew Clark's edition of Anthony Wood's 'Survey of the Antiquities of the City of Oxford' (1661-66) deals in the second volume, just issued from the Clarendon Press, with churches and religious houses. Comparatively little labor had to be expended upon the original chapters for this reprint. A map expressly compiled for the volume shows the academical and ecclesiastical buildings definitely stated to have been in Oxford in 1440. There is a selective index, which the general index in the concluding volume will supplant.

'Au Sud & au Nord,' by Xavier Marmier (Paris: Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern), is a hodge-podge of scraps from all sources on a great variety of topics which have no relation to each other or to the title of the book. It resembles nothing so much as an old-fashioned magazine or school-reader; indeed, the only use which it is fit to serve is as a reader for young people learning French, to whom one can safely give it, as it is quite harmless, although without any literary value. As a repertory of useful information it is not entirely reliable, for in reproducing Sydney Smith's celebrated passage concerning the taxes an Englishman has to pay, it conveys no hint that the conditions therein described have been entirely done away with.

'Die Achten-Lini' is a slight musical novelette by J. Dedekind (Brunswick: B. Goeritz; New York: Westermann), having a strong family resemblance to all musical stories, from 'Consuelo' down. It is marked by the same lachrymose sentimentality and the same excessive idolatry of the musical gift that make books of this class almost ludicrous to readers who are not ready to throw overboard all sense of proportion in judging of human life and human capacities. It is intended as a memorial of a German prima donna, Caroline Fischer-Achten, whose portrait (given as a frontispiece), though interesting, hardly justifies the glowing terms in which the author celebrates her beauty.

'Experimental Science,' by George M. Hopkins (Munn & Co.), is a book which will attract all who are in any way interested in physical experimentation. The author is a well-known writer for the *Scientific American*, and much of the material of this volume has appeared from time to time in the columns of that paper. In bringing together and arranging his articles in a connected and systematic form, Mr. Hopkins has rendered a valuable service to experimental physics; for not only does his book offer an excellent means for becoming practically acquainted with the most important facts and principles of natural philosophy, but the ingenuity and effectiveness of the experiments which it describes, and the simplicity of much of the apparatus employed in their performance, must incite the interest of many who find the usual text-book description forbidding and its experiments impossible. Moreover, the book is full of suggestiveness to teachers of physics in their preparation for class-room demonstration. The author took the precaution to perform nearly all the experiments at the time of writing, so that the reader may depend upon that accuracy of detail which will insure success in their repetition. The 600 or 700 engravings, most of which were made expressly for the text, form a special feature and cannot be too highly praised. All the usual subjects of natural philosophy are fully treated, and there are also excellent chapters on microscopy, lantern projection, and on mechanical operations—the last containing many helpful directions for working in glass, soldering, moulding, and other matters of practical manipulation.

Mr. P. Vanderbilt Spader of New Brunswick, N. J., has printed his weather record for the interval 1847 to 1890, for private circulation. It is less full in the earlier years, but from 1857 the maximum and minimum temperatures and the precipitation are complete. The monthly totals of rainfall and the extremes of temperature are tabulated at the end of the volume. Mr. Spader has now discontinued his observations, owing to failing sight; but his record will be kept up by a young friend, Mr. C. V. Meyers, to whom the instruments are given. The mean annual precipitation is 46.82 inches; but for the last three years the total has been excessive: 51.84, 59.00, and 61.30. The mean temperatures are not deduced; the extremes are —12° for January, 1873, and 98° in July, 1866, giving an absolute range of 110° in thirty-three years.

'The Fossil Butterflies of Florissant' is an interesting paper on the Lepidoptera of the tertiary formations by Samuel H. Scudder, of thirty-five pages and two plates, from the eighth annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey. To the ten known from elsewhere seven species, representing six new genera, are added. These Colorado butterflies are all of extinct genera with nearest living affinities among tropical forms, which is in accord with other evidence of subtropical conditions during the tertiary much nearer the poles than at present. The fact that these fossil species possess a characteristic feature of the family ranking highest among the living—atrophy of the front legs in one or both sexes—moves the author to say: "We must therefore look for the proofs either of great acceleration in development when butterflies first appeared, or of the existence of butterflies at a far earlier period than we yet know them." In the absence of any proof that such acceleration occurs or has occurred, we should choose the latter alternative, and search for butterflies in much lower formations.

Part 8 of the 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften' (Westermann) is mostly taken up with the last part of the long article on banking, and with articles relating to the peasant class, embracing rural economy generally, and more especially the history of the emancipation of agricultural laborers from serfdom and other forms of bondage in various countries. Among the countries embraced in the list is Japan, which is treated by Dr. Inazo Ota-Nitobe, who writes German very well, and is the author of a work, published in Berlin, on Japanese land tenure. He describes the changes brought about by the abolition of the feudal system in 1871, the chief among them being that the tillers of the soil, instead of paying a tribute in kind to the feudal lord, now pay a money tax to the State, and are at liberty to sell or mortgage their holdings. The effects of the reform have not been altogether beneficial, many of the farmers being hopeless-

ly in debt, while the rice crop, being no longer under inspection, has deteriorated in quality, in the anxiety to increase its quantity.

Maps of the South Pole, of the western half of Polynesia and the Pacific Ocean, and of Eastern China, Corea, and Japan, make up Part 23 of the new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann). Each plate comprises several side-maps.

The 'Contributions to American Educational History,' edited for the Bureau at Washington by Dr. Herbert B. Adams, have just been extended by a monograph on the History of Education in Alabama, by Willis G. Clark of Mobile. As this State had in its present territory only 3,481 white inhabitants in 1810, it may be supposed that Mr. Clark's tale is somewhat meagre. He fills, however, nearly 300 pages, with the usual illustrations.

The latest of the Publications of the American Economic Association, Baltimore, is a double number, consisting of (1) "The Canal and the Railway," with a note on the development of railway passenger traffic, by Prof. E. J. James; and (2) "Canals and their Economic Relation to Transportation," by Prof. Lewis M. Haupt.

The late Gen. Frémont was engaged at the time of his death on a paper for the *Century Magazine's* forthcoming series on the California Gold-Hunters. It will be completed by Mrs. Frémont. A portrait of the Pathfinder, after an early daguerreotype, will appear in the September issue.

In the July number of the *Library Journal* attention is called to the endeavor of the New York Library Club to compile a Library Manual of New York city and vicinity which, for the first time, will reveal the extent and characteristic collections of the upwards of 125 libraries hereabouts, with their upwards of two million volumes. The fifth inquiry of the Club's circular reads: "General character of the Library"; and the seventeenth: "Specify field in which the Library is strong: specialties if any, and character and extent of any special collections." These are of the first importance to students. Other inquiries relate to conditions of use, catalogues, rate of growth, etc., etc.

We read in the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library at Florence of the publication of vol. i. of the national edition of Galileo's Works from the MSS. preserved in that library. Only five hundred copies are printed, and none are for sale, distribution to learned societies the world over being confided to the Minister of Education. A smaller and less costly edition, however, will eventually be brought out for the public at large. The same library has just acquired a remarkable collection of notices concerning persons, families, districts, and events in Tuscany, gathered from printed books, codices, and MSS. in the Florentine libraries and archives by the late Gargano Gargani, who died last year at the age of sixty-nine. It is styled 'Il Poligrafo Toscano,' and is extremely voluminous. Finally, we are told of two bibliographies—one tentative, of arts and trade corporations, by G. Gonetta, in his forthcoming 'Storia delle Associazioni di previdenza in Italia'; the other, very copious, of Italian helminthology, in three parts, viz., an author-catalogue, a systematic catalogue of worms, and a chronologic history of the science in the peninsula.

The Secretary of the Treasury has decided that the blocks of Mr. Cole's woodcuts for the *Century* are not works of art, and are therefore subject to a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem, which amounts to nearly $100 on each block. It would be interesting to have the definition of art which expresses the conception of it by the Secretary. A copy of any work of art is not a work of art, clearly, for the engraving of Mr. Cole is only a copy on wood capable of being multiplied; but if it is not art, then all the academies of the Old World are ignorant of art, for the engraver is recognized as one of the artists who may even be accorded the *Grand prix de Rome* with the painters, the sculptors, the architects, and the musicians; and certainly no school of art in the world would agree with the Secretary in his decision that Cole's engravings are not art. It is said of a foolish French King that he once declared himself independent of the grammar of his language, but it is reserved for an American Secretary of the Treasury to declare his independence of the dictionary and the opinions of the experts in art. Seriously, this is getting funny; the Secretary probably does not know the difference between a process block and an engraving. The photographers have been discussing the question whether photography is art or not, but the doubt is solved for them, since if Cole's work is not art, no form of reproduction can be.

—On the title-page of the twenty-second volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), the name of Sidney Lee appears for the first time in conjunction with that of Leslie Stephen. Mr. Lee's name is less well known than his chief's; it is not, for example, included (as yet—there will be a supplement) in Gubernatis's 'Dictionnaire International des Écrivains du Jour,' now in the letter P. His contributions, many of them important, show his field to be the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, with a preference for the poets. Mr. Stephen's principal article in vol. xxiii. is on Thomas Gray, whose other talents than the poetic are so little appreciated. We do not allude to his letters, of which Mr. Stephen says that they are "all but the best in the best age of letter-writing." The historian Grote, we believe, receives in nine pages more attention than any other personage in this volume, and it is recorded that the weight of his brain (49.75 oz.) "was surprisingly small for a man of his stature and size of head." John Richard Green is the most eminent of those whose death occurred on this side of the imaginary line (1880) at which the Dictionary halts. Another exception is Thomas Hill Green (briefly sketched by Mr. Stephen); a third, that energetic Lord Mayor of Dublin, journalist and M.P., Edward Dwyer Gray; a fourth, Edmund Gurney, the light of the Psychical Research Society; a fifth, W. R. Greg, and a sixth, his son, Percy Greg, whose inherited pessimism was concentrated upon the United States, of which he attempted to write the history from the Confederate point of view. He is well styled an "embittered adversary of the American Union," in spite of a "tender vein of lyrical poetry." An odd American connection is furnished by James Pierrepont Greaves, an English mystic, who died in 1842 "at Alcott House, Ham, so named after Amos Bronson Alcott, the American transcendentalist, with whom he had a long correspondence." Other names possessing a cisatlantic interest are Grenville, to whom we were indebted for the Stamp Act, and to that extent for independence; Gen. Charles Grey, who routed Gen. Anthony Wayne; John Greenwood, a Bostonian, who became in Europe a distinguished portrait-painter; and the Quaker philanthropist, Joseph John Gurney, whose visit to this country in 1840 was an event in his own denomination, and was attended with some honors from statesmen at Washington not averse to attracting the Quaker vote. The volume opens with the Gray tribe, embraces the Greens in their diverse spellings, and ends with Haighton, and we may be pretty sure that it marks the middle term of the great series in which it belongs, and whose execution is truly beyond praise, as the labor spent upon it is, we fear, at the best, beyond any adequate reward.

—Two publications of unusual interest are added to the "Tudor Library" (London: David Nutt). The first is a reprint of Sir Thomas More's translation and paraphrases from Giovanni Pico della Mirandola. It includes his nephew's biography of the philosopher, three of his letters, his interpretation of Psalm xvi., his twelve rules of a Christian Life, his twelve points of a Perfect Lover, and his deprecatory hymn to God. An admirable introduction, describing the career and the character of the thought of Pico, together with ample notes, is furnished by the editor, Mr. J. M. Rigg. The selections made by Sir Thomas More give mainly the spirit of piety which governed Pico's Christian life, and in the prose portion there is much fine sincerity expressed with the ancient dignity and largeness of the English tongue. In the poems, which are expanded, for the most part, from Pico's prose, there is more crudeness, with only an occasional good line, but the same pious feeling controls all of them, the "twelve points of a Perfect Lover" being applied solely to the love of God. The edition, which is very handsomely printed and made, is limited to 500 copies. The second publication is of very different and much greater interest. It is a reprint of Angel Day's version, through Amyot's French translation of the old Greek romance of 'Daphnis and Chloe,' from the unique original in the Huth Library. From Amyot the Elizabethans also took Heliodorus and North's Plutarch, but the popularity of pastorals rather than of Amyot probably accounts for Angel Day's attempt to English the idyllic romance in 1587. He interpolated into it a "Shephard's Holiday," in which the swains sing in succession the praises of "Our Eliza," with much better good-will than poetry. The prose of the book, however, though often complicated and long-drawn-out, is constantly visited by the Elizabethan felicity, and sufficiently ornamented besides with Arcadian phrase, to make the work a treasure-trove. Of the well-known story, so long classical in the French of Amyot, but never naturalized in English, it is superfluous to speak. It belongs with the true pastoral, with the naïveté of the primitive love tale, with 'Aucassin and Nicolette.' Many passages of charming feeling, of pretty orchard and fountain scenes, of true romantic adventure, of the wanton naked child in the Greek idyls, and the cave of the nymphs that is almost Renaissance in flavor, of strange battle, shipwreck, and rustic humor, could be cited to tempt the reader, with their original beauty and the sweetness of the phrase, often struggling with the awkward vehicle of Angel Day's language, but also often shining out clear and pure. The volume will find great favor with lovers of Elizabethan literature, and the editor, Joseph Jacob, has given a sufficient account of the history of the romance in his Introduction. This edition is also of 500 copies.

—A second edition of Dr. Otto Schrader's 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte,' revised and enlarged, has been made accessible to the English public through an excellent translation by Mr. F. B. Jevons, under the title of 'Pre-

historic Antiquities of the Aryan Peoples' (Scribner & Welford). As we have just given at some length an account of the present state of the Aryan question in a notice of Canon Taylor's 'Origin of the Aryans,' we have only space now to call attention to the merits of this learned treatise, which approaches the subject by a combination of philological and archæological investigation. The work is divided into four parts. The first two are purely philological, and are devoted to the history of linguistic philology, and to an explanation of the method and the principles of criticism of research by means of language and history. The last two are archæological, and treat of the first appearance of the metals, especially among the Indo-Germanic peoples, and of the Primeval Period, considered under the several headings of animals and plants, agriculture, computation of time, food and drink, clothing, dwellings, traffic and trade, culture, including the prehistoric monuments, and especially the Swiss lake-dwellings, the family and the state, and religion. The concluding chapter is devoted to the question of the original home of the Aryans, in which the author finds the prehistoric place of union between the Eastern and Western Indo-Europeans in the South Russian steppes, about half-way up the Volga. An index of authors quoted, and complete indexes, by different languages, of all the various works cited, add greatly to the utility of this valuable and scholarly work.

—M. Édouard Rod began in the *Revue Bleue* of June 14 what promises to be a series of distinctly interesting articles under the title of "Les Idées Morales du Temps Présent." These articles will appear not consecutively, but at irregular intervals, and will be devoted to the opinions in regard to some great moral questions of several writers who, though their works may differ widely in respect of form, may be held to be in one way or another guides of modern thought. M. Rod seeks to find what solution such writers have given to moral problems like these: Do men depend on a supernatural power? Do they pursue an end, and, if so, what end? What is *le bien?* To what rule of conduct is one bound to submit his life? All these are questions which, he thinks, are coming back again more and more every year into the foreground of literature. There is one obvious danger that attends a task such as that which M. Rod attempts, and that is the risk of piecing together bit by bit a moral system out of passages gathered here and there from an author's work, and so furnishing him with a body of doctrine, a hard-and-fast morality, which he would not recognize as his own when he saw it. M. Rod, one is glad to see, perceives this danger clearly, and does his best to lessen it by a note of warning at the bottom of his first page. He will avoid as much as possible, he says, introducing any factitious cohesion between the ideas, often fragmentary and sometimes contradictory, of his authors. "Not one of them has a *morale* in the systematic sense of the word; what we must look for are opinions—sometimes even less than that, simple indications, uncertain *données*. Taken out of the body of his work, these indications and these *données* may perhaps take on a signification more doctrinal and more absolute than they really have in the author's thought." Whatever may be the measure of success that M. Rod attains in avoiding the risk that he points out, at the least he has treated his readers very fairly in apprising them of it and running up a danger signal.

BROWN'S BEGINNINGS OF KENTUCKY.

The Political Beginnings of Kentucky: A Narrative of Public Events bearing on the History of that State up to the Time of its Admission into the American Union. By John Mason Brown. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co., 1889.

In this monograph, published under the auspices of the Filson Club, the main thesis expounded by Littell in his 'Political Transactions in and concerning Kentucky, from the first settlement thereof until it became an independent State,' is reaffirmed, with the addition of new and valuable materials drawn from before unpublished letters, from the archives of the Spanish Government, from the colonial records of Canada, and from many other original sources. The tract of Littell, we learn, has become rare, and it was well to reëxamine its political point of view in a purely historical spirit. Instructive as it may be for the documents it preserves, and interesting as it certainly is for the cross-light it sheds on a critical period in our Western annals, it must yet take rank, in point of form, as a purely polemical pamphlet, compiled under the fervors of the controversy which came to a white heat at the West during the year 1806, when the manœuvres of Aaron Burr and the counter-irritants of his Federalist foes had stirred up afresh the live coals deposited at an early date in the ashes of Kentucky politics.

The elements of political history in Kentucky are vivid and picturesque beyond those of any other Western State, compounded as those elements are from heroic adventures peculiar to its early settlers, from wild forays and Indian raids on the border, from secret intrigues of Spanish and British emissaries, from popular discontents arising between the trans-Alleghany district and the parent State of Virginia, from factional fights in its home politics, from radical agitations nourished by its "Democratic Societies," and especially from that long struggle for the rights of independent Statehood which, in one phase or another, extended from 1782 to 1792, and which led to the formal assemblage of eight separate conventions. The traces of this chronic political unrest may be discerned in the overready sympathy that was given by certain of the Kentucky "patriots" to the Gallican propagandism of Genêt, to the nullifying "Resolutions of '98 and '99," and, at a later date, to the covert schemes of Aaron Burr, when, in 1806, that wily adventurer broke through all the toils that were set for him by Joseph Hamilton Daveiss, his Federalist prosecutor. And the traces of this same political unrest have been permanently preserved for us in the fierce polemic of Humphrey Marshall's 'History of Kentucky,' which, as published in 1812, did but give literary form and plausible logic to the extreme Federalist view of the transactions that marked the political beginnings of Kentucky.

It was contended by Marshall that the Republican founders of Kentucky were involved for years in some sort of guilty confederacy with the Spanish authorities at New Orleans or with the Spanish Minister at New York; that in pursuit of this confederacy, beginning, it may be, with temporary commercial arrangements, inspired by private gain, they had not scrupled, in the end, to plot with Spanish agents for the permanent political severance of the Western country from the States of the Atlantic border; that these disloyal plots were nurtured and sustained by Spanish bribes, and that their disastrous issue was defeated only by the resolute antagonism of a few faithful citizens who dragged the meditated treason into the light of day.

It is the aim of Col. John Mason Brown to show that these inculpations of Marshall are utterly without foundation. To this defensive purpose he is animated alike by a personal and by a patriotic motive. His distinguished ancestor, John Brown, was not only the honored friend of Jefferson and Madison, but was also called to play the foremost part in the political beginnings of Kentucky. He was Kentucky's representative in the Legislature of Virginia, her district delegate in the Continental Congress, her favorite counsellor in the primary assemblies of the people, and her chosen Senator for the first twelve years after the admission of Kentucky into the Union. The author of this monograph maintains that no man among the contemporaries who acted with John Brown in the early political transactions of Kentucky "ever knew or believed or suspected" that Brown or Innes, or any of those who followed their lead, "had ever entertained a thought other than that of entering the Union as a sovereign State, or a plan inconsistent with that thought." It is admitted that Brown, while a member of the Continental Congress, frequently had interviews with Gardoqui, the Spanish Minister, on the commercial and political relations of Kentucky with the Mississippi River; that Gardoqui offered alluring terms to Kentucky in case she would secede from Virginia and from the Federal Union; that Brown communicated these terms to confidential friends in Kentucky who were laboring to effect the separation from Virginia, and that some of those who engaged in this work of separation, such as Judge Sebastian and Gen. Wilkinson, were found to have been, at a later date, the stipendiaries of Spain. But it is maintained by the author that John Brown during all this time was friendly to the Union, as well in heart as in specific purpose, and that, if he forbore to publish and expose the enticements of Gardoqui, it was because of a reason approved by Madison, who feared that the premature publication of such seductive proposals from Spain might have a disturbing influence on the councils of the Kentucky people at a time when, more than ever, it was desirable to secure their allegiance to the new form of government which it was hoped to establish on the basis of the plan concerted by the Federal Convention of 1787. It is certain that Brown did confide the revelations of Gardoqui to Madison.

It seems to us that, without default to his defensive purpose, the author might have made his argument still more effective if he had not tried to prove too much with regard to the secret motives and ultimate aims of Brown and of those who acted with him in the political beginnings of Kentucky. The picture of the times here given is perhaps somewhat deficient in point of historical background and of historical perspective. It lacks what the artists of the brush technically call "atmosphere." The motives and aims of the men who founded Kentucky are put in the foreground, with too much of definition drawn from the light of a later period. The motives and aims which were proper enough in 1786 do not need for their justification to be squared at all points with the motives and aims which came to be of bounden obligation after our Federal Government was in the "full tide of successful experiment." In the year 1786, for instance, we find Madison writing that it had become a question whether it were "possible or worth while to preserve the Union of the States." A few months later, in view of the then menaced surrender of the right to navigate the Mississippi River, he

asked whether it would be "an unnatural consequence" if the Western people, from interests of their own, "should consider themselves absolved from every Federal tie." Early in 1787 he thought there was much ground to apprehend that the ambition of individuals, mixing itself with the impulses of resentment and interest, would lead the inhabitants of the West to "set up for themselves." In the month of August, 1787, he wrote to Jefferson that there was good ground to believe that Spain was taking advantage of the disgust created in Kentucky by the proposed surrender of the Mississippi, and was endeavoring to seduce her people from the Union "by holding out a darling object which will never be obtained by them as a part of the Union." He added that this "is a fact as certain as it is important," though it was one which he could only hint "in strict confidence." So late as the month of March, 1789, he refers to Col. Morgan's colonizing scheme at "New Madrid" as being only a sequel of the Spanish plan "of making the Mississippi the bait for a defection of the Western people," and under the same date he expressly states that "some of the leaders in Kentucky are known to favor the idea of connection with Spain."

It is plain, then, that from 1786 to 1789 there was a Spanish plot in the air for the separation of Kentucky from the Union; that this plot was well known to Brown; that he communicated it to two of his confidential associates in Kentucky for their information and guidance; that Madison was well aware of it, not only from the communications of Brown, but also from the revelations made by Gardoqui to the other members from Virginia in the Continental Congress. Madison records that these delegates held "a free conversation" with the Spanish Minister in the month of March, 1787, on the relations of the Western Territory to the Mississippi River. The delegation informed Gardoqui that a "concerted occlusion" of the river, such as he demanded, would produce an unfriendly temper in the Western people "against both Spain and the United States," with the probable result of throwing the whole western country into the arms of Great Britain. The Spanish diplomatist, on his part, intimated to the Virginians, "with a jocular air," that the Western people might become "good Spanish subjects" for the advantages attached to that character; and, "with a serious air," that such an idea "had been brought forward to the King *by some person connected with the Western country*" (Madison Papers, vol. ii., pp. 599-601). It further appears from the correspondence of Madison at this epoch that the delegates from Virginia "entered into very confidential interviews" with Otto and De la Forest (the representatives of France near our Government), on the relations of the Mississippi to the Western people.

It will thus be seen that the head and front of Brown's alleged offending in this matter was merely part and parcel of a general agitation prevailing at that time in the councils of all who were interested in the navigation of the Mississippi River. No secret was made in any quarter concerning the possible issues that were dependent on the settlement of the question raised by Spain against the natural rights of the United States. When Brown communicated to his political friends the nature and purport of Gardoqui's overtures offering to the Kentuckians favorable terms of commercial intercourse in case Kentucky should secede from the Union, it is not clear, as Marshall inferred, that Brown favored the acceptance of the offer. Neither is it clear that he spurned the suggestion with indignation. It is probable that he preferred to practise in the premises a "masterly inactivity," and that he held the matter under advisement while waiting and watching the drift of events. In the very act of communicating the tempting offer of the Spanish Minister he made it plain to his correspondents that, for himself, he had "sanguine hopes" that the new Government about to be framed under the Constitution of 1787 "would answer the expectations of its friends." This certainly is not the language of a man who was in haste to sell out his country to Spain.

At the same time he did not allow his zeal for the Union to eat him up, or to eat up the offer of Gardoqui. He seems to have thought that a prudent *ménagement* was, for the time, a dictate of sound policy. In order to justify this cautious reserve, in the full light of all the surroundings in which he was placed, it does not seem necessary to blink any of the facts which may have put a stress on his prudence without putting a stress on his patriotism. It may even be contended that his political wisdom would rather gain than lose by crediting him with that large discourse of reason which looked before and after in the darkness and confusion of a troubled epoch. It is not clear to us that he was rather cunning than wise in all his dealings with Gardoqui. Yet the author prefers to believe that the contest between Gardoqui and Brown was a contest of wits; that Gardoqui was "deficient in perspicacity," and that, therefore, when called to confront new and complicated issues, he was "completely read and understood by the men whom he thought he was manipulating." This seems to us a little like forcing a verdict in favor of the defendant, when an honorable verdict might rather be claimed on a prima-facie view of the facts in the case, without resorting to any supposed ingenuity of Brown in "escaping the trap and fathoming the plan of Spain." The world is not so much governed by individual finesse as partial biographers are fain to assume. A natural political selection plays much the largest part in determining the logic of all great public events.

Very interesting in this treatise is the honorable place assigned by the author to the zealous efforts put forth by the primitive clergy of Kentucky to protect the State from a recognition of slavery in its organic polity. The Baptist preachers of this early period, for the most part illiterate men, are represented to have taken the lead in opposition to slavery, though they were ably reinforced by the learned David Rice, "the father of Presbyterianism in the West." So strong was the anti-slavery sentiment in the Constitutional Convention that it required all the persuasive eloquence and all the personal popularity of George Nicholas to outweigh the force of the moral objections urged by the minority against any toleration of the curse in the organic law. The slavery article was carried by a vote of twenty-six against sixteen, but in this minority "the religious opinion of the delegates," says the author, "was unanimous for abolition." Religious societies for the abolition of slavery continued to be formed in Kentucky as late as the year 1807. One of the Baptist societies, more happy in its object than in its choice of a name, was known as "The Baptized Licking-Locust Association, Friends of Humanity." In the end, however, as we know, a pro-slavery sentiment became dominant in the social institutes and political counsels of the State. It was not least among the evils of slavery that it tended to create a moral cowardice, if not a moral hypocrisy, in the presence of a system which was secretly felt to be wrong. A proof of the fact may be seen in the quick moral rebound of conscience, now that the weight of the system has been lifted from the South. A similar proof may also be found in the praise now so generously awarded to the early Abolitionists.

But for the untimely death of the respected author of this treatise, we might have ventured to hope that in a future edition he would not have been unwilling to set his story in that larger historical framework which seems to us more in keeping with his subject and with the spirit of his chosen epoch. Certain statements, too, call for some modification. It is not quite accurate to say that the Continental Congress "acquiesced" in Virginia's claim to her "back lands." A reference to the 'Thomson Papers,' as published by the New York Historical Society in its collections of 1878, would have checked the generality of this statement, and would have placed the early agitation of Kentucky for Statehood in a fierce light that has escaped the notice of the writer. The defence of the Kentucky worthies on the ground of contemporary public opinion would seem also to call for a more discriminating discussion in view of certain allegations found in such a familiar work as Clark's 'Proofs' of Gen. Wilkinson's "guilt," containing as that work does a letter from Joseph Hamilton Daveiss to President Jefferson, in which, under date of March 28, 1806, it is charged that Brown could not be damaged by the imputation of undue sympathy for Spain, because such a sympathy was universal in his party. In a second edition it would seem desirable that the Spanish originals of Gardoqui's letters should be published in the Appendix, and certainly it should not have been hinted that some of these letters contain insinuations against the political constancy of Richard Henry Lee and of Col. Henry Lee without giving more at length the exact text of the documents. We regret to say that this instructive monograph abounds with misprints "too tedious to enumerate," due, doubtless, to the fact that the learned author did not survive to read the proofs; but surely the "Printers to the Filson Club" should have taken enough care of the curious French original published in the Appendix to prevent it from reading, in spots, like a piece of typographical "pi," or like some uncouth variety of the Welsh tongue mitigated by a few stray vowels.

TWO BOOKS ON PALESTINE.

Palestine under the Moslems: A Description of Syria and the Holy Land from A. D. 650 to 1500. Translated from the Works of the Mediæval Arab Geographers by Guy Le Strange. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890. 12mo, xxii, 604.

Palestine. By Maj. C. R. Conder, D.C.L., R.E. ["The World's Great Explorers."] Dodd, Mead & Co.

In the first 378 pages of 'Palestine under the Moslems,' the history and topography of Syria and Palestine in general, and of the cities of Jerusalem and Damascus in particular, are treated in a connected form, though a great part of the matter is a pretty faithful translation (to judge by the style) of the Arabic writers. Twenty-two of these and two writers in the Persian tongue are named in the introduction, beginning with Ibn Khurdâdbîh in 864, and closing with Mujîr ad Dîn in 1496. The second part (pp. 378-557) is an alphabetic list of places, with descriptions, references to the geographers, and the compiler's own surmises and those of other modern scholars as to identification. The last forty-six pages

are an index of names, in which the Arabic spelling (in letters without vowel points) is added to many of the transliterated forms.

The author has adopted a plan of writing Arabic words and names, not uncommon among English Orientalists, which in a book not necessarily as dry as this might be denounced as pedantic; that is, he uses only the three vowels *a*, *i*, *u*, and, when lengthened, *â*, *î*, *û*, for the Arabic Fet'ha, Kesra, and Dhamma; thus presenting to us the now not quite unfamiliar *Muhammad*, *Makkah*, *Madinah*, always spelling the article *Al* for *El*, etc. If the book was written for Arabic scholars, Mr. Le Strange might have gone a step further, and distinguished the energetic consonants for *h*, *t*, *z*, *s*, *d*, and *k* from those representing the ordinary sounds, by a diacritical dot, as is often done even in popular works dealing with Arabdom. However, the equivalent in Arabic letters is given in the appendix for almost every geographic name found in the volume. The importance of the distinction lies in this, that the "energetic" *h*, *ṭ*, *z*, *ṣ*, *ḍ*, and *ḳ* represent quite different Hebrew letters from those represented by the non-energetic sound; for which reason, among others, Major Conder, himself a novice in Arabic, took good care to have every local name written out for him by a scholarly native.

The many versions of local legends, among which that of the Seven Sleepers is very fully treated, form the most readable part of the book. There are seventeen illustrations, mostly ground-plans of sacred buildings; a map of Palestine, on the authority of the Arab geographers; and a map of Jerusalem and its environs, referred to 985–1052. The plans are all drawn to a scale. Altogether, the aim of the writer seems to have been to exhibit his *Gründlichkeit*, a quality for which there ought to be a good English word, as Englishmen nowadays rival in this respect their German cousins.

Captain, now Major, Conder began his work under the auspices of the Palestine Exploration Fund in 1877, and was engaged upon it, with some intermissions, for no less than six years, taking in Judea, Samaria, Galilee, and the adjoining parts of Phœnicia and Syria, Moab and Gilead. His name has long been familiar to those interested in Biblical antiquities from the several reports, books, and magazine articles in which he from time to time gave the result of his observations and his opinions on controverted historic points. In the present volume the thread of the story follows his wanderings and adventures, as he leads his band of surveyors, with their theodolites and levels and chains, from town to town, and through desert and mountain defile, but is intermingled with a short account of all noteworthy monuments, from those set up by his fancied "Mongolian" rulers of the land in the days of Abraham to the last fastnesses and chapels of the crusaders. It is, moreover, adorned with discussions on history, ethnology, language, and what not. Maj. Conder came to Palestine without knowing a word of either Arabic or Hebrew. He learned both to qualify himself for his work, and acquired the spoken Arabic of to-day, as well as the literary tongue—the former well enough to lead his party without any interpreter into the desert of Moab and to work his way safely and peacefully, without passport or escort, among warring Bedouin tribes. Like all who have lived in Palestine long enough to put off the tourist, to feel at home among the unwonted scenes, and to converse with the natives in their own tongue, Maj. Conder affirms that no one who has not been on the spot can feel the full import of Bible story or of Bible poetry. Nor has he any confidence in the Bible criticism of men, like Kuenen or Wellhausen, who draw their conclusions only from printed books, or at best from old manuscripts and inscriptions; and he holds, as against the destructive views of their inharmonious school, a strong faith in the substantial truth of the Scriptural narrative. The principal result of his labors is summed up in two appendices, one of which gives the longitude and latitude, in degrees and minutes, of four hundred and forty places named in the Old Testament (towns, mountains, fords, springs, wells, etc.); the other fixing in like manner the position of fifty-five names of New Testament geography. Maj. Conder claims that one hundred and forty of these places were first discovered and identified by himself, and the positions of many others corrected.

West of the Jordan, with a Turkish escort, and with the protection of the British Government to back him, the work went on well enough; but when he crossed into Moab in 1881, the conditions were greatly changed. The Sultan no longer looked upon the British as his friends, his firman was withdrawn, and the British Government notified Capt. Conder that it would no longer answer for his safety. With great risk to his own life and the lives of his followers, he nevertheless persisted, till he had triangulated about one-eighth of the territory of Moab. From his researches as a surveyor and his careful comparison of Hebrew and of modern Arabic names, correctly spelled, he concludes that the topography of the Old Testament is genuine—that is, that the writers were acquainted with the places which they speak of, which, he says, is not the case with the author of the apocryphal Book of Tobit.

He professes, however, to be somewhat more than a surveyor: "I was taught the elements of geology by more than one specialist well known by name in England, and . . . I always felt the necessity of studying the structure and the mineralogy of every district which we visited." These studies led to the conclusion that the soil and climate of Palestine have not changed since the days of the Hebrew Commonwealth, except so far as the soil may have deteriorated by the neglect of man. In the Fellahin or peasants of western Palestine, he finds the descendants of the old Canaanites, and detected Hebrew words in their daily speech (of which he instances *goren*, the threshing floor, and *moraj*, threshing sledge), which are not given in any Arabic dictionary. He speaks of these Fellahin as lower in both mind and morals than the true Arabs, though he ascribes no very high character to the latter. He attests the well-known fact that there is very little of Islam in the men of the desert, and adds that the religion of the peasants also is but slightly removed from paganism, and blames the leading men of Mohammedan countries for their neglect of home missions. He also tells us, what is not generally known, that a nomad tribe near Beersheba, in the desert of Judah, goes by the name of *Jahalîn* (the "Ignorant") for its utter disuse of any Mohammedan rites or customs.

Maj. Conder's favorite theory is that of the Turanian kinship of the Hittites (*Kheta* or *Khatu*), in which he is supported by Prof. Sayce. He regards it as an odd coincidence that the Turanian Turk should now rule over the land as the Turanian Hittite did in the days of Abraham. He states in a note to p. 241 that Hittite names of men and of places and words in a short bilingual inscription agree best with "a Turkic or Mongolic" dialect; and throughout his book he identifies Turanian and Mongolian with the utmost naïveté.

Among monuments none have interested him so much as the dolmens, of which he found and enumerates several hundred. He ascribes their origin both in Britain and in Palestine, at Stonehenge or on Mount Nebo, to the old Turanian inhabitants, and seeks to identify them with the *bamoth*, or high places, so often denounced by the prophets; and through these with the Greek βωμός (the Hebrew *bamah* is *bomoh* in Phœnician). Some of these dolmens, still standing on the hills of Moab, he thinks, might have been the altars set up by King Balak at the command of Balaam.

Major Conder has no patience with those who, like our own Col. Mallery, try to import savage superstitions, like the totem, into any age of Palestinian history. Major Conder tells us that he was in Bechuanaland between his first and his second sojourns in the Holy land; he knows what a totem looks like, and he found no trace of one in all Syria. We cannot agree with Major Conder's wholly unsupported assertion that the Hebrews of the First Commonwealth were not peasant proprietors, but held their lands as village communities, after the manner of Russia or India. Almost every book of the Bible bears testimony against this theory; and if we consider that among the crops of Palestine the date, the grape, and the olive are almost as important as wheat and barley, we see at once why individual ownership of land was a necessity. Even now, in many parts of Asiatic Turkey, it is common for a peasant to own a small clump or group of fruit trees with the ground on which they stand as the most valuable possession which he can hand down to his children. It was in the defence of his vineyard that Naboth lost his life, not of his wheat-field.

The book contains maps of Palestine, ancient, middle-age, and modern, physical and geological, but few other illustrations.

THE FABLES OF ÆSOP.

The Fables of Æsop, as first printed by William Caxton in 1484, with those of Avian, Alfonso, and Poggio, now again edited and induced by Joseph Jacobs. I. History of the Æsopic Fable; II. Text and Glossary. With full-page illustration by H. Ryland, and facsimiles of woodcuts in the original Caxton and from the Bayeux Tapestry. London: D. Nutt. [Bibliothèque de Carabas.] Two vols., 8vo, pp. xix, 283, 322.

ONLY a few months ago we reviewed at length Mr. Jacobs's valuable edition of Sir Thomas North's 'Fables of Bidpai,' in which he displayed remarkable ability in dealing with the complicated questions involved in the relation of Oriental to Occidental fables. We have now to notice another work in the same field by Mr. Jacobs, but of much wider range and more general interest.

It is seldom that so many important discoveries in any literary field have been made or suggested within the same space as in Mr. Jacobs's "History of the Æsopic Fable," prefixed to his reprint of the Caxton version of 1484. Although the Æsopic fable has been extensively discussed of late, no study of the entire field had been made before Mr. Jacobs's essay, and he has been able to gather up all the loose threads of his predecessors' work and weave them into a compact and brilliant web. The subject of fables has always been an attractive one to scholars, resting as it does almost entirely upon written literature, and thus differing essentially from the other related branches of folk-lore. The

earliest European collection of fairy tales, for example, is not older than 1550, and the connection between this and earlier Oriental collections is purely a matter of theory. On the other hand, from their semi-popular nature, fables have closely preserved the first literary form which they received, and also the form of the collections into which they were early gathered. This renders the tracking of a given fable in modern European literature to its original Greek or Indian home, through intermediate mediæval collections, a task usually of no great difficulty, and one which has recently become a fashion in literary history.

Nevertheless, there still remained unsolved problems enough to attract the attention of scholars. Some of these were: the relation between Greek and Indian fables, the composition and relation of the early collections, and the mode of their diffusion during post-classical times and the Middle Ages. Besides these general questions there was a multitude of particular ones, such as the age and authorship of certain collections and the relation of some famous mediæval collections to each other. All these points have engaged Mr. Jacobs's attention, and it may be well to pass briefly in review the most important results of his labors, and then to add a few remarks of our own.

Mr. Jacobs considers that the fable was developed independently in two countries alone, Greece and India, and only a few of the oldest Greek fables which we possess show signs of Indian influence. Originally a part of folk-lore, the fable became literature in Greece because it was made the medium of conveying political lessons at a time when, under the Tyrants, free speech was dangerous. In India the same result was produced by the use of fables by the founder of Buddhism to impart moral lessons. In Greece this use is connected with the name of Æsop, about whom so little is known that it has been suggested that he is himself a fable. All we know of him is contained in a passage of Herodotus (II., 134), from which we gather that he flourished about 550 B. C., was a slave at Samos, and was killed, probably by a decree of the Delphic oracle, and that compensation for his death was claimed by the grandson of his master. The various fables afloat under his name were collected, to the number of about two hundred, by Demetrius Phalereus (300 B. C.), and this collection, with interpolations and revisions of the Alexandrine grammarians, was turned into Latin iambics by Phædrus, a Greek freedman of Augustus, in the early years of the Christian era.

The Indian fables appropriated by the early Buddhists were also associated with the name of a mythical sage, Kâsyapa, and were probably carried over to Ceylon in 241 B. C. along with the Jâtakas. Some hundred of these were brought by a Cingalese embassy to Alexandria about 50 A. D., translated under the title of 'Lybian Fables,' and attributed to Kybises. This collection, Mr. Jacobs says, seems to have introduced the habit of summing up the teaching of a fable in the moral, corresponding to the gâtha of the Jâtaka.

In the Roman world, to quote Mr. Jacobs, the two collections of Demetrius and "Kybises" were brought together by Nicostratus, a rhetor attached to the court of Marcus Aurelius. In the earlier part of the next century (about 230 A. D.), this *corpus* of the ancient fable, Æsopic and Lybian, amounting in all to some 300 members, was done into Greek verse with Latin accentuation (choliambics) by Valerius Babrius, tutor to the young son of Alexander Severus. Still later, towards the end of the fourth century, forty-two of these, mainly of the Lybian section, were translated into Latin by one Avian, with whom the ancient history of the fable ends.

During the Middle Ages some eighty of Phædrus's fables were turned into prose and attributed to a fictitious Romulus. Other collections based on Phædrus were made in Normandy and England, one of which, by Walter the Englishman, was metrical, and became, as Mr. Jacobs says, the standard Æsop of mediæval Christendom. The fables of Avian had a similar fate, the prose version being turned into Latin, and sent forth through Europe from England.

A new Oriental element was added to mediæval fables about 1220 by Marie de France, who attributed the new fables she translated to King Alfred. These really consisted of a selection from Babrius turned into Greek prose, with the addition of some 60 from the Oriental Bidpai and other sources, but still passing under the name of Æsop. Mr. Jacobs shows how this collection, containing 164 fables, was brought to England after the Third Crusade of Richard I., and translated into Latin by an Englishman named Alfred, with the aid of an Oxford Jew. Part of Alfred's Æsop was translated into English alliterative verse, and this was translated about 1220 into French by Marie de France, with the attribution just noted.

The subsequent fate of the Æsopic fable may best be told in Mr. Jacobs's own words (p. 217):

"With the invention of printing, the European book of Æsop was compiled by Heinrich Stainhöwel, who put together the Romulus with selections from Avian, some of the Greek prose versions from Ranuzio's translation, and a few from Alfred's Æsop. To these he added the legendary life of Æsop and a selection of somewhat loose tales from Petrus Alphonsus and Poggio Bracciolini, corresponding to the Milesian and Sybaritic tales which were associated with the fable in antiquity. Stainhöwel translated all this into German, and within twenty years his collection had been turned into French, English (by Caxton, the book before us), Italian, Dutch, and Spanish. Additions were made to it by Brandt and Waldis in Germany, by L'Estrange in England, and by Lafontaine in France; these were chiefly from the larger Greek collections published after Stainhöwel's day, and, in the case of Lafontaine, from Bidpai and other Oriental sources. But these additions have rarely taken hold, and the Æsop of modern Europe is in a large measure Stainhöwel's, even to the present day. Selections from it passed into spelling and reading-books, and made the fables part of modern European folk-lore."

Such is a mere outline of the results of Mr. Jacobs's investigation into the history of the Æsopic fable, and he is frank enough to warn his reader that about two-thirds of this short history of the fable consist of discoveries or hypotheses of his own which have not yet gone through the ordeal of specialist criticism. Whatever may be the result of this ordeal, it is likely that enough will stand to entitle Mr. Jacobs to an honorable rank among Æsopic investigators.

We have space to examine but a few points of Mr. Jacobs's introduction. On p. 162, note, he cites among English forms in Marie de France's French the word "*hus*, our 'house,' for 'door.'" This is surely the good old French word for 'door,' spelled variously *huis, uis, ois, hues, huix, hus, us*, from the Latin *ostium*, and in nowise connected with the English "house." On p. 184, Mr. Jacobs cites as a proof of the popularity of the fable in England its extensive employment in the popular literature of anecdote and sermon. The list which he gives might easily be enlarged by the addition of such names as John Felton (flourished about 1430), whose inedited sermons contain many fables. It is, however, to be borne in mind that the use of stories in sermons was universal from the thirteenth century on, and fables were largely employed by preachers in all countries. On page 194 reference is made to the paucity of Æsopic fables in modern collections of folk-tales, and it is suggested that collectors have neglected them as something of comparatively little interest. We are inclined to think that, in fact, fables are of rather rare occurrence among the people. In Italy, for example, only about a dozen have thus far been collected (Mr. Jacobs does not refer to these, although a number of Æsopic fables are among them; see Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' pp. 150, 353), and by persons not ignorant of the value of fables when found. On page 199 the 'Disciplina Clericalis' of Petrus Alphonsus (it should be Petrus Alphonsi, or better, Alfonsi, the name of the royal sponsor being assumed in the genitive to mark the spiritual relationship of the godchild) is mentioned as a collection of tales intended for seasoning to sermons, hence the name. The 'Disciplina Clericalis' was written at the end of the eleventh or the beginning of the twelfth century. Now, the use of stories in sermons was introduced by Jacques de Vitry (who died in 1240), and we are not aware of any collections of stories designed expressly for use in sermons before the end of the thirteenth century. There were, of course, earlier collections of moral tales, like Gregory's 'Dialogues' (written in 593–4), but not intended expressly for the use of preachers. In this connection should have been mentioned the moralization of fables introduced by Odo de Ceritona (Eude de Cheriton), and continued by Cyril and Nicholas of Pergamos in the 'Speculum Sapientiæ' and the 'Dialogus Creaturarum.'

Mr. Jacobs has some interesting pages (204 *et seq.*) upon the subject of the fable in general, its origin and diffusion. The history of the fable is followed by a synopsis of parallels, and only those who have done similar work can appreciate the enormous labor condensed into thirty-eight pages of fine print and rendered accessible by two indexes, one of fables and the other of the authors cited in the synopsis. Practically this part of Mr. Jacobs's work is a supplement to the invaluable notes of Oesterley to Pauli's 'Schimpf und Ernst' and Kirchhof's 'Wendunmuth,' works now exceedingly scarce. It would not be impossible to make numerous additions to the references in the synopsis; but Mr. Jacobs has done enough to entitle him to the gratitude of all his fellow-students. The Caxton reprint is provided with a convenient glossary, and the book is published, in a limited edition, in the same dainty style as the others of the series, and adorned with a charming etching by Mr. Ryland. Last, but not least, Andrew Lang tells in a prefatory poem how Æsop missed his great opportunity.

Tennis, Lawn-Tennis, Rackets, Fives. [Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THE four divisions of this volume are edited by Messrs. J. M. Heathcote, C. G. Heathcote, E. O. P.-Bouverie, and A. C. Ainger—names well known in the different "courts" in which they practise—and they have called in to their assistance several other players, male and female, English and American, in order to make a symposium, after the fashion of the day, and give the public the benefit of their combined knowledge and experience,

Although ball games are not referred to in the Scriptures, recent excavations in the neighborhood of Cairo have brought to light wooden and leather balls, evidently used in such games, which are believed to be 4,000 years old. In later times the Greeks and Romans played games of ball, but we are without any definite information as to the nature of these games. The early middle ages were enlivened by the French *jeu de paume* and the Italian *pallone*, so called because the ball was struck with the palms of the hands. Then, as society became more luxurious, gloves were used to protect the hands, and afterwards came the first rude form of racquet—a spoon-shaped basket, such as is still used in the game of *pelote* played in the Basque provinces. In the fifteenth century it occurred to some inventive genius to substitute for this basket, strapped to the arm, a "battoir," or battledore, made of parchment, with a wooden handle, and it is recorded that when these battoirs became fashionable, and the supply of parchment ran short, the makers—instigated thereto, no doubt, by the school-boy of the period—used precious classical manuscripts, obtained from persons ignorant of their value! Such is believed to have been the ignominious fate of the lost books of Livy.

From this time on, the game of tennis, still called in France *jeu de paume*, and in Italy *la palla*, was the favorite game in all the courts of Europe, and the "battoir" was succeeded by a racquet resembling that now in use. By the time Henry VIII. built the tennis court at Hampton Court, about the year 1530, tennis had become the game of kings, if not the king of games, as its advocates love to describe it. Before this time, too, the various rules and customs of the game had become assimilated in different countries. In 1555 Messer Antonio Scaino, a priest and doctor of theology, published the 'Trattato della Palla,' giving the laws of the game as played in Italy, together with a history of *chases*, and in this book are found the terms "a due" and "vantaggio," which still survive in the modern "deuce" and "vantage." Shakspere often refers to tennis, making *Henry V.* say:

"When we have matched our rackets to these balls,
We will in France, by God's grace, play a set."

And Charles II. played tennis in the old Haymarket Court in London, which was still in use up to 1866. The game seems to have languished during the latter part of the last and the beginning of this century, perhaps because the young men were too busy fighting; but of late years it has taken a new lease of life, owing to the attention directed to it by the popularity of its offspring, lawn-tennis.

There are plenty of good reasons for the fascination which this venerable game exercises over the minds of its admirers. The exercise is not so severe as in racquets or lawn-tennis, and the game can be played at almost any age, while the *accuracy* of stroke, which is perhaps the most important element of success, is largely the result of practice, and can be attained by any one with unimpaired eyesight and a fairly strong wrist. When once the beginner has penetrated the mysteries of *chases*, which are simply lines marked on the floor of the court within one or other of which he must make the ball fall, and has learned how to *cut* the ball (Messer Scaino calls it *tagliare*) in order to make it difficult of return, he is well advanced on the road to success. Then he must cultivate a *cut* or *twisted* service, of which there are a good many varieties—indeed, a celebrated French player claimed that he possessed forty-two different ones, but so extensive a repertory is unnecessary; and, having reached this point, he will realize that the game is full of interesting possibilities.

He will find Mr. Heathcote an excellent adviser on all technical points, and if he follows his advice intelligently, he will go on improving until he exemplifies the truth of the old tennis adage: "A good player can generally get to the ball, and to a first-rate player the ball always comes." Before long the completion of the new court in Forty-third Street will give New Yorkers an opportunity of seeing the game played, of which they will doubtless avail themselves, for, as Mr. Heathcote remarks, "the Americans have recently taken up tennis with characteristic enterprise and spirit." This remark is fully justified by the fact that the tennis championship of the world has been held for the past five years by a citizen of Boston; and, to judge from the way in which Pettit defeated Saunders, the English champion, the other day, there is no immediate prospect of our being deprived of this honor. Mr. Heathcote finds fault with our players for having adopted a ball which is slightly slower than the English ball, and straightway recommends a ball made by one of the English makers, which is of less diameter than that called for by the rules given at page 62—an inconsistency which needs explanation.

In illustration of the natural blunders of the non-sporting part of the community, Mr. Heathcote says: "Most ladies believe that a ball struck horizontally over a net will bound off the ground vertically, while many statesmen and almost all lawyers shoot not in front of but straight at a bird flying across their line of vision." This sounds harsh, especially in view of Miss Dod's chapter on "Ladies' Lawn-Tennis" in the present volume; but, allowing for the usual exceptions, it must be admitted that the charge is not without justification. A certain Mlle. Margot is said to have played tennis in the fifteenth century in Paris, but, in spite of this historical precedent, and of Miss Dod's chapter aforesaid, it is the firm belief of most people who have had occasion to consider the matter, that the fair sex will never appear to great advantage in the lawn-tennis court. Ladies are badly handicapped in the matter of dress, and the increased exertion made necessary by this difficulty has, in many cases, done serious and permanent injury. Some exceptional young women may become senior wranglers and others may play excellent lawn-tennis, but they are more likely to succeed in the former direction than in the latter, and with less probability of suffering from the mental than from the physical strain. In 1888 Mr. Renshaw gave one of the English lady champion players the odds of 30 and another half 40, and he won on each occasion, showing how wide a difference exists between the best players of each sex.

The literature of lawn-tennis has become so extensive of late years that it is hardly possible to say anything new as to the origin, development, or best methods of playing the game. There is, therefore, very little in the lawn-tennis section of the present volume that calls for special mention except the excellent illustrations, many of which are from instantaneous photographs of well-known players, and the chapter giving useful information as to the best way of making the different kinds of courts. The game seems to hold its own all over the world, if the number of players is a fair test, and there is no doubt that the general standard of play is an improving one, even if that of the champion players is no higher than it was a few years ago. And yet the most enthusiastic lovers of the sport must admit that, by comparison with real tennis, the game of lawn-tennis is decidedly tame, lacking both variety and interest.

No historical or princely associations surround the origin of the game of racquets—or rackets, as it may also be spelled. On the contrary, it seems to have been first played in the Fleet prison at the beginning of this century, and was already an old game in that locality at the time of Mr. Pickwick's incarceration. It was afterwards played elsewhere, but always in open courts—that is, courts with only one wall; and it was after it had ceased to be played at the debtors' prison that the building of Prince's Courts, in 1853, introduced the modern game which is played in a four-walled court. It is a much faster game than either tennis or lawn-tennis, and for that reason can rarely be very well played by those who have lost the elasticity of youth; nevertheless, the connoisseurs who watched the games played in the New York court a few years ago will recall the successful efforts of at least one gentleman who had long passed the "mezzo del cammin di nostra vita." It is certainly a less interesting game than tennis, while on the other hand those who play both games will invariably prefer it to lawn-tennis, partly because it admits of harder hitting, and partly because of the difficulty of judging the angles made by the ball in the corners of the court.

The English game of fives, so called because the ball is hit with the hand or "bunch of fives," resembles the Irish game of hand-ball, and is no doubt the lineal descendent of the old "jeu de paume." The Eton game, which alone Mr. Ainger describes, is very complicated, and has no sufficient advantage over the plain-wall game to compensate for its needless detail. The simpler game is coming into vogue in our schools, and is an admirable exercise, as well as a good introduction to the more difficult court-games. It has, moreover, the great advantage of necessitating a comparatively small outlay in the construction of the court.

Lois françaises et étrangères sur la propriété littéraire et artistique, suivies des conventions internationales conclues par la France pour la protection des œuvres de littérature et d'art. Recueillies par Ch. Lyon-Cean et Paul Delalain. Paris. 1889. 2 vols., 8vo, lxvii, 568 pp.; xiv, 426 pp.

THE full title of this book, as set out above, will of itself indicate that it is an important work, while the names of the two editors—the one of wide experience in the study of comparative jurisprudence, and the other well known in the literature of literary property—are a sufficient guarantee that it has been compiled with accuracy and intelligence. The names of several of the collaborators, also, have already been included in the bibliography of copyright. That the work is a timely one, no one at all familiar with the growth of interest in this kind of legislation since the International Copyright Congress at Brussels in 1858 will doubt, and that it is now published under the auspices of the "Comité de Législation Étrangère" of the Société de Législation Comparée of Paris is, perhaps, but another proof that the French are not inclined to surrender their lead in the study of comparative legislation. A striking illustration of the more recent advance of interest in literary property is the fact that, of the thirty-three countries included in this work which have passed distinct statutes for the protection of literary and artistic productions, ten, or nearly one-third of them, have enacted such laws within

the past four years, nineteen since 1879, and twenty-two, or two-thirds of the whole number, since 1876.

The introduction, by M. Lyon-Cean, is a thorough piece of work, giving (1) a brief history of the growth of copyright legislation, and (2) a careful analysis of the statutes actually included in this collection, in such wise that under any particular topic, such as "The Duration of Copyright," "Formalities Required," "Protection Accorded to Musical Compositions," "Translations," etc., there may be found a statement of the actual statutory provisions of each country relating thereto, showing where they correspond or in what particulars they differ. Besides the introduction, the first and bulkiest volume contains the laws of the various States of Europe. Of these, three alone—France, Germany, and Great Britain—fill 234 pages, or a little more than 40 per cent. of the whole volume, Great Britain occupying 117 pages, or exactly the same space as France and Germany together. In the case of this last country, it is not the multiplicity of her laws, but their length, which has called for space. The German statutes are but three in number, viz., the law of June 11, 1870, concerning literary works, and the laws of January 9 and 10, 1876, the first protecting works of the fine arts and the second photographs. Under France, on the contrary, no less than twenty-six laws, ordinances, and decrees, dating from 1791 to 1887, are set out as being now in force, while the British statutes are nineteen in number, covering even a more extended period, namely, from 1734 to 1888. Certainly the proposals, urged in both countries, to codify these laws recommend themselves. In some other countries the laws were enacted so long ago that revisions are very desirable and even imperative. Thus, Greece has still to depend upon the provisions of her penal code of 1833; but in 1880 efforts were made to enact a new, codified copyright law, and a bill for that purpose was drawn up. Rumania has no provision for the protection of literary works other than a chapter in her statute of 1862 controlling the press, and Portugal has no enactment since the civil code of 1867; while the law of Austria, which dates back to 1846, although a liberal law for that time, would now bear revision. Servia and Turkey, and the diminutive republic of San Marino, are as yet without copyright legislation.

The second volume contains the copyright statutes of the remaining countries of the world, Japan, with its law of 1887, representing Asia, while three African States are included—Tunis, the Republic of South Africa, and Egypt. The last-named country has no statutory enactment upon the subject of literary property, but, according to one of the articles of the regulations governing the mixed courts, to the effect that in case of the silence or insufficiency or obscurity of the law, judgments are to conform to the principles of natural right and equity, the Court of Appeals of Alexandria has rendered four decisions, which are included in the volume as precedents virtually governing literary and artistic property in the absence of a statute. Besides the United States, the Western Hemisphere is represented by the Central and South American States, and Hayti and Oceanica by the Hawaiian Islands, the latter having passed a copyright law on June 23, 1888. In addition, the volume contains the text of the Berne International Copyright Convention, with an introductory sketch by M. Louis Renault; all the copyright treaties to which France has been a party; and, as an appendix, a French translation of the South American International Copyright Treaty. Finally, there is an excellent index.

The work is not an absolutely complete collection of the copyright legislation of the world. The British colonial laws are entirely excluded (except that the Canada Act of 1875 is entered under Great Britain), and in the case of some countries statutes are omitted which may still have some force of law; for example, under Denmark, in which country at least eight enactments previous to that of December 29, 1857 (the first one included in the book), are still partly in force. For the sake of completeness, also, the special Danish laws relating to Iceland should have been printed, as well as the sections relating to literary property of the Swedish law of 1812, on the freedom of the press, while for the sake of historical completeness the famous "Konkordat" of 1857, between the different Swiss cantons, might well have been included in the chapter devoted to Switzerland. Perhaps the International Copyright Bureau at Berne may at some future time see its way clear to prepare and print a work which shall include all the copyright legislation, past as well as present, of the whole world, a production which would be fully justified by the present intelligent interest in literary and artistic property.

The inclusion of copyright in the subjects for discussion by the Pan-American Conference, and the recommendation of the Copyright Committee of that body that the United States should join the Montevideo treaty, adds special interest at this time to that part of the work which relates to the Central and South American States. Of these countries the following have passed codified copyright statutes: Chili, July 24, 1834; Peru, November 3, 1849; Mexico, 1871, as a chapter in its civil code; Bolivia, August 13, 1879; Guatemala, October 29, 1879; Colombia, October 26, 1886; Venezuela, May 12, 1887; Ecuador, August 3, 1887; while the civil and penal codes of the Argentine Republic and Brazil provide, though not very adequately, against piracy. The civil codes of Honduras (1880), Salvador (1880), and Uruguay (1868) contain exactly similar provisions, to the effect that intellectual productions are the property of their authors, and that this property is to be regulated by special laws; but neither country seems to have passed such special laws. The Peruvian Constitution of 1860 declares intellectual property to be inviolable, and Paraguay, in its Constitution of 1870, gives every author an exclusive property in his productions "during the period fixed by law," but has, apparently, never passed any law fixing the duration of the property right. Costa Rica and Nicaragua seem to be entirely without legislation upon this subject, but the island of Hayti passed a favorable copyright act on October 8, 1885. The five republics of Central America joined, on February 17, 1887, in a treaty of peace and commerce, of which one article guarantees the protection of literary property, but this convention seems never to have come into force. From August 25, 1888, to February 18, 1889, a South American Congress of private international law held thirty-five sessions at Montevideo, and discussed among other things a project for a convention for the protection of works of literature and art, and this was signed on January 11, 1889, by the Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Brazil, Chili, Paraguay, Peru, and Uruguay. It is this convention which the Pan-American Congress recommended the United States to enter.

Briefe und Erklärungen von I. von Döllinger über die Vaticanischen Decrete 1869-1887. Munich: C. H. Beck. 1890. Pp. v., 163.

Leo XIII., soon after his accession to the seat of St. Peter, endeavored to make good the mistake of his predecessor, and invited the excommunicated Döllinger to visit him in the Vatican, intimating that a new and more liberal spirit would be found prevailing there. Döllinger respectfully declined the friendly overture, with the remark that a mere change of persons in the Pontificate could hardly be expected to produce a change of principles. Repeated efforts were made to force him back into the fold by a Jesuitical *coup de main*—that is, by circulating reports of his contemplated or secretly consummated submission. In 1886 Döllinger expressed his intention of publishing a pamphlet reaffirming his views concerning Papal infallibility, and arraying against it a serried phalanx of facts and arguments—*aciem argumentorum et factorum instructam* — such as had hitherto not been brought into the field of controversy in a compact body. The title of this pamphlet was to be 'The Vatican Decrees in the Light of History.' It was to contain, among other things, a survey of the dogmatic history of the Papal See from its origin until the present day, in which all important *decreta fidei et morum* issued by the Popes were to be adduced and critically discussed.

This work, which was to have been written in the form of letters to a prelate, was never executed. Only a few preliminary notes bearing upon it were found among the posthumous papers of the deceased. The present volume is an attempt to carry out, so far as it is now possible, the original purpose of Dr. Döllinger, and may, therefore, be regarded as a substitute, however imperfect, for the book which, in the last years of his life, he had so much at heart, but unfortunately never found time to put on paper. It consists of twenty-eight letters in all, most of which have appeared at various dates in different periodicals; others, such as those to and from the Papal nuncio, Ruffo Scilla, the Archbishop Antonius von Steichele, and "a lady of high rank," are now printed for the first time. Very earnest and very naïve are the two letters in which the lady aforesaid entreats the illustrious scholar to put aside his pride of learning and save his soul from "an eternity of indescribable torment" by a penitential return to the bosom of the Church. With admirable delicacy and tact, Dr. Döllinger lets himself down to the intellectual level of his correspondent, and makes his standpoint so clear that one would think even the rather limited and religiously fanaticized intelligence of her Royal Highness might recognize the impossibility of a recantation. Peculiarly interesting is the letter of the nuncio, who took occasion of the Pope's jubilee to express the joy it would excite in the heart of the Holy Father to be able to celebrate the solemn feast "with the well-beloved son at his side." In his reply to this letter Döllinger says that the prelates all agreed in excusing themselves for submitting to the decision of the Council on the ground that they did not wish to produce a schism. "I, too," he adds, "am not willing to be a member of a schismatic society; I am isolated. Persuaded that the sentence hurled against me is unjust and legally null and void, I persist in regarding myself as a member of the great Catholic Church, and it is the Church itself which tells me, through the mouth of the holy fathers, that such an excommunication cannot harm my soul."

In a letter addressed to Pastor Widmann,

and dated October 18, 1874, Döllinger states that he belongs from conviction to the Old Catholic communion, which he must, therefore, have held to be a body not separated from the Catholic Church. But it is not easy to see how this connection can be harmonized with the confession of his isolation. Indeed, he seems to have been, to a certain degree, in the difficult and quite untenable position of a Mugwump who claims to belong still to the Republican party, although temporarily semi-detached in consequence of excessive corruption in the main body. The following incisive paragraph in the letter to the nuncio deserves to be quoted:

"And here, Monseigneur, I permit myself to cite a characteristic fact. When the Archbishop, obeying, as he said, the orders of the Pope, communicated to me the sentence pronounced against me, he announced that I was subject to all the pains and penalties heaped upon the excommunicated by canonical law. The first and most important of these penalties is contained in the famous bull of Pope Urban II., which decides that any one may justly kill an excommunicate, provided he does it through zeal for the Church. At the same time, he caused sermons to be preached against me in all the pulpits of Munich, and the effect which these declamations produced was such that the Chief of Police warned me that assaults upon my person were being plotted, and that I should do well not to go out unattended. Might I venture to raise the question, Monseigneur, whether, in case of my submission, I should be obliged to declare to the world that I deem this decision of an infallible Pope to be in perfect conformity with the morality of the Gospel?"

The value of this little volume consists chiefly in the fact that it furnishes a complete refutation of the doctrine of Papal infallibility, not from a rationalistic, but from a strictly orthodox-Catholic point of view. It shows conclusively that the Vatican decrees, when tested by the principle *quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus*, which the Romish Church has made the criterion of dogma, have not the slightest foundation to rest upon. The topics here discussed may seem somewhat antiquated, but in Bavaria, and indeed in all Germany, they still belong to the vital questions of the day, and possess something more than an academical or purely historical interest. The Vatican decrees of 1870 are the fundamental planks in the political platform of the Ultramontane party of 1890; and Prof. Reusch, in collecting and publishing these 'Letters and Declarations' of his deceased friend and fellow-laborer, has done an excellent work and most opportune to the needs of his countrymen.

Outlines of Jewish History, from B. C. 586 to C. E. 1890. With three maps. By Lady Magnus. Revised by M. Friedländer. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America. 1890. 8vo, pp. xxi, 388.

THE first volume issued by the Jewish Publication Society of America is a revised edition of Lady Magnus's 'Outlines of Jewish History.' The new matter consists of three chapters on the Jews of North America and South America, Theodore Reinach's chronological tables of Jewish history, and a frontispiece representing the Temple of Jerusalem as reconstructed by Herod.

We doubt whether there is in the English language a better sketch of Jewish history than the one before us. Though evidently intended primarily for the young, the book contains much that will interest older readers. This is particularly true of the closing chapters, which, notwithstanding their brevity, contain the best and fullest account of the Jews in America that has ever been published. The mistakes pointed out by Dr. Neubauer, in the *English Historical Review* (January, 1887), ought to have been corrected in this edition. There are several other minor errors not noticed by Dr. Neubauer. It is wrong to say that the Jews are mentioned in the Saxon Chronicles (p. 165); and it is misleading to state that the Jews summoned to Parliament in 1240 were M. P.'s (p. 175). The massacre of the Jews of York took place in 1190, not 1189 (p. 170). The account of the mediæval Jews of England should have contained at least a few words concerning one of their most important institutions, namely, their Exchequer.

But in passing judgment on this book, we feel more inclined to commend than to condemn. The Jewish Publication Society is to be congratulated on the successful opening of its career. The society intends to publish a great variety of books for the purpose of elevating the intellectual condition of the Jews in America. Such a movement, so auspiciously begun, deserves the hearty support of the public.

Warpath and Bivouac, or the Conquest of the Sioux. By John F. Finerty. Chicago. 1890.

To write an unsensational but truthful and spirited account of savage campaigns is no light achievement, but it has been done by the author, who represented the Chicago *Times* in the Indian field in 1876 and 1879. If this stirring narrative is read as it deserves, the people will learn of hardships and peril encountered by their military forces that not one in a hundred thousand ever dreams of. The historian accompanied Crook on his Big Horn expedition, and, as there is no rear in an Indian fight, was in the thick of it on the Rosebud when Crook and the Sioux mutually recoiled. Within the next ten days the same savage foe overwhelmed Custer not more than twenty miles away. What is known as the Sibley scout, a reconnoissance of about thirty men that fell in with an overwhelming war party in the Tongue River country, is perhaps the most thrilling episode described.

Mr. Finerty writes clearly, and evidently has an ancestral love of fighting from the facility with which he takes his place in the ranks. But he never boasts. The wider lesson of the book is the part played by the army in opening for settlement, and what subsequently became civilization, the vast ranges of the Northwest. There are many excellent illustrations of general and other officers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bellamy, C. J. Were They Sinners? Springfield, Mass.: Authors' Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Dedekind, J. Die Achten-Lini. Brunswick: Benno Goeritz.
Garnett, Lucy M. J. The Women of Turkey and their Folk-Lore: The Christian Women. London: David Nutt.
Harland, Marion. With the Best Intentions. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Inagaki, M. Japan and the Pacific. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Janvier, T. A. The Aztec Treasure-House; a Romance of Contemporaneous Antiquity. Harper & Bros.
Johnson, J., and J. H. The Patentee's Manual. Longmans, Green & Co.
Johnson, S. Theodore Parker. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.
Kiddle, H. Text Book on Physics. Wm. Wood & Co.
Littell's Living Age, April–June, 1890. Boston: Littell & Co.
Macray, W. D. Annals of the Bodleian Library. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Marmier, X. Au Sud et au Nord. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Masson, Prof. D. Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. New ed. Vol. IX. Political Economy and Politics. Macmillan & Co. $1.35.
Napier, Mrs. Alexander. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. 3 vols. Scribner & Welford. $4.20.
Osborne, D. The Robe of Nessus. Belford Co.
Papilion, T. L., and Haigh, A. E. Virgil: Æneid, Books I—III. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Ptolemy, G. W. B. Religion, the Curse of the World. Free Thought Pub. Co.
Pyat, F. The Rag-Picker of Paris. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.
Saitus, F. S. Shadows and Ideals. Buffalo: Charles Wells Moulton.
Scudder, H. E. Short History of the United States of America. Taintor Bros. & Co.
Seawell, Molley E. Throckmorton. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Selin, F. Poesias. New York: A. Da Costa Gomez.
Shaffer, Virginia C. How to Remember History. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Shillaber, B. P. Mrs. Partington's New Grip-Sack, filled with Fresh Things. J. S. Ogilvie.
Sibley, Margaret. Five Little Peppers Midway. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Sparks, Rev. F. Longman's School Trigonometry. Longmans, Green & Co.
Stanley, H. M. In Darkest Africa. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. IV. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stephen, L., and Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXIII. Gray—Haighton. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stockton, F. R. The Merry Chanter. The Century Co. 50 cents.
Storr, F. Exercises in French Syntax. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Sutton, J. B. Evolution and Disease. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Sweet, H. A Primer of Spoken English. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Symonds, J. A. Essays Speculative and Suggestive. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $6.75.
The *Critic*. Jan.–June, 1890. The *Critic* Publishing Co.
The Finding of the Gnosis. Boston: Occult Publishing Co.
Thornton, J. Advanced Physiography. Longmans, Green & Co.
Thurston, R. H. Reflections on the Motive Power of Heat. John Wiley & Sons.
Totten, C. A. L. Yale Military Lectures. New Haven: The "Our Race" Publishing Co.
Toxar. Longmans, Green & Co.
Unwin, W. C. The Elements of Machine Design. Part I. Longmans, Green & Co.
Vance, S. G. Lord Healey and Other Poems. Marshalltown, Ia.: S. G. Vance.
Vaughn, C. J. The Epistle to the Hebrews. Macmillan & Co.
Vincent, F. In and Out of Central America. D. Appleton & Co.
Ward, R. H. Plant Organization. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Warner, F. Mental Faculty. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Wenckebach, Carla. Deutsche Litteraturgeschichte. D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Westerkamp, Dr. J. E. Das Bundesrecht der Republik der Vereinigten Niederlande. Marburg: N. G. Elwert.
Wetz, Dr. W. Shakespeare vom Standpunkte der vergleichenden Litteraturgeschichte. Worms: P. Reiss; New York: Gustav E. Stechert.
Wharton, E. R. Etyma Latina. London: Rivingtons.
Wheeler, A. C. The Toltec Cup. Lew Vanderpoole Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Whistler, J. McN. The Gentle Art of Making Enemies. John W. Lovell Co. $2.00.
White, Caroline E. Love in the Tropics. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
White, Eliza O. Miss Brooks. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Wiggs, Anna A. Hayne Home. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Wilbor, Elsie M. Delsarte Recitation Book and Directory. New York: Edgar S. Werner. $1.25.
Wilson, Sir C. Lord Clive. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Ziegler, T. Sittliches Sein und Sittliches Werden. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.

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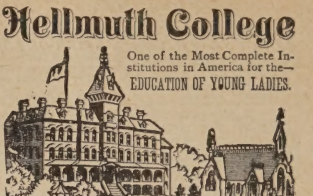

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 7, 1890.

The Week.

On Saturday last the two Kansas Senators (Ingalls and Plumb) and one Nebraska Senator (Paddock) voted in favor of Senator Vest's amendment to reduce duties on plain and decorated china and crockeryware by 10 per cent., *i. e.*, from 50 and 60 per cent. to 40 and 50 per cent. ad valorem. The vote stood yeas 17, nays 20, all the yeas being Democrats except the three Senators named, and all the nays being Republicans. This was the first break in the Republican column in the Senate on the McKinley Bill. Although there have been premonitions of revolt in Kansas before, this is the only real outbreak. It is all the more significant since Senator Ingalls's term is about to expire, the Legislature elected this fall choosing his successor. Simultaneously with this "kick" the news comes that the Seventh District Republican Convention of Kansas has adopted a platform endorsing Mr. Blaine's reciprocity views, favoring such *reduction* (not revision) of the tariff as shall "cheapen the products of the factory and shop in ratio with cheapened farm products," and congratulating the Kansas Senators on the bold and patriotic stand they have taken upon financial and other questions of special importance to the West. Still more significant was a resolution absolving the nominee of the Convention "from dictation of the party caucus *upon all economic issues.*" "We bid him," says the resolution, "enter the halls of Congress *a free man*, to battle for the material and business interests as well as the moral and political welfare of this great State." This is, perhaps, the most wholesome send-off that any nominee for Congress has had since the close of the war. We recall nothing so refreshing in the annals of either party. We set it down to the credit of the Republicans of the Seventh Kansas District that if they have not made an epoch in our political life, they have at least shown how one ought to be made by emancipating the Congressman from the dictation of the party caucus as to measures of policy—a dictation crushing and stifling to individuality, and therefore deadening to all political progress.

Equally decisive is the change of base which the Atchison *Champion* announces in its issue of July 31. The *Champion* is an old and stanch Republican paper, founded by John A. Martin, one of the "wheel horses" of the party in Kansas. The *Champion* says that for thirty years it has advocated and defended the protective-tariff policy, but that it has found that the practical effects of that policy have been disastrous to the West and to the agricultural communities. It has at last discovered that the tariff is an invention for making the cultivators of the soil pay tribute to the manufacturers, increasing the profits of the latter and lessening the earnings of the former. "These facts," it says, "have induced the *Champion* at this time to make public its conviction that a protective tariff is one of the many things the West does not want and cannot afford to sustain. The Western farmer has no interest whatever in a protective tariff. His interest rather lies in the direction of free trade—of access to all markets—wherever his products may be in demand."

Senator Plumb came very near letting the cat out of the bag when, in discussing the McKinley Tariff Bill, he said:

"It looks to me a good deal as though some persons interested in the rate of duties had said: 'We do not care what the effect is upon the revenues—that is not our concern, nor our responsibility; some Congress has got to meet that, and in the meantime we want the pound of flesh.' *I will not say the pound of flesh nominated in the bond, because there was no bond;* but they want the benefit of the opportunity to be created, and they have succeeded in getting it, whereby their profits will be enhanced—I will not say anything now about the resulting benefit to the country—but whereby their profits will be enhanced; and it is a very awkward condition of things, a very injurious condition of things, that has been brought about to the country."

What kind of a bond did the Senator have in his mind when he said that the pound of flesh was not nominated in it? He meant the kind of bond that *Shylock* exhibited to the judge when he demanded the pound of flesh, a bond that could be enforced by law, a bond with a seal on it that could not be railed off by any amount of talk. Barring these external formalities, what the Senator meant to say was that certain persons and corporations put up a definite sum of money to elect Harrison, on the promise of Quay and Wanamaker that they should have an indefinite number of pounds of flesh out of the American people, and that it makes no difference to them whether the result is a deficit in the National Treasury or not. Probably the only man in public life who does not know this is Senator Morrill of Vermont. It is always well to have a deacon in the partnership for any occasion of prime rascality.

The speech of Senator Teller of Colorado on Monday settles in the negative the question as to whether "Tom" Reed can make the Senate change its rules in order to rush through the McKinley Bill and the Force Bill. Mr. Blair having read an editorial article of the muzzled New York *Tribune* protesting against the discussion of the Tariff Bill, Mr. Teller declared that he did not share in the view that there had been any unnecessary delay in the discussion of the bill, or that the Senate was recreant because it did not proceed more rapidly. He said that he "did not propose to be frightened into any haste or expedition in the discharge of his duty on the bill," and gave these unanswerable reasons for his position: "He had learned that hasty legislation was bad legislation, and he had learned that any bill which deserved to become a law would stand the test of discussion and examination. The impatience, the impetuosity with which the Senate was asked to take hold of the bill and pass it was, to him, somewhat disgusting. He was in full sympathy with the purpose of the bill, which he understood to be to raise duties wherever they were found to be too low, and to lower them wherever they were found to be too high. He wished to say that, so far as he (Teller) was concerned, the present rules of the Senate had been sufficient for the discharge of the duties of the Senate in an orderly and decent manner, and he was prepared to resist vigorously and as efficiently as he could any change of the rules for the purpose of hastening the passage of the Tariff Bill or any other bill." Mr. Plumb announced his adhesion to these views, and Mr. Edmunds and a number of other Republican Senators are known to share them, so that it may now be accepted as settled that the rules will not be changed and that the Senate will remain a deliberative body. When the "Tom" Reed balloon has collapsed, as it is already evident will happen before long, the public will look back with amazement upon the impudence of his now happily defeated attempt to suppress free discussion in the Congress of the United States.

There was an interesting debate in the Senate on Monday on the St. Mary's Ship Canal, and some uncomplimentary remarks were made about the failure of the House to pass the bill for making a new canal at that place. Such remarks were, indeed, unparliamentary, as Senator Ingalls and Senator Edmunds said, but no regret need be felt on that account. The House, under the despotism of Speaker Reed, has given its energies to the passage of a tariff bill to transfer the earnings of the people from A to B and from B to C in such a way as Mr. Wm. McKinley, jr., thinks they ought to be divided, and a bill to distribute seats in Congress in the way that Mr. H. C. Lodge thinks that they ought to be distributed. Consequently, it has had no time to think about the St. Mary's Canal or a good many other things of real public concern. The fact that this waterway passes more tonnage during the months that it is free from ice than the Suez Canal, and that this tremendous traffic depends upon a single lift lock, which is overworked and liable to get out of order at any time, has been lost sight of in the scramble for private pelf and in settling such questions as whether the Borax Company shall have the right to tax the public 3 cents per pound or only 2¾ cents. In the midst of this interesting wrangle comes the news that the St. Mary's lock has given way, and that the resulting loss to commerce is $100,000 per day. Then there is a mighty stir, and it is suddenly remembered that a bill to provide a new canal has been slumbering on the Speaker's table several months. Of course this bill could

not meet the present exigency, but it serves to point a moral and adorn one day's debate in the Senate.

Mr. Halstead, viewing the political field from the lofty point of Brooklyn, says that in the Republican family quarrel over the McKinley Bill, "public opinion is with Mr. Blaine, and the public admiration for him never was so great as now." This being the case, how does it happen that the McKinley Bill has any chance of becoming a law? Why does not public opinion have any effect upon the Republican majority in Congress? Furthermore, if Mr. Blaine has "public opinion" and "public admiration" on his side, what will be the result in the Congressional elections of November if the party in Congress refuses to follow Mr. Blaine's lead? We sincerely hope that Mr. Halstead is sound in his estimate of Mr. Blaine's party strength, for the greater his following now, the larger will be his influence for good upon the country. He never was in a better position for usefulness than he is at present, and he has seldom, during his long career, held a position more completely in the public interest.

The leaders of the Republican party in Tennessee were confronted at their Convention last week with the question as to what attitude the party should take towards the Force Bill. The success of the Farmers' Alliance in capturing control of the recent Democratic Convention had disgusted many members of this party and inclined them to support the Republicans if the Convention of the latter party should not repel them. Lewis T. Baxter, who was the unopposed choice of the delegates as a candidate for Governor, and who is an excellent type of the progressive business men whom the party needs in order to win, had announced his firm opposition to any endorsement of the Force Bill, as he maintained that he could not hope to carry the State if such legislation should be favored. The question was, then, whether to ignore the matter entirely, as the Republican State Conventions in Minnesota and Nebraska did, or to insert a perfunctory and deprecatory reference to the subject. The latter course was finally chosen by the Platform Committee, whose resolution characterized the Lodge Bill as "a law that would unsettle the business interests," and expressed confidence that the Republican party has wisdom and patriotism enough not to pass such a law.

Two hopeful signs as to the treatment of the negro question by the Constitutional Convention soon to assemble in Mississippi are found in recent utterances by two prominent representatives of the race. G. H. Oliver, a colored Republican member of the last Legislature, delivered a speech at Jonestown a few days ago, in which he said that his legislative experience had taught him that the white Democrats are the true friends of the negro, and that, if the Constitutional Convention should be composed of the same material as the last Legislature, the interests of the colored people would be respected and protected. Isaiah T. Montgomery, a leading negro of Mound Bayou, Miss., has just written an interesting and intelligent letter to a North Carolina correspondent as to the condition of his race in the Delta region, whither so many have gone from North Carolina. In conclusion he refers to the Constitutional Convention, and draws this encouraging picture of the situation: "There has been considerable apprehension on the part of our people that changes will be effected in the organic law of the State dangerous to their rights and liberties. Until very recently I have shared largely in that apprehension. Constant discussion through the press has to some extent aroused the people to the importance of the weighty matters to be considered and adjusted, which must be done under the restrictions or guarantees of the Constitution of the United States, and the guarantees subscribed to by this State upon her readmission to the Union, all of which combine to form a hedge of protection to citizenship which cannot be easily invaded. The delegates to the Convention will generally be of the ablest and most practical class, and, judging from the most available information, I have now reached the conclusion that the approaching assembly will endeavor to promote the general interests of the State, and honestly begin a solution of the difficulties which have so long hindered her progress. In this settlement I hope for a better understanding between the races; there will certainly be a strong element in the Convention anxious to promote that end and fully restore political liberty to all classes."

Another hopeful sign is to be found in the report of a mass-meeting by the Republicans of Issaquena County just before the election for members of the Convention to decide upon their action. Issaquena is a county where the blacks outnumber the whites about twelve to one, the census of 1880 showing 9,174 negroes to only 826 whites, and the preponderance of the colored race being even greater now. The Democrats had nominated Capt. W. S. Farish for member of the Convention, and the question was whether the Republicans should put up a candidate against him. S. B. Blackwell, a former member of the Legislature, and W. E. Mallison, another prominent Republican, both made speeches advising no party nomination. Mr. Mallison declared his belief that "it would be better to allow white men to make unmolested the Constitution which is to take the place of the one which it is claimed was framed by alien hands, and then, if failure and mortification result, they would have themselves to blame." Moreover, so far as the Republicans of Issaquena County were concerned, Capt. Farish, the Democratic candidate, "entertained views which were acceptable to nearly every one, and possessed the ability to see that his views are presented with eloquence and force." Capt. Farish was called on for an expression of his views, and responded in a conservative, able speech, promising that his efforts should be directed towards the betterment of the condition of all his constituents, white and black. He was warmly applauded, and at the conclusion of his speech a resolution was adopted declaring it the sense of the meeting that no Republican nomination be made, and expressing confidence in the ability and integrity of Capt. Farish as the delegate.

At the very time that the Philadelphia *Press* is publishing the protests of colored Republicans in the South against the passage of the Force Bill, the colored Republicans of its own city are taking organized action in the same direction. The Matthew Stanley Quay Club, composed entirely of colored men, with a prominent local politician as President, held a largely attended meeting on Sunday, and passed unanimously resolutions to the effect that the pending Federal Election Bill is not practical and will not help the political condition of the colored men in the South, but will rather have a tendency to keep alive race prejudices, and therefore expressing the hope that the bill will not become a law. In view of such developments it is not strange that the advocates of the Force Bill should be losing confidence in its passage.

In the course of surplus-smashing at Washington nearly everybody has forgotten the Direct Tax Refunding Bill, which caused such fury in the House two years ago. The bill appropriates about $20,000,000 to the States for the direct war tax of 1861-2. In the last Congress it was passed by the Senate. When it reached the House a few men filibustered against it in a desperate way. There was a large majority in favor of passing it, but Speaker Reed's new rules had not been adopted. So it became necessary to effect a compromise with the filibusters, by the terms of which the measure went over to the December session. The December session came and went without action on the bill, and at the end of the session, which was the end of the Fiftieth Congress, the bill died. Early in the present session the bill was again passed by the Senate. It went to the House, where Speaker Reed's new rules are ample to prevent filibustering. Why has it not been passed? Are the surplus-killers satisfied that they can get rid of all the money in the Treasury without shovelling out $20,000,000 at one scoop? It would seem so. It would seem also that there are some reasons (in this case not less than twenty millions) for allowing the minority some freedom of resistance to unjust measures.

In the discussions of the public finances, both in Congress and in the press, nothing is more common than the suggestion that the sinking fund can be suspended at any time in case there should be a prospect of a deficit; but nobody except the late Senator Beck has had the courage to introduce a bill to suspend it. It has

been said, with entire truth, that the retirement of the public debt has overpassed the requirements of the sinking fund by some $700,000,000. It has been argued with much force that the reason for the sinking fund has ceased to exist. That reason was in the nature of an assurance to the public creditors that the Government would steadily reduce the principal of the debt, and thus give greater confidence to capitalists that the whole would be paid. If there ever was any doubt on this score in the circles of finance, the doubt was long since removed. But nobody seems to be ambitious of the distinction of repealing the sinking fund. Why there should be so much encouragement to our neighbors to take the glorious step, and so little eagerness to take it ourselves, is, however, easily explained. For some years the public mind has been filled with distressing tales of the surplus. How to get rid of the everlasting surplus has been the problem of one administration after another, and all eyes have been turned with a sense of relief to the $109,000,000 of 4½ per cent. bonds that mature on the first of September, 1891. Here, we have said to each other, is our great opportunity. If we can only screw along till September, 1891, we can put this whole odious surplus where it will do the most good. But if we now repeal the sinking fund we acknowledge not only that the surplus has vanished, but that we shall not be able to meet the bagatelle of 4½ per cents when they fall due. It is not a very proud distinction to any public man to be the first in making such an avowal.

The Georgia farmers seem to have gone daft on the subject of public schools, and at present refuse any just appropriation to their State University, utterly oblivious of the fact that they are thus cutting themselves off from any but miserably inefficient teachers for their public schools. The work of the University of Georgia has been about on a par with that of other State universities of the South, barring Virginia. The best citizens of Georgia, however, have recently waked up to the absolute necessity of a finer quality of higher education, and the result has been a reorganization of the University on thoroughly progressive principles, with the view of doing true university work just as soon as there is any demand for it in Georgia, and with the view, meanwhile, of striving energetically to create the demand. The right spirit undoubtedly prevails at the University, and there are many encouraging signs of a strong foundation throughout the State for the aspirations of the new school. For the present, however, the professors and fellows must largely work out their own destiny in the midst of discouraging but far from hopeless ignorance.

What is perhaps the first official characterization of the Pan-American Congress by a foreign nation participating in it is found in the message of President Balmaceda to the Chilian Congress, at the opening of its sessions on June 1. He said that the invitation to send delegates to the Congress had been accepted by Chili "more out of polite regard for a friendly Government than in the hope of obtaining immediate and positive advantages for both Americas." Of the practical matters before the International Conference, the one in which Chili had the deepest interest, namely, the question of a common silver coin, was left with nothing done, says the President, coolly ignoring, as he well may, the recommendation for a new gathering, next year, to attack the hopeless problem. The steps taken to secure better communication by land and water President Balmaceda regards as only provisional, and as leaving wholly unsettled some of the most difficult and puzzling questions connected with the subject. The attitude of Chili towards the famous arbitration project is thus set forth: "We did not give in our adherence to it, both because we believed it without efficacy, and because Chili does not need for the exercise of her sovereignty in the civilized world any other law than the general law of nations. Peoples like ourselves, who live by their industry, and faithfully live up to their international agreements and obligations, will have occasion to resort to arbitration in the particular and concrete cases in which such a course is suggested by public justice, prudence, and the reciprocal regard of sovereign States. But I deem it unlawful for us to limit the liberty of action of coming generations in vindicating their rights by the means authorized by international law, in emergencies in which it is for them alone to decide upon the proper course." After this, it will hardly be considered feasible to secure Chili's acceptance of Pan-American arbitration.

The commercial relations of Austria-Hungary with the United States are both relatively and absolutely unimportant: of a total of $745,000,000 of imports in 1889, only $7,642,297, or but a trifle over 1 per cent., came from Austria, while of $730,000,000 of exports, that country received only $720,815, one-tenth of 1 per cent. In the import list Austria stands No. 19, being outstripped by such countries as the Sandwich Islands, the Philippine Islands, Mexico, and Venezuela, to say nothing of Switzerland, China, and Japan; in the export list she ranks No. 33, or next to the lowest. A careful review of the conditions indicated by these statistics is found in the last annual report of the Austrian Consulate-General at New York, which points out that there are a few articles in which Austria takes the lead, the chief of them being pearl and other buttons, with which she supplied us last year to the amount of $1,352,241, or 43 per cent. of our total importation, against 23 per cent. from Germany, 25 per cent. from France, and 7 per cent. from England. In hollow and crystal glassware she was also ahead of all competing nations, the business amounting to $719,000, 31 per cent. of the total. Two articles of commerce which are popularly supposed to come here in large quantities are imported to an amount which bears a small proportion to the actual sales of them in our markets. The class of small leather wares technically known as "Vienna articles" really consists of poor American imitations of imported samples, and the Consul warns his countrymen against filling small sample orders from unknown importers. Then, again, much of the so-called Tokay sold here is of California manufacture, and it is stated that a self-styled importing house, widely known through its profuse advertising, and mentioned by name in the report, sold 1,200 dozen bottles of "Tokay" in 1887 without passing a single invoice through the Custom-house during the year.

The statistics of the tonnage of foreign merchant navies for 1888, which have only recently been gathered and published by the British Board of Trade, do not afford much encouragement to the ship-subsidy hunters either in this country or in Europe; for they prove that during the year in question—the returns for 1889 not being yet accessible—there were only three countries which did not show a decrease in their ocean mercantile tonnage, and these were the United Kingdom, Norway, and Denmark—the three countries which do not pay bounties to their shipping. Thus, in the case of the German Empire, the total shows a decline of fully 15,000 tons, and in the case of France of 10,500 tons, while for Great Britain the increase for the same period was 131,462 tons.

Mr. Goschen, the Chancellor of the English Exchequer, informed Parliament a few days ago that three celebrated pictures, one by Holbein, one by Velasquez, and one by Moroni, the property of Lord Radnor, had been purchased for the nation for the sum of £55,000, of which £30,000 had been furnished by private subscription and the balance by the Government. The pictures, if not so purchased, would have been taken to the Continent and lost to the United Kingdom. Now, suppose that $150,000 had been subscribed by private persons for the purpose of bringing these works of art to the United States, and that the Government had been asked to furnish the remainder, what would the answer have been? It would have been, first, in the negative, and here nobody could have rightly complained. But that would not have been the whole answer. It would have been replied, "If you gentlemen raise $150,000 for this purpose, we (the Government of the United States) will tax you $45,000 for the privilege of bringing the pictures into the country, and at the same rate for any larger sum you may raise. If you put up the whole amount, we will tax you $79,500, so that what costs any foreign country $265,000 for purposes of embellishment and education shall cost this country $344,500." This would be the enlightened answer that the public-spirited citizens would receive at the hands of the Senate Committee on Finance, which is now paying its campaign debts in pounds of flesh taken indiscriminately from the American people.

THE FOLLY OF THE FORCE BILL.

THE Philadelphia *Press* has done a service to the public by sending a correspondent on a tour of the South to interview prominent men of both parties as to the Force Bill. Several of his letters have already been published, and the objections to the policy which he quotes from the lips of leading Republicans, both white and black, are conclusive as to the folly of the scheme. Some of these deliverances are so striking that they deserve a wide circulation.

Beginning with Virginia, the *Press* correspondent talked with United States District-Attorney Bristow of the Danville District, who pointed out two fatal objections to the Lodge Bill. One is the fact that the law can be called into operation in any district only by the petition of certain voters, and that, in any district where Democrats hold a large share of the power, these petitioners "will be ostracized and boycotted, socially and in business. If they are negroes working for Democratic employers, they will be discharged." The second objection is the fact that the success of the law will depend on the character of the men who are selected to enforce it in the voting precincts. Mr. Bristow says that "they must possess discretion, coolness, courage, and intelligence," and then adds: "I regret to say it, but there is a lack of men of this character in the Republican party in the South who would be willing to sacrifice themselves as inspectors." Moreover, as to the chief supervisors and the district supervisors, Mr. Bristow declares that "if they are men of intelligence and standing, they will be wined and dined and patronized for the purpose of influencing them until it will be almost impossible for them to withstand the pressure."

W. H. Pleasants of Danville, who is described as "a very intelligent and conservative colored man, and the recognized leader of his people in Pittsylvania County," and who is also Chairman of the Republican Committee, presents a most cogent argument against the Force Bill, considered from the way in which it would affect his race. "The present law," he says, "is a farce, and it will be far better for my race to go on under the existing law, though it is a dead letter, than to have a new one enacted which will become only partially operative after it has cost innocent lives and disturbed all our social conditions." That such would be the inevitable effect of the Lodge Bill he proceeds to show as follows: "There are very few white men of prominence in this State belonging to the Republican party who would care to have it known that they asked, in accordance with the provisions of the Lodge Bill, to have the law enforced. Who, then, must compose the fifty or one hundred men who will petition for its enforcement? My people, the negroes; and with what result? Every man of them, the instant he makes that demand, might just as well pack up his little worldly all and leave the district, never to return. His employment would be taken from him and his personal safety menaced. Ever after every one of the fifty would be a marked man. I see another perplexing problem that will operate against my people. Nine-tenths of the employers of colored labor are white Democrats. If the colored men declined to vote as they directed, they would be deprived of work."

Going on to Raleigh, the *Press* correspondent found leading Republicans of North Carolina equally clear and emphatic in showing the hopelessness of expecting any good result from the Lodge Bill. Thomas R. Purnell of Raleigh, an ex-Confederate, who has supported the Republican party since the war, and who has been repeatedly a candidate on its State ticket, says flatly that "the trouble with the proposed law is that it cannot be enforced." The following forcible statement is quoted as being made by "a business man of Raleigh who declined to permit the use of his name," but whose first vote was cast for Abraham Lincoln in Philadelphia, and who is still a Republican: "I don't believe the Lodge Bill could be enforced here. We've got enough Federal law now to compel honest elections if it was enforced, but it is not, and the same will be true of the new election law."

A. W. Shaffer, for many years Chief Supervisor of Elections under the present Federal law, after showing that the existing law cannot be enforced because public sentiment does not sustain it, declares without reservation that the proposed law would only make things worse. "The Lodge Bill, with its supervisory machinery," he says, "offers no possible remedy or mitigation of the evils of such a condition. Such laws are injurious, because (1) they are totally inadequate to remedy the evil complained of; (2) they embitter its adversaries and make more intolerable the bitter life of its helpless victims; (3) they put afar off the possibility of any effective legislation while the silly experiment is undergoing trial."

Daniel L. Russell is one of the most prominent Republicans in North Carolina. He has supported the party ever since the war and has been elected by it to a seat in the Legislature, a judgeship of the Superior Court, and a place in the House of Representatives at Washington. He says of himself that he was born on a plantation and is identified in interest and blood with the South. "We know," he says, "that the pending Election Bill cannot be enforced generally in the South," and he adds: "The bill invites, indeed creates, dangerous friction between Federal and State authority. Conflicts will arise at every turn in registration, casting, counting, and certification of votes. If the bill could be so enforced as to give the right of suffrage to Southern Republicans in Congressional elections, the result would be that they would also vote and their votes be counted in State elections held at the same time and place and by the same officers. Democrats say this would be 'negro rule,' and as to the cotton States such is the truth. Such a result, as every body ought to know, cannot be accomplished by anything short of an army with martial law and some battles, and this men call war."

It is to be hoped that the *Press* will send its correspondent throughout the South, because nothing can do so much to weaken the Force Bill as the unanswerable arguments against its passage which he is drawing forth from the most prominent Southern Republicans of both races. All of these deliverances only lend weight to the cogent argument against the whole Force Bill policy which President Harrison presented in his Senate speech of March 3, 1886, regarding the condition of the Southern negroes, and which cannot be too frequently quoted:

> "I have looked hopefully in the old times to the forcible intervention of the General Government in their defence. I have thought that it might be possible, under that stringent legislation which Congress adopted, by the forcible intervention of the Federal authority, to protect them in those rights of which they were so cruelly deprived. But I have ceased to have faith in the possibility of that intervention in their behalf, constituted as this Government is, with its complex organization of Federal and State governments, independent within certain limitations. In the States, and in the tribunals which they establish, and in the venue where the offences are committed, crimes against the colored people must be tried. Of necessity the successful vindication of the rights of these people fails unless there is a sentiment in the locality where the offences are to be examined into and punished that reprobates and condemns them."

Just as in the President's own State there is law enough to prevent White Cap outrages, and yet White Cap outrages occur, and the Attorney-General declares that "before there can be a successful prosecution there must be a considerable change in public sentiment," so in the South, as one of the Raleigh Republicans puts it, "we've got enough Federal Law now to compel honest elections if it was enforced"; but it is not enforced, and no law will be enforced until, in Mr. Harrison's words, "there is a sentiment in the locality where the offences are to be examined into and punished that reprobates and condemns them." Instead of developing such a public sentiment, the Force Bill, as Southern Republicans themselves testify, would only increase the bitterness of the whites against the blacks.

SPEAKER REED'S REPLY.

THE reply of Speaker Reed to X. M. C. in the *North American Review* for August is comprised in nine pages, which seem to be inadequate space for an answer to the twenty-two pages of pretty solid matter of the article entitled "Speaker Reed's Error" in the July number. But if he had nothing better to say than appears in the nine pages, certainly more space would have been superfluous. The principal point made by X. M. C. was that the Constitution requires a two-thirds majority to overcome a Presidential veto, and also requires that the vote shall be by yeas and nays. The same instrument says that a majority of members of either house shall constitute a quorum. The President is a part of the law-making power and the whole of the law-executing power. He must know what laws are in force. As to all that are signed by him the evidence of his own signature is sufficient. As to all that have become laws by remaining in his hands ten days, Congress

being then in continuous session, the fact that they have been in his hands during that time is something within his own knowledge. As to those that he has vetoed, how is he to know whether they have become laws or not? The contention of X. M. C. is that under the Constitution the only evidence he can *be obliged to accept* is a list of yeas and nays, which when taken together amount to a quorum, *i. e.*, a majority of each house. If he chooses to accept anything else, as, for example, the certificate of the Clerk of the House that there was a quorum present, although none was shown by the yeas and nays—that is one thing. But if he happens to feel considerable interest in the matter pending, as he usually does when he vetoes a bill, and if he says that no constitutional evidence has been shown to him of the presence of a quorum, where do we stand? Has the bill become a law or not? This is the principal point that Mr. Reed was concerned to answer. His answer is in these words:

"The author says the President's veto cannot be overruled except by a quorum actually voting. Why? Because, he says, 'the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays.' Yeas and nays must certainly show each vote of each member. Each member's vote must be determined by yeas and nays. But there is no applicability of this provision to that entirely different question whether either house is in condition for doing business by having a quorum present. What the House votes is one thing, what it is is another. The Constitution prescribes how the vote shall be determined; the rules made under the Constitution prescribe how the presence of a quorum shall be determined. Whatever business is done is done by a competent body; and if that body, properly constituted, acquiesces in the result arrived at by its members who do vote, what shock is there either to common sense, business sense, or constitutional law?"

Then he refers to certain decisions of the courts of Maine and New Hampshire touching quorums in State Legislatures and in boards of aldermen, and to a precedent made by Gov. Hill in New York, all of which would require a more precise and extended statement of facts than is here given to establish a condition of parallelism.

It is to be observed that Mr. Reed does not here touch the point made by X. M. C., which was that the President, being a co-ordinate branch of Government, could not be bound by the rules of the House. To say that "whatever business is done is done by a competent body" is irrelevant, because the House cannot enforce its competency beyond its own doors. The Constitution can enforce the competency of the House anywhere within the limits of the United States, and of course upon the President. According to Mr. Reed's argument, if the President should veto a bill and it should come back to him showing that upon reconsideration two members had voted to pass it and one member had voted not to pass it, but with a certificate from the clerk that a quorum was present when the vote was taken, not only does the bill become a law, but the President is bound to think so. We have supposed in this case that three members have actually voted, but that is a superfluity under the Reed conception. Two members would be quite sufficient if both voted in the affirmative. Indeed, why would not one suffice if his vote were in the affirmative? Is not a unanimous vote stronger than a two-thirds vote? The Constitution says: "If, after reconsideration, *two-thirds of that House* shall agree to pass the bill," etc. Is it possible to conceive that two members voting to pass the bill, and not more than one member voting the other way, should fill the constitutional requirement of "two-thirds of that House" provided only that a clerk's certificate is appended that a quorum was present when the vote was taken? If two votes would not answer the purpose, why should any less number than a quorum suffice?

The conclusion of the Speaker's reply is a trifle hysterical. He says that the "error" imputed to him by X. M. C., and which he is asked to correct,

"was the error of the Speaker just twenty-six hours. Then it became the error of the House of Representatives. *It has since become the error of the Republican party and of the people of the United States.* It had previously been the 'error' of the State Supreme Courts. Whatever may be the strength, wisdom, or bravery of the Speaker, he has never thought himself strong enough, wise enough, or brave enough to correct an 'error' of that kind and of those dimensions."

Such loose talk does not belong to the realm of sober discussion. It is pure rant and blather. The people of the United States have taken no action upon the subject: they have had no opportunity to do so. The Republican party has taken no action upon it, and cannot do so until the next National Convention meets. All that can be said about the House of Representatives is that the majority, having elected Mr. Reed for Speaker, followed his lead in the adoption of the new rule for counting a quorum. The next House may discard it—most probably will. The designation of the rule by X. M. C. as "Speaker Reed's error" was therefore entirely justified.

THE PENNSYLVANIA CAMPAIGN.

THE unique character of the political campaign in Pennsylvania this year attracts the attention of the whole country to the contest in that State. It is unique because its main object, on the Republican side, is to provide a vindication for one of the United States Senators from Pennsylvania against the charge that he is a public thief—the charge that, when holding an important State office, he robbed the State Treasury to further his private speculations. While he allowed that charge to remain unanswered, the Republican State Convention permitted him to dictate the State ticket, and gave him a personal certificate of confidence in its platform, putting up, moreover, as its candidate for Governor a man accused, by a fellow-Republican of responsibility and character, of grievous political crimes. It is natural, therefore, that people in all parts of the country and of all party affiliations should take great interest in the question, Will Quay get a vindication at the polls?

There would be little risk in answering this question in the negative if the answer were to be given in any other State but Pennsylvania under the same circumstances. American citizens are very careful about the personal honesty of their rulers. Nothing causes greater apprehension to the managers of political campaigns than the possibility of the springing of some charge against a candidate late in the canvass, when there is not time to give the reply an equal circulation. Such a charge as has for months been standing against Quay would defeat any Presidential candidate, and, we think, a State candidate almost anywhere in this country, if it was not fully met before election day. We find, however, that there is a general impression that the Pennsylvania conscience is of a different make. Quay's supreme audacity in dictating the ticket and the platform seems to many persons to indicate that he is so sure of his control of the political machinery of his State and of the fidelity of the Republican voters there to their party name that he counts with reason on a victory. It is interesting to look over the ground and see how the chances at this date lie.

The first reason that a Quay man will give for his confidence this year is the fact that the Republicans have the majority of about 80,000 given to Harrison to rely on. It is easy to show that this is not a safe reliance even in Pennsylvania. In the first place, the shape given to the campaign of 1888 by President Cleveland's tariff-reform message was especially calculated to strengthen the Republicans in Pennsylvania, the nerve-centre of protection, where even the Democratic leader, Mr. Randall, was a tariff man. The majority of 1888 must be, therefore, considered larger than would have been secured under ordinary circumstances. In 1872, when Grant ran against Greeley, the Republican majority went up to 137,548. In 1882, when Pattison (Dem.) was elected Governor, there was a Republican split, resulting in two Republican candidates. But Pattison, who had a plurality of 40,202, lacked only 3,541 of a majority over both the Republicans, and, had the Greenback-Labor vote of 23,996 been added to his count (and the majority of that vote was drawn from the Democratic side), he would have had over 20,000 majority. In 1883 the Republican candidate for Attorney-General was elected by only 17,075 majority, and in 1886 the majority against Black (Dem.) was only 42,651, with no Republican scandals to assist him. Looking at figures alone, there is, therefore, no impossibility in defeating Quay this year. In any other State but Pennsylvania it would be safe to count on his defeat by the apathy of disgusted Republicans who would not vote at all, combined with the votes of those who would condemn Quayism in the most emphatic manner by voting squarely for Pattison. In this State the 53,451 majority for Gov. Dix in 1872 was changed to a majority of 50,317 for his opponent two years later, through the influence of the hard times. The intelligence of Pennsylvania ought to be influenced as much by a question of political morals as New York was by a question of profits and wages.

There are two powerful influences working against Quay this year, the result of which cannot yet be foreseen, viz.: the po-

sition against his ticket taken by the labor leaders and the farmers' organization. Men like Powderly have come out openly for Pattison, and it is known that the great body of miners look on the Democratic candidate as a protector of their interests. That Quay knows this and fears its effect, is shown by his haste to devise means to split the labor vote from the Democrats. Moreover, the Philadelphia *Record* says that there is evidence of a serious change of feeling on the part of the farmers of Pennsylvania in regard to the tariff; that the McKinley Bill, following the Cleveland message, has opened their eyes, and that a revolt against McKinleyism is to be expected, aside from any question of Quayism.

If Quay can count as surely on the fidelity of the Republican voters of Pennsylvania as he can on the servility of the Republican press of the State, he need worry very little about the result. With one or two exceptions, even journals which denounced Quay in advance of the Convention, journals which fearlessly point out errors of their party and of its representatives at Washington, conceal the crime of Quay from their readers, and urge the election of his ticket. One of these, the Philadelphia *Ledger*, thus lightly dismissed the possible Republican opposition to Quayism in a political article the other day:

"It is known to every one familiar with political contests that those leaders who are disaffected immediately following a nomination they opposed, almost invariably fall into line and support it throughout the active part of the campaign and at the polls. As for the independent vote, it is said that its opposition to Mr. Delamater is not to be feared, and it is notable that the larger part of those who were prominent leaders of the independent movement of 1882, which swept Mr. Pattison into the Governor's chair, are now among the heartiest sustainers of the Republican candidate. Among men of business in this city and throughout the State, to whom he is known as an enterprising man of business, Mr. Delamater is highly respected, esteemed, and trusted. All indications are that the party will not be greatly divided upon his candidacy."

The Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph*, another Republican journal of the class indicated, says:

"These early efforts to make it appear that there is going to be a landslide of workingmen and agriculturists in favor of Pennsylvania Democracy this year, will fall to the ground and be forgotten before the real battle begins. The people of Pennsylvania know what the real issues of the hour are, and they will not be turned aside by appeals to their passions or prejudices. Here and there will be found a man of more or less prominence, like Mr. Marshall of Pittsburgh, over whose defection there will be much noise made by the enemy; but throughout the length and breadth of the State, a full month after the nominations have been made, there are no signs whatever of any serious break in the Republican lines; no sign that the Democratic party will be able to do more than march up the hill next November and then march down again."

We make these quotations, not to accept the views expressed as a correct statement of the present political situation in Pennsylvania, but to show the apathy of public conscience there which certainly does exist. It is yet too early to form an opinion of the result in November. If the vote were to be cast now, it is more than probable that Delamater would be beaten, notwithstanding the apparent apathy and the dereliction of certain respectable newspapers.

SHORTENING THE COLLEGE COURSE.

In the *Atlantic Monthly* for August Prof. Shaler grapples with a problem as difficult as it is important. Should his solution of it be adopted, he will have surpassed the desert of the traditional man who made two blades of grass grow where but one grew before, for he will have added a year to the productive life of our educated men. While this may not seem high praise to the believer in culture in and for itself, even he would perhaps not regard it as an unworthy result when attained without diminution of the learning that is not directly profitable, and this result Prof. Shaler considers attainable. Those who do not regard the acquisition of knowledge, however delightful it may be, as intrinsically the highest of ends, will certainly rejoice to learn that there is a prospect of extending the period of its application.

For, as Prof. Shaler very frankly admits, the schools of the American people, the recipients of money and devotion in a measure never known before, "have failed to serve the needs of the communities which so carefully cherished them." Their teachers "have made little effort to accommodate the training they give the youth to the requirements of the world." The graduate, while not quite so helpless as the newspapers represent him, is yet ill-prepared for active life, and, after he has fairly engaged in it, retains at best only the general enlargement which his scholastic career has impressed upon him. The perception of this truth has brought our colleges into a certain disfavor. They are, Prof. Shaler declares, less and less resorted to by our youth, who tend to seek entrance to the professions and other educated callings through schools of a lower grade. The testimony of parents who have selected these byways is, in brief, that a college education costs too much, that it takes too long, and that in most occupations it does not aid a student.

It does not follow, if we concede that there is an element of truth in these objections, that the technical or professional school is a proper substitute for the college. It is a duty that each generation owes to its successor to pass on the store of knowledge accumulated by the race, and "the first object of all true culture is to enfranchise the youth by showing him all that we can concerning the lofty thought and action of his predecessors, as well as the nature of the universe, which has been revealed by their labors." Upon the whole, it seems that this work can only be done in the university. An atmosphere exists there that exists nowhere else, and Prof. Shaler's deliberate testimony as to the visible, the "singular," enlargement produced by the communal life of students at Harvard carries with it great weight. "If it were possible to set before the reader a series of pictures which should show the usual stages of intellectual development of youths in their four years' life in this university, and against them to place a similar series depicting the history of their playmates who had been nurtured on the scantier fare of real bread-winning life, we should have no farther need to debate the value of academic training."

This training, therefore, let every one get who can, but let it be remembered that the college is made for man, and not man for the college. If the training is so desirable, it ought to be furnished in such a way that a student might begin his active life before reaching the age of twenty-six or twenty-seven years. Within a generation Harvard College has required at least one year more of work preparatory to admission, under the expectation that the fitting schools would manage to send pupils with this additional preparation at the same age as before. This expectation having been disappointed, it remains to be seen whether time can be spared at the other end of the course; for it cannot be taken from the professional side of the student's work.

This could be done very simply by making the academic period three years instead of four. But it would be better, in Prof. Shaler's opinion, to give degrees to those who have rapidly attained the end of the prescribed culture after three years, while others should continue their studies for a year longer. Or, the student who is sufficiently developed might begin his professional studies in his Sophomore or Junior year, and complete the first year of them before going into the professional school. Prof. Shaler considers either of these methods as practicable, and in the light of his experience desirable. Contrary to his original prejudices, he now believes that it would favorably affect the development of most students to have a distinct professional motive soon after entering college. There would be the incidental advantages of rendering it possible to recognize the claims of general culture in the professional school, and of combining the interests of the several faculties of the university. There are now injurious gaps and clefts between stages of education, whereas the lifework should be merged in the general culture for the advantage of both teachers and pupils.

As to the cost of education, this shortening of the course would reduce it *pro tanto*; but otherwise Prof. Shaler is rather vague in his observations. If the tuition fee at Harvard could be reduced from $150 to $50 per annum, of course more students could pay it, but such a reduction would equal the interest on about $2,500,000. He does not refer to the loss of revenue that would result from a shortening of the course. He thinks it "doubtful if the interests of the higher education would be served by over-much diminution in the sacrifices which parents now have to make to procure it for their children," and maintains that this education should be open only to those who have some natural fitness for it and are willing to strive for it. Still, he concludes that its cost is far too high for the public good.

What is most striking in this article is the glimmering of a truth which professional educators have been singularly slow to apprehend—the inequality of minds and of mental development. Our theory of education resembles the present socialistic theory in providing that all scholars must proceed

pari passu; that none shall get on any faster than the rest; and, as a necessary consequence, that the course of study shall be limited by the abilities of the slower minds. But the enormous differences in capacity which the active life of the world discloses in men exist most palpably among children. On Prof. Shaler's showing, the first fourteen years of life are, so far as the scholastic education of boys is concerned, practically a blank, and where this is not so, parents find themselves with their boys on their hands ready for college a year or two before the customary period. Where the development has been injudiciously managed, some "keeping back" may be necessary, but in many cases it is a sheer waste of the boy's life, so far as his future success is concerned. We have little doubt that most intelligent teachers would undertake to fit bright boys for college at sixteen if not at fourteen, provided they could get hold of them early enough. We fear that the trouble lies back of the training schools, in the family; and that it will continue so long as mothers prefer to intrust the care of their children at the most plastic age to ignorant nurses, rather than devote their own time to so laborious and exacting a task.

In this view it is encouraging to hear Prof. Shaler denouncing "the injurious and dangerous notion that there is a definite term of years required to attain the culture represented by the bachelor's degree." He finds the variation in the development of students at the beginning of their Junior year very great, and this variation, we apprehend, may be detected at an earlier age. He finds, too, "that the ablest students, after a time in college, have satisfied their possibilities of culture for its own sake, and can no longer find comfort in endeavors which are not related to deeds they desire to accomplish in active life." This concession will awaken a melancholy echo in the breasts of many men now past the hope of farther development, a bitter regret for those high days of buoyant, all-conquering enthusiasm when so much might have been done, but when dry husks were all that was granted to those who thirsted for the living water.

Should a change of the character suggested by Prof. Shaler be made, it might lead to the farther inquiry whether the length of college vacations is not excessive. Perhaps eight hours in the day is enough for work, but eight months in the year certainly seems a moderate allowance for study. Men who are seriously at work in the world take such vacations only exceptionally. It would bore them to death if they had to stop work for a third of the year. It may be said that studies may be prosecuted in vacation, but this can seldom be done to advantage in the absence of the accustomed conveniences and stimuli. Most college students, unless they have pecuniary or social opportunities for having a good time, find the long vacation irksome and unnecessary. Certainly, no one who beholds the college student of to-day as he appears at the watering-place will find it easy to believe that his system demands the cessation of intellectual application during the entire summer. Unfortunately, the witnesses best qualified by knowledge to testify on this subject, the professors themselves, are disqualified by interest.

JEFFERSON'S CONSTITUTION FOR VIRGINIA.

WASHINGTON, July 28, 1890.

EARLY in May, 1776, a convention of "delegates from the counties and corporations in the Colony of Virginia" assembled at Williamsburgh—the legislative and administrative body that was to bridge the passage from a government under the King to a government of the people, republican in form and spirit. For more than a year the nominal head of the colony, Lord Dunmore, had been powerless except for mischief, winning for himself, by his injudicious efforts to enforce the rule of his royal master, the enmity, and even hatred, of the "good people" of the colony. For more than a year local committees, self-constituted, acting as revolutionary bodies, and therefore under no laws or general system, had exercised what functions of defence, and too often of offence, were deemed necessary by a majority of their members, governed only by the rules of self-preservation. From these local committees grew the Colonial Convention, convening without definite aim or purpose, and containing within itself a difference of opinion that promised a protracted contest on every question that involved a change in the social order of the colony. The general constitution and characteristics of the leaders of this Convention have been often described, and in a very satisfactory manner, by a Virginian, Hugh Blair Grigsby, whose sympathies and historical instinct were admirably adapted to sketch in broad outlines the personality of the session.

One circumstance, however, escaped his notice, as, indeed, it has that of every historian of Virginia, a circumstance at once interesting and picturesque—the fact that Jefferson prepared a constitution for the State and submitted it to the Convention. Having instructed its delegates to the Continental Congress to vote for independence of the Crown of Great Britain, the question of self-government naturally presented itself, for the Convention had expressly reserved to itself the "power of forming government for and the regulations of the internal concerns of each colony." The resolution for instructing the delegates on independence had resulted in a compromise, not being pointed enough for such as the Lees and Henry, and being too advanced for the Conservatives, who gave it their vote "for the sake of unanimity." The question of framing a new government awakened a difference of opinion on more than one point. Would it not be well, asked Ludwell Lee, to have the Continental Congress prepare a uniform plan for governing America, to be approved by the colonies? Jefferson wrote to Edmund Randolph to oppose the formation of a permanent constitution for Virginia until a convention could be chosen by the people for that special purpose. "He denied the power of the body, elected (as he conceived them) to be the agents for the management of the war, to exceed some temporary regimen." But Randolph and the gentlemen to whom he showed this letter—Pendleton, Nelson, and Mason—could not accept such a position. They, to use Randolph's words, "saw no distinction between the conceded power to declare independence and its necessary consequence, the fencing of society by the institution of government. Nor were they sure that to be backward in this act of sovereignty might not imply distrust whether the rule had been wrested from the King."

This opinion carried the day, and the Colonial Convention at once set to work to "prepare a declaration of rights, and such a plan of government as will be most likely to maintain peace and order in this colony, and secure substantial and equal liberty to the people." From the 15th of May to the 24th of June a large and able committee was engaged in carrying these instructions into effect, and, after some amendments, on the 28th the first constitution or form of government for Virginia was unanimously adopted. It is known that the chief labor of framing the Constitution had fallen to George Mason, certainly one of the most competent members of the body. Col. Landon Carter, to whose opinion the greatest deference was shown, thought that "ambition had visibly seized so much ignorance all over the colony,' and as a result the Convention abounded "with too many of the inexperienced creatures to navigate our bark on this dangerous coast." On the other hand, Patrick Henry, the leader of the popular element in the assemblage, complained of a want of associates of ability on his side of the question.

This complaint conveyed much meaning, for the social condition of the colony had given rise to two quite distinct factions, apart from the political difference that the Revolution had produced. Whigs and Tories were known; but the "good people"—that is, those who were opposed to the government of Parliament and the British Ministry—were divided among themselves quite as sharply as were ever the Whigs from the Tories. The large land-owners formed an aristocracy, of great influence and of conservative views, while opposed to them were the so-called radicals and reformers, who, of more ardent nature, were intent upon introducing as great a revolution in the form of government for the colony as had been implied by the separation from English control. Henry complained that the aristocrats were strong in the committee appointed to frame a constitution, and that "my most esteemed republican form has many and powerful enemies." Each party had its printed argument: the one supported an anonymous tract sent to the Convention from Philadelphia with a strong endorsement from Carter Braxton; the other read with approval the 'Thoughts on Government' written by John Adams.

Adams had addressed his pamphlet to George Wythe. It was Wythe who carried to the convention a sketch or outline of a constitution which Jefferson, then in Congress, prepared. This, wrote Jefferson in 1825,

"I sent to Mr. Pendleton, President of the Convention, on the mere possibility that it might suggest something worth incorporating into that before the Convention. He informed me afterwards by letter that he received it on the day on which the Committee of the Whole had reported to the House the plan they had agreed to; that that had been so long in hand, so disputed inch by inch, and the subject of so much altercation and debate, that they were worried with the contentions it produced, and could not, from mere lassitude, have been induced to open the instrument again; but that, being pleased with the Preamble to mine, they adopted it in the House by way of amendment to the Report of the Committee; and thus my preamble became tacked to the work of George Mason."

It is not a little curious that Jefferson did not retain among his papers a copy of this attempt of his at constitution-making, or that he should not have had enough pride in his bantling to make some reference to its nature. He was, as a rule, careful in such matters. Of the composition that made his reputation as a

writer before he entered Congress—the 'Summary View'—he wrote out two copies, one of which was sent to Patrick Henry. Of the Declaration of Independence he made a number of manuscript copies and distributed them among his intimates. In 1783 he prepared a draft of a constitution for the State, and so proud of it was he, as "reaching all the great objects of public liberty," that he printed it. His indifference to his earlier sketch is all the more noticeable as it allowed John Adams to pose as the mainstay of the Virginia Convention; for he claimed that it was his little pamphlet that influenced the Convention, and, while "amazed to find an inclination so prevalent throughout all the Southern colonies to adopt plans so nearly resembling that in the 'Thoughts on Government,'" he was not a little elated that the "pride of the haughty must, I see, come down a little in the South." He had felt not a little the arrogance of the Southern members in the first and second Congresses, but he knew well how essential it was to keep with them. The fact remains that for more than a century Jefferson's draft has been lost, and it has only recently been discovered near Lexington—two copies of it, both in Jefferson's MS., one with and the other wanting the preamble. Is it too great a stretch to conjecture that one, at least, was the identical manuscript that Wythe carried to Pendleton?

It would naturally be expected that Jefferson would favor a democratic constitution—one, that is, which embodied the idea that all powers rested with the people; yet his plan was less democratic than the instrument adopted by the Convention, for he would allow the people to participate directly only in the election of the lower house of the Assembly. All else was based upon a narrow foundation. The Senate was to be "appointed" by the House, and his first idea contemplated an appointment for life; but a second thought led him to make a term of service three years. The judges of the General Court and of the High Court of Chancery were to sit in the Senate, and be allowed to speak to a question, but they could not vote. The Executive, called "Administrator," a Deputy, a Privy Council, and a Treasurer were all to hold their offices of the House of Representatives; but all other officers, civil and military, with two exceptions, were to be appointed by the Administrator, such appointment being subject to the negative of the Privy Council. The people (that is, the freeholders) were to elect annually the high sheriffs and coroners of counties.

The lower house of the Legislature in this way received all the privileges of appointment the King and Parliament possessed in the colonial system. All offices were then held at the gift of the King, and the Council was of royal appointment. The House of Burgesses alone was chosen by popular election, and its powers, save for annoyance and obstruction, were limited by the King's instructions to the Governor—instructions that could not be enforced by the Governor without the tedious, uncertain, and often dangerous appeal to the King to interpose his veto to a measure contrary to his wishes. The fear of a strong executive of the royal order led Jefferson to deny to the Governor any veto on the acts of the Legislature, and it was due to Patrick Henry that the power to negative was granted by the Convention, as he very properly proved that the want of it would tend to make the Governor an independent and not a coördinate branch of power. Jefferson himself may have seen the danger of this centralization of power in the hands of a single house, the members of which were to be chosen annually, but, once chosen, possessed the power to sit "so long as they should think the publick service requires"; for he appears to have had some doubt on the manner of appointing the Administrator and his deputy, naming the House of Representatives tentatively, for the words are enclosed in brackets. Even he provided that the "legislative, executive, and judicial offices shall be kept for ever separate." The actual constitution as adopted provided for a Senate composed of members elected once in four years from Senatorial districts; a House, chosen annually from each county; and with the two combined lay the appointment of Governor and Council, the judges of the Superior Courts, Auditors, Attorney-General, Treasurer, Register of the Land Office, and Delegates to Congress. That was more democratic than Jefferson's idea.

The manner of electing Jefferson's House—the body of kingly powers—is worthy of notice. In the session of 1769 the qualifications of a voter were a freehold estate, or fifty acres of unsettled land, or twenty-five acres where there was a house, or a city lot improved—provisions liberal enough to include nearly the entire manhood of the colony, where land was to be had almost for the asking. Jefferson wished to require "full age and sane mind," a freehold estate in land, that for the country being decreased to twenty-five acres; and he also gave the suffrage to "all persons resident in the colony who shall have paid scot and lot to Government the last two years." Not content with this, he would make every man in the colony a qualified voter. "Every person of full age, neither owning nor having owned [50] acres of land shall be entitled to an appropriation of [50] or to so much as shall make up what he owns or has owned to [50] acres, in full and absolute dominion, and no other person shall be capable of taking an appropriation."

Having thus turned every man of full age and sane mind in the colony into a landholder and a voter, Jefferson passed to the question of representation, and here offered a distinct improvement upon the plan of the Convention. Among the complaints brought against the English Constitution (and its faults attracted at that time more attention than its virtues) was the inequality of representation in the British House of Commons. Yet the Convention provided for a representation of the counties in the lower house of Assembly quite as unequal as the British examples, for each county was to send two members without respect to the population it contained. Randolph explained the acceptance of this provision by saying "that the counties to the eastward of the Blue Ridge, in which the inequality was most glaring, were too numerous to be irritated, and it was tacitly understood that every body and individual came into the revolution with their rights, and was to continue to enjoy them as they existed under the former government." Jefferson, on the other hand, would give a representative for every 400 freeholders, thus basing it upon population. The result of the retention of the old provision was that "nineteen thousand, living in one part of the country, give law to upwards of thirty thousand living in another, and appoint all their chief officers, executive and judiciary."

Two-thirds of either house constituted a quorum, and there was little limit to the powers or functions of the Assembly. Capital punishment was abolished save in cases of murder and of offences against military discipline; and a law for levying money could not remain in force longer than ten years from the time of its commencement. Beyond this the Assembly could legislate on any subject, for it was the executive that was the object of Jefferson's jealousy, and round which he sought to throw prohibitions and restrictions. The Administrator "shall possess the powers formerly held by the King," save only that he could not dissolve, prorogue, or adjourn either house; he could not declare war or make peace, issue letters of marque or reprisal, raise or introduce armed forces, build armed vessels, forts, or strongholds; he could not coin money or regulate its value, or regulate weights and measures, or erect courts, offices, boroughs, corporations, fairs, markets, ports, beacons, light-houses, or sea marks; nor could he lay an embargo, nor prohibit the exportation of any commodity for a longer space than forty days; nor could he make denizens, pardon crimes, or remit fines or punishments, or create dignities or grant rights of precedence. All these powers or functions could be exercised by the Legislature alone. The Administrator was liable to action, though not to personal restraint, for private duties or wrongs, and all his acts were to be controlled by law. The want of a veto on the acts of the Assembly made him powerless to oppose what he might deem a dangerous policy, and would have rendered supreme what does in fact tend to become the most powerful element in a republican government, the Legislature.

There is much in this draft that does not properly belong to a constitution, much that was later the subject of special legislation in Virginia under Jefferson's own direction. He would have abolished slavery to this extent: "No person hereafter coming into this country shall be held in slavery under any pretext whatever." He would have abolished entails, and made all descents go "according to the laws of Gavelkind, save only that females shall have equal rights with males." Seven years' residence, or a declaration of an intention to such a residence, and a subscription to the fundamental laws of the commonwealth, would entitle a person to "all the rights of persons natural born." Religious liberty was provided for; printing-presses should be free, "except so far as by commission of private injury they may give cause for private action." There should be no standing army except in time of war, but the freeman was not to be debarred the use of arms "within his own lands or tenements." Royal claims to wrecks, waifs, strays, treasure trove, mines, royal fish and royal birds were declared to be "usurpations on common right" and abolished. The judiciary system of the State was elaborately provided for, but the details of that branch need not be described. Finally, "no salaries shall be given to the Administrator, members of the legislative houses, judicial officers, privy councillors, or delegates to the American Congress"; but, should the Legislature so direct, the "reasonable expences" of these officers "for subsistence while acting in the duties of their office" might be borne by the public.

Such were the main features of the instrument which Jefferson devised for the government of Virginia. The details are of interest not only in themselves, but to an even greater degree for the light they throw upon a contemporary document, the authorship of which is still one of the unsolved problems. I have already mentioned a tract which appeared during the sessions of the Convention, and which had been sent from Philadelphia about the same time as Adams's 'Thoughts on Government.' Little was known of its origin, but as it bore a strong recommendation from Carter Braxton, he was suspected of being its author, and came in for the blame that his ex-

pressions of doubtful Whiggism aroused. Yet this pamphlet embodied in its proposed constitution many of the features that Jefferson inserted in his draft. A lower house elected for three years, a Senate chosen for life by the House, a Governor, Treasurer, Secretary, and "other great officers of the State" elected by the lower house, judges to be appointed by the Governor, with the advice of his privy council, and all military and inferior civil officers to hold their appointments of the Governor—this was as narrow a system as that of Jefferson's, and as open to the objection of centralization. The one, however, was regarded by the Convention as an "aristocratic" programme, and Braxton received some pretty hard knocks for recommending it; yet Jefferson's was quite as aristocratic.

By comparing his Constitution of 1783 with that of 1776, it may easily be seen how great a stride Jefferson had taken in democracy. As the proposition of 1783 is included in his published works, it may be referred to and need not detain me here. A later proposition, a suggestion for a change in the State Constitution, appears never to have been noticed. It is without date, and Jefferson's hand-writing changed so little in the active years of his life as to furnish no clue to the period at which a memorandum may have been made. The paper on which this note was written is watermarked 1794, so it may be attributed to that period of leisure which followed his retirement from Washington's Cabinet, while he was nursing his sore grief over the monarchical tendencies of the Administration, and the growth of centralization that threatened to swallow up the individual States and erect an engine of oppression such as the world had never seen. With such an incubus resting upon him, it is not to be wondered at that he should have developed an almost extreme democratic remedy. I doubt if the like proposition has ever been seriously broached in a community that claims to be self-governed, or that is capable of exercising due judgment in matters of government. After providing for the election of a legislature, to consist of not less than 150 or more than 300 members, Jefferson makes this original proposition:

"The Legislature shall form one house only for the verification of their credentials, or for what relates to their privileges. For all other business they shall be separated by lot into two chambers, which shall be called [α and ω], on the first day of their session in every week; which separation shall be effected by presenting to the representatives from each county separately a number of lots equal to their own number, if it be an even one, or to the next even number above, if their number be odd, one-half of which lots shall be distinctly marked for the one chamber, and the other half for the other; and each member shall be, for that week, of the chamber whose lot he draws. . . .

"Each chamber shall appoint a Speaker for the session, and it shall be weekly decided by lot between the two Speakers of which chamber each shall be for the ensuing week."

It is unfortunate for us that merely the bald proposition is made, without the interesting explanation of the reasons for the proposed change that Jefferson might have recorded. In the absence of such an explanation, it is difficult to conjecture his purpose, for this weekly shifting of members and speakers of two houses, elected by the same constituencies, would have introduced as great a novelty into the political system of Virginia as did Jefferson's famous *pêle-mêle* into the social system of Washington. The latter almost produced a diplomatic complication that war alone could solve; the former would have produced legislative anarchy that nothing but a reversion to the earlier Constitution could have cured. That he had some purpose must be conceded, for during his Presidency he generally sought to cover his policy by special amendments to the Constitution, as in the case of the Louisiana purchase, internal improvements by the national Government, and a national university. Yet there is nothing in the political condition of Virginia between 1794 and 1801 that could call for such a remarkable experiment in government, nor does the proposition appear to have been submitted to his friends. None the less, it was a genuine product of Jefferson's mind, and as such is essential to understand the progression of his political ideas.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

FURTHER IMPRESSIONS OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

LONDON, July 23, 1890.

THE session of Parliament draws near its close. It has been in the main, and considering possibilities, a wasted session. That contempt or regardlessness of public opinion which disgraces the policy of the Government towards Ireland has infected their handling of British questions, and brought humiliation and lessened majorities. The really fine and well-intentioned men who back the Government, entangled in mazes of their leaders' devising, are often to be pitied. What may befall the other side of the House when (in the ascendant) their errors and shortcomings are exposed and followed up with the merciless and unpitying hostility that has been meted out to the present Government?

I do not propose, however, now considering general politics, but rather desire to take up the thread of previous remarks upon the life and constitution of the House of Commons. Subsequent experiences have only deepened my interest in the study. It is a democratic assembly in the best sense, often reminding me of the Society of Friends. In the long run a man takes his place according to his abilities and honesty of purpose, irrespective of his station or means. The size of London and the consequent freedom of London life doubtless contribute to this result. There is not much opportunity of comparing men except as they appear in the House. Moreover, the House is a sort of school of manners. Rude language or ungentlemanly demeanor is rare, the arrangements and the general bearing of its members are in accordance with the usages of good society, and yet the manners and customs in some respects, before they are understood, may appear brusque and cold. Your nearest friend there will brush past you in silence, the leader of your party will meet you without a look. You may sit down to write at a table next a man whom you have entertained at your home and not receive the slightest recognition. The speedy retirement of an old politician after a short trial of Parliamentary life, which once puzzled me, has lately been explained as having arisen from his inability to comprehend this usage and his resentment of it. It may be termed essentially English. It shocks at first. But you soon perceive that it really contributes towards members leading their own lives, as well as their political lives, in the House, and you find that, at meals, in the tea-room, the smoking-room, or on the terrace, and always if there is real occasion for intercourse, the old human nature is there.

Many a man who has been perhaps a life-long advocate of a cause may have to guard himself against pique when he becomes aware that he is now nowhere in comparison with others who have recently brought higher abilities than his to the conflict. And, perhaps more difficult still, he may have to be satisfied with but scant intercourse with some who sought information from him when they were first awakening to a great subject, and who, having accepted the light, now, in the course of the struggle, naturally and properly associate with those of their own intellectual calibre. The instances are few, and I believe will long continue so, in which any but men of university training can attain great permanent eminence in the government of the British Empire.

Whatever a man may have been in his own district or circle, on first entering the House he probably feels himself rather like a puppy thrown into water. He has to find his own level anew, to sink or swim almost without pity and without help. One wisely conscious of really great abilities will recognize an unequalled opportunity for their use. The vain or self-sufficient, who have perhaps bartered means or principles for seats, will before long recognize that as vestrymen or guardians of the poor at home they were of more account; it must often be a rude awakening. To attain first place, power of common-sense debate, not necessarily of oratory, is essential. Nevertheless, the mediocre man who has offered his services or accepted service on principle, who has no desire to appear anything he is not, and who is more anxious for the triumph of right than for personal success, will perhaps, after experiencing a certain sense of humiliation, and after sounding the depths, eventually feel the ground under him and come to be satisfied with his own position as part of the great whole. Most men of feeling will have to acknowledge that in the first few months of their novitiate, seasons of discouragement alternate with periods of elation.

I have closely watched the Speaker and Mr. Courtney, the Chairman of Committees, and both win my admiration. Their position often requires the patience of Job, and that they generally show. The occasions upon which I have been struck with their forbearance have outnumbered those upon which they appear hasty or unfair; the guillotine of "order" comes down as mercilessly on the Cabinet Minister as on the unwary and inexperienced neophyte. If the one is excused, owing to the importance of the subject that has diverted him from the strict lines of debate, with the other the rules are stretched because of his inexperience. Opponents on both sides are keener than the occupant of the chair in checking a speaker. Apart from the action of the Government in their policy towards Ireland, I perceive no difference between the treatment of Irish members and that of members of the great British parties. The Irish whips, one of whom has, as Mr. Balfour's criminal, spent a considerable time in prison, are accorded their own convenient, handsomely furnished room. Whenever the Irish party meets in secret conclave, a large, well-appointed apartment is at its service. A presentation to Mr. and Mrs. O'Brien took place the other day in one of the grand committee-rooms. If Mr. Parnell desired to give a dinner in the House, the suite of refreshment-rooms would, on an "off evening," doubtless be placed at his disposal, as they were upon a late occasion relegated to Mr. Matthews, the Home Secretary. It is, indeed, a remarkable illustration of the force of justice and persistence, and of the sense of fair play and respect for vigorous opponents innate in the English character, that the Irish party should attain their present position in the House. That position belies the assumption that they are a pack of unreliable scoundrels,

bent upon the destruction of the British Empire.

It may not be generally known that a member of Parliament does not as such receive one penny of remuneration or reimbursement for travelling, living, or otherwise. He is allowed a limited number of copies of each bill, and one each of other documents. Beyond this he must pay like any one else. I have been curious to inquire regarding privileges accorded to members out of the House; so far, all I have been able to discover are the right, which I have not availed myself of, to sit in a particular pew at St. Margaret's, Westminster, and that of procuring a reading order at the British Museum without the signature of a London householder—an immunity not extended to the member's wife. True, there is the chance of splendid prizes to the members of the British parties. They must, however, increasingly be reserved for the especially capable. It is a remarkable manifestation of the love of work and desire to serve others, more or less mixed with perhaps the love of influence and importance, extant in humanity, that so many should toil in committee and otherwise, day after day, session after session, without fee or reward, in a manner that can never be fully appreciated by the outside public.

The arrangements to prevent "lobbying" are perfect. The House can be entered by members in half-a-dozen ways. The public, except reporters and private secretaries who have permanent orders, are admitted by only one entrance to the outer lobby on satisfying the police that they have some business. Members have no occasion to be in this lobby. Cards are carried in by attendants, and there are always sufficient good reasons for a member not to respond unless so inclined.

The enormous salaries, the overgrown pensions, the extent to which the aristocracy manages to provide for itself out of the public purse, the immense expense of establishments, are striking characteristics of the British system. Take the Speaker, who never serves very many years, whose duties occupy him only seven months of the twelve and five days of the week. He has £5,000 a year for life, a palatial residence, patronage and privileges of all kinds, and is generally accorded a peerage, while a life pension of £4,000 a year is continued to his son and grandson. This whole system is, however, honest and above-board. There it is in black and white. The English people can alter it whenever they wish. Not only are all the accounts and payments raked over in Committee of the House, but there is a highly paid Auditor-General, who at present happens to be an Irishman. He presents a voluminous annual report upon the payments of each previous year, and there is an Accounts Committee, before which he and the accountants of the different departments appear. His criticisms are fully inquired into, the accountants examined, the evidence printed, and a report drawn up which influences the estimates for the succeeding year. Under these arrangements, honestly carried out, as I believe them to be, it would be difficult for serious malversation to occur. The case that excited most comment and occupied most time in the Accounts Committee this year was one in which some material paid for but not immediately required by Government had been handed over to a private customer, who wanted it at once, by the contractor, before he had replaced it for the Government service.

My Parliamentary experience deepens day by day my conviction of the impossibility of a long continuance of the effort to govern Ireland by coercion, against the wishes of its people and their representatives. Residence in this great free country, especially in this great free metropolis, only accentuates the difference that separates British and Irish methods of government. My respect for the character and personnel of the Irish Parliamentary party has been increased by closer contact. It is in some of its parts a rough instrument, but it was the only instrument available under the circumstances, and never was it more powerful and effectual than it now is. There is no sense of servitude in being a constituent member. The party is consolidated by common conviction and the necessities of the situation. The leaders are less exacting than are the members towards each other. The higher tendencies of the movement assert themselves. There remain many difficulties to overcome and dangers to avoid. There will at first be bitter disappointment in Ireland among certain classes at the results of success. More and more, however, is it becoming evident that we are on the threshold of the accomplishment of one of the most desirable and unexpected consummations in British history—the heart union of Great Britain and Ireland; and an individual who in his lifetime had seen that and the abolition of American slavery would have more than his own share of good. D. B.

Correspondence.

"*HAPPIFY.*"

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As I remember it, American pulpit-oratory of half a century ago was occasionally marked by peculiarities indicating no very refined taste. Frequent, among such of these as did not originate on our soil, were the ancient *agone*, the lumbering *renewedly*, and the unlovely *happify*. The first, it hardly need be said, was long current in literature. On the contrary, the second, though it occurs in Samuel Richardson's *Clarissa Harlowe*, was never an item of the accepted vocabulary of England. Nor, most probably, has *happify* often found its way into books. Yet it has not been wholly confined to the spoken language. On its recent appearance in an English periodical, inquiry was made for quotations determining its use. Two I am able to give. Joshua Sylvester writes: "One short Mis-hap for-euer *Happifies*." Thus ends his "Tropheis of the life and tragedie of the death of Henry the Great," appended to Edward Grimston's "Heroyk Life and deplorable Death of the most Christian King Henry the fourth" (1612), translated from the French of Pierre Matthieu. The verse, as here cited, is at p. 1090 of Sylvester's *Works*, ed. 1621. My other quotation is from Samuel Holland: "A Merchant . . . will think himself *happyfy'd* in having the honour to transport your self and Soto, your Squire." *Zara* (1656), p. 88 (ed. 1719).

Happify, exhibiting the Latinistic *-fy* suffixed to an English adjectival base, has never been recognized as reputable; and formations classifiable with it, as *fiftify* (*i. e.* 50fy, with playful reference to *fortyfy*=40fy), *filthify*, *fustify*, *gladify*, *muddify*, *prettify*, *sleepify*, *tipsify*, *turpify*, *uglify*, etc., are, all, unless one is to except *cockneyfy*, debarred from formal discourse.

As to verbs like *speechify*, few of them have gained admission into serious writing. Yet Bp. Aylmer (1559) has *doltify*; *foolify* enjoys the sanction of the Rev. Dr. Meredith Hanmer (1581), Dr. Philemon Holland (1609), and Bp. Richard Mountagu (1621); and numerous authors have patronized *ladify*.

Among old and new verbs in *-fy*, miscellaneous, lingually and in other respects, as regards their first element, some of the rarer for which I have collected quotations are *assify*, *bodify*, *boundify*, *caprify*, *citify*, *clerify*, *constellify*, *daintify*, *dandify*, *deathify*, *dedify*, *donkeyfy*, *duncify*, *erectify*, *fancify*, *finify*, *fishify*, *fussify*, *gummify*, *hindrify*, *hominify*, *idolify*, *jellify*, *laurify*, *mountaineerify*, *mynheerify*, *nettlefy*, *nigrify*, *nugify*, *ornify*, *oxify*, *paucify*, *prosify*, *pulchrify*, *punchify*, *puppify*, *quizzify*, *tawdrify*, *tourify*, *twistify*, *unclify*, *unegofy*, *ungentlefy*, *unipsefy*, *Vauxhallify*, and *vestrify*, with a considerable group of oddities from Sir Thomas Urquhart's translation of Rabelais.

Otherwise than in humorous or familiar composition, we meet with few of the coinages just instanced. The oldest of them seems to be the ridiculous *dedify*, "dedicate," which was in print before 1500. In *ornify*, used by the Rev. Dr. John Donne and Richard Brathwait, since its leading member is *ournen*, *ourne*, *aourn*, *anorn*, "adorn," we have a compound not very much better than Samuel Holland's *hindrify* (1656), and the more modern *argufy*. *Fancify* and *finify*, instead of being recent inventions, were, both of them, ventured by Henry, Earl of Monmouth—the first in 1656, and the other in 1650.

Your obedient servant,
F. H.

Marlesford, England, July 4, 1890.

Notes.

It is proposed to publish a memorial volume containing selections from the works of the late William Francis Allen, Professor of History in the University of Wisconsin. Besides an introductory memoir and a complete bibliography of all his writings, including review articles, it will contain papers representative of his work in English social and economic history, mediæval history, Roman history, Western history, United States history and politics, and the classics, as well as essays upon educational and religious topics. A few of these articles will be monographs selected from the proceedings of various learned societies with which he was associated, showing his scholarly treatment of special topics; but for the most part they will consist of reprints of magazine articles and pamphlets which exhibit his skill in uniting scientific with popular treatment, and which in their present form are in danger of being lost in the mass of periodical literature. A carefully prepared index will be added. The edition will be for advance subscribers only, and will be printed from the type, each copy being numbered. Subscriptions, at $2 a copy, payable upon receipt of the volume, should be sent without delay to Prof. David B. Frankenburger, University of Wisconsin.

Dr. Joseph M. Toner has in press the well-known journals kept by Washington when on a surveying expedition for Lord Fairfax (1748), when conveying a letter from Gov. Dinwiddie to the commandant of the French forces at Fort Le Boeuf, near Lake Erie (1753), and while on a visit to Barbados (1751). They have been very carefully edited, annotated, and indexed.

John Wiley's Sons announce 'Practical Seamanship,' for use in the merchant service, by John Todd and W. B. Whall; and Ruskin's 'Seven Lamps of Architecture' and 'Præterita.'

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s autumn list of publications includes a new edition of Fergusson's 'History of Modern Architecture,' revised and brought down to date by Prof. Robert Kerr, with a supplementary volume on Modern Architecture in America, by Montgomery Schuyler; a limited *édition de luxe* of a new 'Memoir of Horace Walpole,' by Austin Dobson; a similar edition of the same author's poem, "A Sun-Dial"; 'The Devil's Picture Books: A History of Playing Cards,' by M. K. Van Rensselaer; six volumes in the new series, "Makers of America," beginning with 'Alexander Hamilton,' by Prof. W. G. Sumner; 'Mungo Park and the Niger,' by Joseph Thomson, in the series called "Great Explorers and Explorations"; a "Giunta Series" "intended to include the classics of literature in every department"; 'Our Mother Tongue,' by Theodore H. Mead; 'Ardis Claverden,' a novel, by Frank R. Stockton; 'Wanneta the Sioux,' by Warren K. Moorhead; 'The Delight Makers, a Novel of Pueblo Indian Life,' by Adolf F. Bandelier; 'The Silver Caves,' by Ernest Ingersoll; 'My Study Fire,' essays by Hamilton Wright Mabie; 'Désirée, Queen of Sweden and Norway,' from the French of Baron Hochschild by Mrs. M. Carey; and 'The Jew,' a novel from the Polish of J. I. Kraszewski.

J. B. Lippincott Co. publish directly 'In and Out of Book and Journal,' selections by Dr. A. Sydney Roberts, with illustrations by Van Schaick; 'Gleanings for the Curious from the Harvest-fields of Literature,' by Dr. C. C. Bombaugh; 'European Days and Ways,' by Alfred E. Lee; 'Two Modern Women,' by Mrs. Kate Gannett Wells; 'An Elementary History of the United States,' by Charles Morris; and 'Sewage Disposal Works,' by W. S. Crimp.

The J. G. Cupples Co., Boston, will publish a fully illustrated life of Paul Revere by Elbridge H. Goss.

Ginn & Co. announce 'A Synopsis of English and American Literature,' by G. J. Smith of the Washington (D. C.) High School.

The ninth volume of Prof. Masson's 'Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Macmillan) appropriately bears on its title-page a vignette portrait of Ricardo, whose writings stimulated De Quincey to produce the papers which form the bulk of this collection entitled "Political Economy and Politics." The latter rubric covers De Quincey's denunciation of the clerical blight on true historic study of the Puritan Revolution. The essay on "California and the Gold-Digging Mania" is an alarm to those not busy in saving mankind from the influx of the yellow metal, which might be expected to lower the ratio to silver to eight to one. "So wide a desolation could not by any device of man reach so vast a body of helpless interests." De Quincey recommended as the first bulwark the repeal of the statute making gold a legal tender for sums above forty shillings. Our silver saviours of society will find much profit in his vaticinations, which are less than forty years old.

Those travellers who are fortunate enough to visit Greece next winter will be glad to have with them, as a supplement to Baedeker, Ch. Diehl's 'Excursions Archéologiques en Grèce' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.); and those to whom this good fortune is denied will enjoy making these excursions in their libraries, under M. Diehl's guidance. He takes us to Mycenæ, Delos, Athens, Olympia, Eleusis, Epidauros, Dodona, Tiryns, Tanagra, and Mt. Ptoïon, and describes the results of the recent investigations at each of these sites in a language easily understanded of the people. His aim is to do for Greece what Gaston Boissier has done for Rome and Pompeii, in presenting the scholars' work to the unscholarly in such matters; and, except for an occasional tendency to become too discursive, which is especially noticeable in the chapter on Delos, he has succeeded admirably. He confines himself to the excavations of the last fifteen years, and his book is the first attempt to summarize, in a popular form, the acquisitions made to our knowledge of life in ancient Greece by the work done at all the sites named, in this remarkably active period.

It is not too late for tourists to slip into their satchels the Rev. Julius H. Ward's 'The White Mountains: A Guide to their Interpretation' (Appletons). It is fairly to be called a pocket volume, but is liberally printed and is embellished with well-chosen views, and has a map of the region, which is intended rather to give a general idea than to serve the explorer. Mr. Ward has called to his aid a well-versed member of the Appalachian Club, who lays out a number of routes for pedestrians; and he appends a list of White Mountain papers in *Appalachia*, and of books, from Crawford to Starr King. Mr. Ward's aim is not that of the veteran climber who knows every foot of the mountains, like Mr. W. M. Conway in his guide to the Pennine Alps. He writes from sufficiently extensive acquaintance with the principal peaks, but his "personally conducted" readers are to share particularly his reverent and mystical feelings at the proper time and place. His own preference is to be alone on his excursions, which he takes very solemnly. A gossiping woman on a bridle-path is to him an even more distressing creature than one who does not know "how to take care of herself." Such as approach the mountains in his spirit will no doubt like to compare their sensations with Mr. Ward's. Others may pass lightly over his interpretations to possess themselves of his practical indications.

Those whose summer recreation takes them to New Jersey will find gentler and safer mountain-climbing than in New Hampshire, and will probably overlook the geologic interest of a State whose surface has been thoroughly mapped. Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard College has lately issued two pamphlets in pursuance of studies which he has made distinctively his own, namely, among the small-sized rivers of the Atlantic slope, whose genesis he seeks to explain. One is a paper from the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History, on "The Geographic Development of Northern New Jersey"; the other is a lecture before the National Geographic Society on "The Rivers of Northern New Jersey," with notes on the classification of rivers in general. Both are lucid in description, and accompanied by excellent diagrams, and are well calculated to promote that home study which can be made the basis of the soundest scientific observation.

Dr. R. Mahrenholtz, a well-known student of seventeenth and eighteenth-century French, writing in No. 29 of the *Magazin für die Litteratur*, has some interesting remarks on the prevailing confusion in the language of to-day, owing to the invasions of argot, the inventions of the Naturalists, the influence of the southern provinces, etc. His text is Prof. Césaire Villatte's 'Parisismen,' a slang dictionary which has just reached a third edition in Berlin. He instances numerous mutilated forms, of which "photo" for photograph in English is an example; the poetic figurative designations, as *balayeuse*, for a lady whose skirts sweep the streets; the building upon imported words in accordance with French analogy, as lunch, *luncher* (to lunch), *luncheur;* the tendency of the accent to abandon the last syllable (in words of three syllables to seek the middle), and, again, on the one hand, to sound final mute e as in poetry (*favorable* in four syllables), on the other in good circles to drop the final syllable in *quatre, votre*, etc.; the upsetting of the old rules about the subjunctive, etc. On the whole, though Dr. Mahrenholtz looks with some distrust upon the revolution, he is inclined to see in it a salutary effort to shake off the yoke of the Academy and give the language its free development.

— The August *Harper's* contains several articles of widely differing interest, from Dr. Parkman's experimental retreat to a Roman convent in the days of his youth to an account of the geology of Chicago and an admirable narrative of Custer's last fight, the details of which are pieced together as they have been recovered from many sources, so that we seem to have the story of an eye-witness of a conflict from which no white man escaped alive. Berlin, Magellan, and the streets of India are also promising and noteworthy subjects. We leave these one side, however, to attend to the attack which Mr. Howells makes in "The Study" upon anonymous criticism. For five years now he has had his say upon literature past, present, and to come, and others have criticised what he has pronounced upon Cervantes and Cawein, Thackeray and Ironquill, Scott and Mr. T. S. Perry; and he, displeased, as he acknowledges, at the treatment accorded him, now has his say also upon the pack that worries him. He uses none of those purring adjectives with which he makes a pleasant sound when some votary of "lyrism" draws nigh him from the wild Southwest or the Arcady that neighbors on Toronto. He conceives the profession of criticism as follows: "It is hard enough to treat a fellow-author with respect even when one has to address him, name to name, upon the same level in the open; swooping down upon him in the dark, panoplied in the authority of a great journal, it is impossible. One must then treat him as prey, and strike him into the mire, preparatory to tearing him limb from limb." He speaks of "the constant spectacle" of the "ferocity, incompetence, and dishonesty" of our literary criticism; compares it to the "torture of witnesses"; and, coming to the person of the anonymous critic, says that "he wears a mask chiefly that he may more securely give pain and more of it," calls him "the arrogant, bullying, blundering pedant," refers to his "almost inevitable savagery and dishonesty," and "the sins of pride, of prejudice, and of cruelty which he may safely indulge in the dark," and likens the review which employs him to "the gentleman" who "keeps a masked bravo in his pay." Now, that Mr. Howells most potently believes all this we have no question; but some of these expressions suggest to our minds a doubt whether something more than the habit of signing the name is not needful to the making of that "able, modest, and courteous critic" whose coming Mr. Howells so much desires. So much vituperation is not often to be found in the anonymous criticism of a "great journal," at least in our experience. And, if we may make the old appeal to Philip sober, a glance at the *Atlantic Index* shows no inconsiderable amount of anonymous criticism from his own pen; did he then find it impossible to do aught, "panoplied in the authority" of a greater than a "great journal," except to "swoop down," to "strike into the mire," to "tear limb from limb"? Was it his editorial responsibility that restrained him? Or does he think others incapable of behavior like his own before he emerged from among

the irresistible temptations of "in the dark"?

—The fact is that Mr. Howells, in nearly all his criticisms during the past five years, has illustrated, by his lack of it, one great advantage of anonymous criticism, when weighted with the authority of a "great journal" or review. He has expressed his personal opinions without let or hindrance; and the result has been a mass of judgments upon great and petty authors which is remarkable for eccentricity, dogmatism, and the spirit of faction. Writing anonymously in a "great journal" checks such idiosyncrasies by virtue of what is known as the traditions of the paper or the review, and this set of traditions is a large element in its authority. A paper, having won its reputation by employing trustworthy writers, carries a presumption that its articles are trustworthy, and is fairly entitled to the favorable disposition of its readers; its tradition is a valuable safeguard for its contributors, and must ordinarily be observed by its staff. Just as the editor is incessantly hedged about, guided, and guarded, in forming his personal judgment, by a sense of public opinion inevitably modifying and entering into his decision, and thus really represents more than by himself alone he would ever have attained to, so, though in a very modest way, the critic of a "great journal" is restricted and limited more or less consciously by the sense of the standards of his paper. It is one of the great benefits of culture, the sure mark of a really educated mind, that the scholar feels more and more the long tradition of literature, the authority of the past resulting from the thought of innumerable minds; he learns to distrust a first and personal impression, and to realize that his danger of error increases in proportion as he departs from the judgments of many others embedded in that tradition and relies upon himself. Mr. Howells's shortcoming as a critic is largely due to his lack of this sense. We have space only to suggest this advantage of responsible anonymous criticism, due to its limitation of the personal element. It falls in with this that criticism is a conservative force, which is one reason why Mr. Howells abominates it; and yet opinion in literature is not a whit more conservative than in religion, politics, or science, and the Keats or Wordsworth of the time has no more difficulty than the Darwin, the Phillips, or the Emerson. It is no hardship that the reformer should justify himself before he is accepted. But apart from such regards as these, the practical and immediate benefits of anonymity are too plain to be mistaken. The signed article can speak frankly only of the dead. We observe that Mr. Howells seldom assails the living, unless it be so impersonal and, in his judgment, mortuary a thing as the *Saturday Review*. The signed article, also, is under the strongest temptation to favor without sincerity, and sometimes to curry favor, for the sake of friendship, real or prospective, with authors and publishers. The signed article handicaps the obscure writer, and too often releases the famous writer from really doing the work, for it is his name, not his examination of the book, that is wanted. And so we could make a catalogue, quite as dreary if not so ferocious as Mr. Howells's, of the disadvantage of signed criticism as a rule. As to the "masked bravo," etc., there is much exaggeration in it. The critic, in our experience, rarely has any intention to inflict "pain and more of it" in our reputable journals; and what truth there is in these fierce charges of the "Study" is no more than that, in all walks of life, there are mean men, and occasionally a fool, and there are blows to give and take from erring and quite honest men. Mr. Howells will find many an example in literary history of how to bear with the insects of the hour, and even the giants of the reviews, without resorting to harsh language.

—The remaining magazines may be briefly dismissed. The *Century* is most notable for an account of the New England community of the town of Mount Desert, by President Eliot, in which he explains in detail the social life and institutions of the typical unit of our people, and reminds socialists, nationalists, anarchists, etc., that with these institutions and this life some forty millions at least of the nation are well content. This is no reason, of course, why the one lost sheep should be suffered to wander, but it suggests that there is no need for entirely reconstructing the fold and inflicting a new brand on the whole flock. The usual serials of travel, fiction, the war, together with an interesting paper on whaling and another on the Yosemite, of great descriptive power, occupy the number. The *Atlantic*, sharing the sudden interest in the women of the French Salon which seems to have attacked all the great monthlies at once like an epidemic, has a paper upon "Madame Cornuel and Madame de Coulanges," of a readable quality; one upon the changes in the college course at Harvard, with general remarks on education, by Prof. Shaler; a discussion of copyright by Mr. Lodge, and poems by Whittier and Holmes. *Scribner's* is confined to a rather poor run of fiction and a gossipy article about Stanley's composition of his book, and with these a description of Paris streets and costumes in the time of the "Three Musketeers" which is capitally done and illustrated. Mr. Aldrich's poem, "The Sister's Tragedy," is the most important contribution from a literary standpoint.

—Prof. Heilprin has transmitted to the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia the results of his barometric measurements of the four highest peaks of the Mexican Republic—namely, Orizaba, Popocatepetl, Ixtaccihuatl, and the Nevado de Toluca. These summits have at various times been measured since the days of Alexander von Humboldt (1804), but the results obtained have in some instances been so broadly divergent as to leave considerable doubt as to the positions which the mountains occupied in the scale of elevation. It is the popular supposition that the loftiest of the remarkable volcances which have helped to build up the Mexican plateau is Popocatepetl, the giant cone the vision of whose snow-cap has attracted so many tourists to the City of Mexico. Humboldt, by means of angles taken from the side of Pueblo, determined the height of this mountain to be 17,674 feet, or, allowing for the corrections pointed out by his friend Oltmanns, 17,713 feet; and this figure has very generally been adopted by geographers to the present time. Professor Heilprin's barometric readings, computed from data obtained at the Central Meteorological Observatory of the City of Mexico and from simultaneous sea-level observations made at Vera Cruz, indicate elevations respectively of 17,513 and 17,533 feet, or a deficiency, as compared with Humboldt's figures, of some 150 to 200 feet. But the interesting fact is pointed out that while geographers and cartographers, even those of Mexican nationality, almost unreservedly accept Humboldt's determinations and figures, they have failed to make the correction which the levelling of the Mexican Railroad necessitates. The height of the plain of Tetimba (1,234 *toises*), which formed the base of Humboldt's measurements, was obtained barometrically, as was likewise that of the City of Mexico; and for the latter Humboldt found a value of 7,470 feet, instead of 7,347, or an excess of 123 feet. With the reduction of this amount, the commonly accepted figures show a marked correspondence with those determined in the spring of this year by Prof. Heilprin.

—As regards the height of the supposed "second" mountain of the Republic, Citlaltepetl, the "star mountain," or, as it is generally known, the Peak of Orizaba, a much greater discrepancy between earlier and later measurements exists. Ferrer, in 1796, determined trigonometrically the height of this almost perfect cone to be 17,879 feet, but Humboldt, from a low-angle measurement taken from near the town of Jalapa, obtained only 17,375 feet. It is this measurement, and a subsequent one (1877) made by Plowes, Rodriguez, and Vigil, representing an official Mexican commission, which have been considered sufficient to relegate Orizaba to the second place among Mexican mountains. The later measurement allows for the height of the mountain 17,664 feet. Humboldt, with characteristic caution, however, rejects his own measurement in favor of the earlier one of Ferrer, believing Orizaba to be the peer of Popocatepetl, and his view has been impressed upon the charts of German geographers generally. Prof. Heilprin and his associates made the fatiguing ascent of the mountain on the 6th and 7th of April, ten days before the ascent of Popocatepetl, and determined the crest to be nearly 700 feet higher than that of the supposed loftiest mountain of Mexico, or 18,205 feet above the level of the Gulf of Mexico. This result agrees closely with one obtained a few years since by Dr. Kaska, by means of a mercurial barometer, whose value is given in 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' as 5,500 metres (18,045 feet).

—The restoration of the Peak of Orizaba to the first place among Mexican volcanoes, and its increased altitude, open up the interesting question as to what constitutes the culminating point of the North American Continent. The only other mountain that need be considered in this connection is St. Elias, situated approximately on the 141st parallel of west longitude, whose summit is claimed for the possessions of both Great Britain and the United States (Alaska). Measurements of this peak vary to an extent of 6,000 feet or more, or between limits of some 13,000 and 19,000 feet. It appears on the British Admiralty charts with 14,970 feet, whereas in the reports of the United States Coast Survey for 1875 the mountain is credited with 19,464 feet, in accordance with a vertical-circle determination made the year previous by Assistant W. H. Dall. Other measurements by the same investigator gave 19,956 and 18,033 feet, thus allowing for an extreme error of upwards of 1,900 feet; all earlier measurements give less than 18,000 feet. It is difficult to explain the broad range of these determinations except on the assumption that the angles of measurement were in most cases too small to permit of accurate values being drawn from them, or that the position of the mountain has not yet been correctly plotted. Several of the early charts place the summit considerably to the east of the 141st parallel, or within what is now British territory, and two or more miles either to the north or to the south of the position given to it by the United States surveyors. The expedition which has been recently organized under the auspices of the United States Topographical Department, with

a view to determining the topography of the region about Mount St. Elias, will probably resolve the question of position and height. For the present it looks as if the mountain were to take second place among the giants of the North American Continent, falling probably but little behind the lofty beacon of the Gulf of Mexico, the Peak of Orizaba.

STANLEY AFTER EMIN.—I.

In Darkest Africa, or the Quest, Rescue, and Retreat of Emin, Governor of Equatoria. By Henry M. Stanley. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890. Two vols., 8vo.

MR. STANLEY'S book is in some respects as remarkable as the undertaking of which it is the record. It is not what would ordinarily be termed an entertaining work, and if the reader expects to find in it a constant succession of thrilling incidents and vivid pictures of strange life and scenery, he will be disappointed. It is, for the most part, a plain, straightforward official report of the manner in which an expedition was conducted to its successful issue. Numerous details are accordingly to be found in it, proper enough in a report, but likely to prove wearisome to the general reader. There are, it is true, some digressions, and not a few places in which Mr. Stanley seems to be thinking aloud, as it were, and long descriptive passages, notably of the great forest and the snow-clad mountain range; but he is generally too intent on telling his story to turn aside often to seek for dramatic incidents or curious accounts of native customs, just as in the forest his one purpose was, not to explore nor to collect specimens, but to press forward to the lake.

His work also suffers, from a purely literary point of view, in having been written with almost unprecedented rapidity and at a white heat. In his characteristic and touching closing passages he tells us that it took him but fifty days to write these thousand pages—a feat so well-nigh inconceivable to the German mind that a prominent member of the General Staff has recently publicly charged him with having written the account of his travels beforehand. Naturally one sees numerous signs of haste, in harsh and unfinished sentences, in confused statements, and occasionally in errors. Some things are said which had better have been left unsaid, and certain bombastic and overstrained passages, doubtless, would have been cancelled had there been time for revision.

On the other hand, we have never read a book more thoroughly pervaded with the personality of the author. He does not offensively obtrude himself, but he is first, the one in whom all action and interest centres, because it is impossible that it should be otherwise. At times he writes with singular clearness and force, the conversations being especially well reported, and although he now and then expresses himself with almost brutal frankness, yet the unprejudiced reader cannot but feel that he is striving to be scrupulously fair in his judgments. There is also at times a true dignity in his language, when there comes over him a sense of the importance of his mission and the weight of the responsibilities laid upon him. The reader recognizes then that he has no longer to do with a paid newspaper correspondent in search of adventures, but with one who has been nominated by the world to do a certain work, and who is conscious of the power and the will to do it. One scarcely knows which to admire most, the skill with which the expedition was led, and the persistent determination with which all obstacles to its success were overcome, or the extraordinary influence which the leader had over his native followers, the patience and tact with which he treated them, and his deep sympathy for them in their sufferings. Mr. Stanley's weakness, however, as well as his strength, is reflected in his book as in a mirror. He makes far too little allowance for the inexperience of his officers, in criticising their failures to carry out his commands. His frequent sarcastic references to the ideal Pasha are not in good taste, and are unworthy of him, while one is tempted to believe, from the repeated allusions to it, that he regards as the most extraordinary single event of the expedition the sending back his personal baggage.

The opening chapters, treating of the organization of the expedition and its transport from Zanzibar to the head of steam navigation on the Aruwimi, contain little that is worthy of note. In order to understand clearly the reasons for Mr. Stanley's course from this point, it is necessary to keep in mind that the immediate object of the expedition was to carry ammunition to Emin Pasha, who was supposed to be in imminent danger of capture by the Mahdists. The delay of a single day in bringing relief, accordingly, was to be avoided, if possible, and no small part of his trials during the next ten months was the torturing anxiety lest he should be too late. The boats on the Congo not being sufficient to take the whole expedition at once to Yambuya, he determined to divide it, marching himself directly with a picked force, and leaving the remainder under the command of Maj. Barttelot, to follow as soon as all had been brought up the river and the carriers promised by Tippu Tib, the noted Arab freebooter, had arrived. On June 28, 1887, this advance body, consisting of 389 men, including six Europeans, began its march through the absolutely unknown region which lay between them and the lake, five hundred miles distant. Judging from his previous experience in Africa, he believed that the journey would take eighty days. He prefaces his account of the forest in which for one hundred and sixty days they marched, "without ever having seen a bit of greensward of the size of a cottage chamber floor," with these quaint words: "Beseeching the reader's patience, I promise to be as little tedious as possible, though there is no other manuscript or missal, printed book or pamphlet, this spring of the year of our Lord 1890, that contains any account of this region of horrors other than this book of mine." Mr. Stanley writes in such a sophomoric style when he deliberately sets himself to describe this forest that he is only indifferently successful in conveying the impression which it made upon him to his readers. As a matter of fact, it does not appear to have differed from all other tropical and primeval forests. Many travellers have given similar descriptions of the infinite variety of trees, some standing, some fallen, all "lashed together by millions of vines, creepers, and giant convolvuli, until a perfect tangle has been formed and sunshine quite shut out, except a little flickering dust of light here and there to tell you that the sun is out in the sky"; of the birds in the tree-tops, unseen, "though their whistlings, warblings, screamings, and hootings were heard everywhere," and the "countless armies" of insects, and of the sudden rustle in the jungle as some animal, an elephant or a buffalo, hastens away from the approaching caravan. With all this we are familiar. But the unexpected vastness of this Congo forest, which occupies, conjecturally, a "compact square area of 321,057 square miles," very nearly the area of Great Britain, Ireland, and France; its constant gloom and the ignorance of the natives of any other conditions ("Do they not all say that all the world is covered with trees and thick bush?" exclaimed the Zanzibari porters in their despair, as if their memory even of grass and sunshine was but a delusion); the ceaseless danger from foes lurking behind every tree, from cunningly contrived pitfalls, poisoned skewers in the paths, and, above all, the ever-threatening famine—as we read of all this it is impossible to wonder at the profound impression made upon Mr. Stanley, who three times in eighteen months passed through this "region of horrors." It was so sparsely habited by "numberless fragments of tribes, who are at war with each other and who live apart from ten to fifty miles," that there are few paths, sometimes none, leading towards the east. In this case a way had to be cut by the advance guard, fifty picked men armed with bill-hook and axe. They had to

"find a path, or, if none can be found, to choose the thinnest portions of the jungle and tunnel through without delay, for it is most fatiguing to stand in a heated atmosphere with a weighty load on the head. If no thinner jungle can be found, then through anything, however impenetrable it may appear; they must be brisk—'chap-chap,' as we say—or an ominous murmur will rise from the impatient carriers behind. . . . Scores of voices would cry out: 'Wherein lies this fellow's merit? Is it all in his stomach? Nay, it is in his wooden back—tut—his head is too big for a scout. He has clearly been used to hoeing. What does the field hand want on the continent? You may see he is only a Banian slave! Nay, he is only a Consul's freed man! Bosh! He is a mission boy!' Their bitter tongues pierce like swords through the armor of stupidity, and the bill-hooks with trenchant edges are wielded most manfully, and the bright, keen axes flash and sever the saplings, or slice a broad strip of bark from a tree, and the bush is pierced, and the jungle gapes open, and fast on their heels continuously close presses the mile-long caravan."

The difficulties of the march were greatly aggravated by the fact that the slave-hunters had eight months before raided the forest settlements. They had not only burned the villages, but

"their rage for destruction had even been vented on the plaintain groves, every canoe on the rivers had been split into pieces, every island had been searched, and into the darkest recesses, whither a slight track could be traced, they had penetrated with only one dominating passion, which was to kill as many of the men and capture as many of the women and children as craft and cruelty would enable them. . . . What these destroyers had left of groves and plantations, of plaintain and bananas, manioc and corn-fields, the elephant, chimpanzee, and monkeys had trampled and crushed into decaying and putrid muck."

From this wanton destruction the whole expedition was more than once in danger of perishing from starvation; wood-beans, berries, and fungi being their only food for many days at a time. They passed through two camps of these "enemies of the human race," leaving in each case many who were too feeble to proceed. Even these the Arabs treated with such inhuman cruelty that Mr. Stanley with difficulty restrained himself from exterminating them on his return.

In the eastern part of the forest the villages were placed in the centre of clearings, sometimes a mile and a half in diameter, in which the fallen trees formed an almost impregnable abatis. The path goes now upon the ground, now upon a giant trunk and along a branch, until the heavily laden carrier is twenty feet above the ground. He

"descends cautiously along the steep slope until he is six feet from the ground from which he must jump on to another tapering branch, and follow that to another height of twenty

feet, then along the monster tree, then down to the ground; and so on for hours, the hot, burning sun, and the close, steamy atmosphere of the clearing forcing the perspiration in streams from his body. I have narrowly escaped death three times during these frightful gymnastic exercises. One man died where he fell. Several men were frightfully bruised. . . . All this, however, is made much harder and more dangerous when, from a hundred points, the deadly arrows are flying from concealed natives, which, thank Heaven, were not common."

It was in this part of the forest and not far from these clearings that the villages of the pygmies were found.

At length, on December 4, the wearied men came out of the forest into the sunshine and the green grass, which was greeted with a rapturous joy not to be expressed in words. As we read Mr. Stanley's account of this scene and of the enthusiastic shouts which, a few days after, the first view of the lake awakened in his followers, we are reminded of the joyous "Thalatta! Thalatta!" with which the Ten Thousand hailed the Euxine. The goal was reached, but not the end of their toils, for nothing could be learned from the natives of the man whom they had come to rescue. Their boat had been left with the Arabs five weeks' journey back in the forest. There was no canoe upon the lake nor a tree upon the shore out of which one could be made. To wait where they were was out of the question. To attempt to march overland to Wadelai, twenty-five days' journey distant, every mile of which might be contested by hostile natives, was equally futile. Evidently there was nothing to be done but to return to a fertile spot just within the forest, to build a fort, to send a force for their boat and then return with it to the lake. Of this cruel disappointment Mr. Stanley writes in a simple and dignified manner which wins our respect and heightens our appreciation of his character. It was cruel because it was wholly unnecessary; for had Emin sent one of his steamers but a nine hours' sail from his southernmost station on the day on which he writes he expects Stanley, he would have found him on the lake shore. His inexplicable remissness, moreover, was the direct occasion of "five days' fighting, a four months' loss of time," and, indirectly, of most of the disasters to the rear guard, including the deaths of Barttelot and Jameson. Not one word of explanation, however, so far as we know, has he yet given.

Obedient to their leader's command, then, the brave band shouldered their burdens again and turned their backs on the lake to reach which they had endured so much. In three weeks they are once more encamped in the corn-fields and banana-groves of Fort Bodo, or the "Peaceful Fort." On April 18 they are again at the lake, Mr. Stanley meantime having had a severe attack of illness. The boat is launched and sent to the nearest station to announce their arrival, and on the 29th they are at length joined by Emin Pasha.

HOGARTH'S ARCHÆOLOGY OF CYPRUS.

Devia Cypria: Notes of an Archæological Journey in Cyprus in 1888. By D. G. Hogarth, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, Late Craven Fellow in the University of Oxford. With Map and Illustrations. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

STUDENTS of to-day are more than ready to accord a hearty welcome to works on any of the various branches of archæological research, and the greeting is sure to be all the more hearty if the book come from the pen of a competent scholar. Concerning Mr. Hogarth's competency for the work of exploration there can be no doubt. He served his apprenticeship in practical field-archæology under Mr. Ramsay in Asia Minor, and was then transferred to Cyprus, where for several years he has been engaged in the excavation of various sites in the island. During his leisure moments he has made journeys to the remotest, and hence least known, corners of the island. The results of these journeys are given to the world in the handsome, but costly, little volume which bears the title given above. While these results are not such as to startle the world, yet they are worth the imparting, even though they be negative in character in the main. A negative result is, after all, a result!

As we should expect, the order of the narrative is geographical, treating first of the Paphos District, then of the Carpass, the long *ox-tail* which gets its name from the city of Carpasia, situate on the northeastern sea-front. Lastly, the author gives us a few miscellaneous odds and ends from Central Cyprus.

We have read Mr. Hogarth's book far from our home and study, and we have been much annoyed by his shortcomings in regard to maps. Books of this character should always be accompanied by maps, embodying all the results laid down in the text. Now, nearly half of the book is taken up with a discussion of the Paphos district, and yet we are vouchsafed no map. We are given a map of the Carpass, but it is very unsatisfactory and inaccurate; it omits sites (Vlakhou, p. 93), villages, and mountains, which the author speaks of in the text (on p. 79 there are no less than seven instances of this neglect, viz, Sykadhes, Mesovouni, Aphendrika, Chelones, Agia Pappou [church or village ?] Ἄσπρο νησί and Klouria in the margin); it frequently gives as a dead level districts which the author tells us are mountainous (pp. 68, 69, 72, *scæpe*); it does not hesitate to locate a site on the wrong side of a stream (Nitoviklia, p. 78); we are often at a loss to know whether the author is speaking of village, mountain, or river (Sykadhes, p. 79; Tsambres, pp. 91, 92); lastly, on the map we read "Apostolos Andreas," whereas the author speaks constantly of Cape St. Andreas. Of course every one will understand this last, but then consistency is really a jewel. We wonder at this faulty map, because, as we have said, Mr. Hogarth learned his trade of travelling archæologist in the field in Asia Minor under the tutelage of a painstaking explorer. The world of to-day demands that the travelling archæologist be able to make, and do make, an accurate route survey of the country traversed by him. If we may judge by the map of the Carpass, we feel safe in assuming that Mr. Hogarth has not made a route survey, and we hope that better things may be reported of him in regard to the journey to Asia Minor, upon which, as we understand, he is at this moment absent. His other work Mr. Hogarth has done well.

The kingdom of Paphos was second in importance only to that of Salamis; its boundaries are well defined by nature. The five rivers of the kingdom have cut up the country into as many great cañons, which make travel in the interior difficult, and account for the fact that few travellers have left the coast road. The uplands are fertile and abound in flocks, while the lowlands are easily irrigated. The poverty of the natives is due not to poor soil, but to lack of roads connecting Paphos with the present centres of commerce; but in ancient times, when the port was one of the best in the island, there was not the same need for radiating roads. The extensive ruins of Paphos speak of its former greatness; the temple of Aphrodite was very wealthy and attracted visitors from all the Greek world. The ruins of many other places—Arsinoe, Letymbou, Polemi, Limni, etc.—show that the kingdom was wealthy and populous. Mr. Hogarth speaks of acres of ruins in now uninhabited forest regions. Under the independent kings, when strength of position was desired, Old Paphos, situated ten miles inland, was the capital, but when the island had been united under the Ptolemys, New Paphos gained in importance.

The history of Old Paphos is really the history of the shrine of the Paphian Aphrodite, whose high priests were the kings, as in the Cappadocian Comana, the Golden. The dignity of the shrine and its priesthood continued unimpaired down to Roman times, for the priesthood was conferred upon the last Ptolemy in lieu of royal power. From this time on, New Paphos usurped the political headship, becoming successively the seat of the first bishop of Paphos, the capital of the Lusignans, and later the residence of the Greek prelate. New Paphos in turn fell into decay in Venetian times, and the present town arose nearly a mile inland. In the allusions of the ancient authors to Paphos, there is frequent uncertainty as to which town is meant.

Only five new inscriptions were found at Paphos. Two are in Greek, one of which is very valuable, as it adds a new proconsular governor to Cyprus; two in French, dating from the time of the Latin Kingdom; one in Cypriote on a scarab of the fourth century B. C. The scarab is beautifully engraved, and represents Herakles wrestling with a lion. The Fontana Amorosa of Ariosto, and the fountain at which Aphrodite married Akamas, are to be located at the βρύσις τῶν ἐρωτων, a spot of ideal beauty.

Throughout the book Mr. Hogarth has fault to find with the queer methods of Gen. di Cesnola.

"So much," says he, "has been written and said since the publication of Gen. di Cesnola's book as to numerous inaccuracies and misstatements contained therein, that I almost owe an apology for flogging a dead horse; but several conversations with those who had worked for him shed a (to me) new light on the subject, and showed me the genesis of much that seems mythical in the book. The truth of the matter seems to be that the General seldom directed his excavations in person, and was not present when the treasures were found; he undertook some rapid tours about the island, stopping, for instance, *one day only* at Old Paphos (*cf.* his book, p. 206, 'I superintended excavations there in 1869 for *several months*'), but his collection was amassed by the labors of his dragoman Beshbesh, both by excavation and by purchase in the villages and in the bazaars of the towns, etc."

At Marathounda Mr. Hogarth found a Greek inscription dedicating some ex-voto offering to Apollo Μυρτάτης; previously he had found at Amargetti and published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* an inscription in honor of Apollo Μελάνθιος. To this latter epithet he gave a local signification, and argued that it was an ethnic for a village Melantha, or something of the sort. He now retracts this conjecture, and substitutes therefor the theory that μυρτάτης and μελάνθιος are epithets of Apollo as the Healer by the virtues of herbs, the former meaning Apollo "of the myrtle," and the latter "of the poppy," just as other epithets of Apollo have reference to the vegetable kingdom. So the Cyprian ὑλάτης is Apollo "of the grove," the Lesbian μυρικαῖος "of the tamarisk." Analogous is the Cyprian Aphrodite μυκηρόδις, "of the almond tree." Dioscorides dwells upon the medicinal virtues of

the melanthium and the myrtle, both of which are effective in disorders of the urinary organs. Now it is noteworthy that at Amargetti, the seat of Apollo Μελάνθιος, phalli, both on statuettes and cones, were found, which no doubt were votive offerings dedicated as tokens of gratitude for cures effected. Mr. Hogarth's theory is thus made very plausible.

There is reason to doubt the genuineness of the Cypriote inscriptions from Drimu published by Beaudouin and Pottier in the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, 1879, p. 347. By means of a Cypriote inscription, a temple of Hera is located at the church of Agia Moni. A bad copy of this inscription by Vondiziano was published by Deecke (in *Beiträge*, etc., xi), but he could not be certain of the last two lines. From Hogarth's copy, impression, and photograph it becomes quite clear that the last words are :

ta · i · te · o · i · ta · e · ra · i · =

τᾶ θεῶ τᾶ Ἥρᾳ,

It is interesting to find a temple dedicated to Hera in a part of the island sacred to Aphrodite; moreover, the ruins prove that the shrine was one of importance. This inscription is valuable from another point of view, since it contains a new symbol, for which, on not very good grounds, the value *jo* is suggested.

The mediæval settlement of Aschelia is in the centre of the sugar-growing plain of Cyprus; it formed part of the Domain Royal, and was assigned to the Hospitallers, who established a commandery there. The large church of the wretched hamlet of to-day contained, at the time of Mr. Hogarth's visit, a pulpit and baldachino of wood, elaborately carved and decorated. They are both Renaissance in character, with marked signs of Gothic influence, and must be assigned to the beginning of the sixteenth century, since the Hospitallers were expelled by the Turkish invaders about the middle of that century. A Mr. Williamson has purchased and brought to England all these carvings, but their ultimate destination is not known.

Monoliths, commonly called πέτραι τρυπημέναι, have been explained by most travellers as in some way connected with a phallic worship. The stones are conical in shape, and vary much in size ; the colossal ones at Paphos are eleven feet high, while the smallest at Agios Photios is only four feet high. Mr. Hogarth knows of no less than fifty such stones. He follows Dr. Guillemard in the view that they have nothing whatever to do with religion, but are the remains of ancient presses. The usual adjuncts of many of these monoliths bear out this view, as does also Conder's ('Heth and Moab,' pp. 253-4) description of the menhirs of Moab. Mr. Hogarth found that mysterious virtues, phallic or otherwise, were rarely attributed to these stones by the peasants, and when such belief did exist, it was found to be so weak that he argues that the belief is of modern origin and has not yet crystallized into an article of universal faith.

The name Carpass is ancient, but of obscure origin. The Carpass has wonderfully varied scenery. The climate is un-Cyprian, for the cool air from two seas sweeps over it to temper the heat. The peasants themselves are un-Cypriote in appearance, and may be descendants of the Veneziani bianchi who settled in Cyprus after the first crusade. They are distinguished for industry and thrift, and, as their country is inaccessible, they have escaped the direst oppression; the traveller is consequently impressed with their prosperity, good government, good order, and native civilization. Mr. Hogarth gives a short outline of the history of the Carpass, borrowing his facts from the 'Histoire de l'Île de Chypre' by De la Mas Latrie.

The ruins of Salamis are chaotic. What is above ground is mostly late, but excavations might bring to light the foundations of the temples of Zeus Salaminius and of Athena Pronoia. Χρεοφύλαξ (p. 64) is not a new word.

Inscription No. 18, p. 65, locates the Cyprian Cnidus, the birthplace of the historian Ctesias. It is now a wilderness of formless heaps. Excavation would not be profitable, save only in the tombs, because the rock lies near the surface. The great stone enclosure with upright menhir, or emblem of fertility, is a Phœnician relic, and "must depend for its explanation on that assigned to its fellows all over the world" (*cf.* Conder: 'Syrian Stone Lore,' p. 43 ff., and 'Heth and Moab,' p. 237).

The ruins of Mazaraes are large in area and are probably, though not certainly, of early origin, but the name and history of the town which once stood there are no doubt for ever lost. At Peristefani, a site small in area, but strong in position, Mr. Hogarth found a number of torsos and legs of statues of a very early period that recalled the more archaic Dali figurines.

The great rock-cut tombs of Elisis and Galinoporni are remarkable both for size and position, the former being high up on a sheer bluff, and excavated out of the solid rock for eighty-seven feet of horizontal depth, besides numerous sides chambers. Both tombs served as the final resting-places for the royal family that reigned at the ancient site at Agia Varvara and Nitoviklia. Both of these sites probably represent one and the same city, Nitoviklia being the more ancient.

At the Carpasian Islands there is a slip for launching ships; no doubt there was a corresponding slip at Carpasia, on the northern coast, though no traces of it are visible to-day. Mr. Hogarth suggests that the ancient mariners drew their vessels across this neck of land to avoid the dangers attendant upon the passage round the Cape.

Nothing worthy of mention was found at the site of the Temple of Aphrodite Acraea or at the Kleides Islands. Both Urania and Carpasia are located tentatively, though the site of Carpasia seems to be plain enough, a square mile being strewn with remains of a late period; the tombs alone bear evidence of a greater antiquity. Aphrodisium is located by inference, no doubt correctly, at Iastrika. A sumptuous royal tomb was discovered at Davlos, with colonnades of the pure Doric order.

The views from both Buffavento and Troodos are famed, but, in Mr. Hogarth's opinion, they cannot compare in this respect with Kantara Castle, which dominates the northeastern end of Cyprus and sweeps two seas.

Makaria is a mere wilderness of rubble, but with many graves still unrifled. Here Mr. Hogarth noted a kind of sarcophagus common in some parts of Asia Minor, viz., the grave sunk into the living rock, and covered with the ordinary sarcophagus lid.

The third division of Mr. Hogarth's book relates to central Cyprus; it covers only a few pages, but it is valuable. We see no reason for his extreme diffidence in suggesting that modern Mari is the site of ancient Marium. At Larnaca-tis-Lapithou Mr. Hogarth copied inscription No. 2779 of Le Bas-Waddington, and assured himself that the stone has τοῦ Ναρν[α]κίου, *not* Λαρν[α]κίου. From this fact he argues that Larnaca is not an ancient name. We do not agree with him; the change of *n* to *l* is by no means an unknown phenomenon. Even granting this change, the name would still be ancient. To deny antiquity to a name so slightly corrupted would be to rob the geographer of a fruitful means of identifying and locating ancient towns. We might multiply instances *ad infinitum*, but we take at random Sagalassus and Aghlasun; Konana and Guïnen; Anabura and Enevre. These pairs of names do not look much alike, it is true, but the geographer who fails to read the ancient name out of its modern corruption is not fit for his work.

One of the most interesting of the thirty-six inscriptions is that of Sergius Paulus at Soli, already published, but badly, by Gen. Cesnola. The date of the inscription seems to be 55 A. D., or, in other words, ten years after St. Paul's visit to the island (see Acts of the Apostles xiii., 4-13).

The book closes with a list of proconsular governors of Cyprus.

WHISTLER'S OWN.

The Gentle Art of Making Enemies : As pleasingly exemplified in many instances, wherein the serious ones of this earth, carefully exasperated, have been prettily spurred on to unseemliness and indiscretion, while overcome by an undue sense of right. New York: John W. Lovell Co. 1890.

Mr. Whistler's own edition of 'The Gentle Art of Making Enemies' is at last before us. It is a much larger book than Mr. Sheridan Ford's "spurious and garbled version," but the difference in size is largely a matter of paper and type, for, although it contains considerable matter not given by Mr. Ford, it omits a good deal given by him. In what is common to the two volumes the variations are slight and, for the most part, unimportant; and, judging from internal evidence, one would be inclined to think that what "garbling" has been done is rather Mr. Whistler's work than Mr. Ford's. In the affair of the "Claimant of Lemon Yellow," for instance, all mention of the names of either Mr. Mortimer Menpes himself or of Mr. Ford is carefully suppressed. Mr. Ford's name, indeed, is nowhere mentioned in the volume, and the impression is attempted to be given that his edition of Mr. Whistler's writings was not only published without the author's consent, but prepared without his knowledge. Mr. Ford's real crime would seem to be, not the alteration of what Mr. Whistler had written, but the republication of certain things that the writer has the grace to be a little ashamed of. The book certainly gains in dignity by the omission of the controversy with Theodore Child, in which the bludgeon rather than the rapier was the weapon employed, and of the unsavory squabble with Mr. Stott of Oldham, while it loses little in brilliancy. Enough remains to show clearly the undeniable wit, the amazing impudence, the boundless vanity, the skilful irrelevance, and the ingenuity in putting an antagonist in the wrong which make Mr. Whistler's letters such amusing reading, and render them so annoying to their victims. The volume closes with a delicious piece of bouffe—Whistler burlesqued by himself ! He had written a letter to the *Scots Observer* which contained a "regret that the ridiculous Romeike has not hitherto sent me your agreeable literature." This called out an angry letter from Romeike & Curtice, demanding an apology under threat of prosecution, to which Mr. Whistler thus responds :

"Sir—If it be not actionable, permit me to say that you *really are delightful ! !*

"*Naïveté*, like yours, I have never met—even in my long experience with all those, some of whose 'agreeable literature' may be, I suppose, in the 807 cuttings you charge me for.

"Who, in Heaven's name, ever dreamed of

you as an actual person?—or one whom one would mean to insult?

"My good Sir, no such intention—believe me—did I, in my wildest moments, ever entertain.

"*Your* scalp—if you have such a thing—is safe enough!—and I even think—however great my willingness to assist you—could not possibly appear in the forthcoming Edition."

So impertinent in his vanity as to doubt of the existence of that "scalp" which, yet, he is so vain of his impertinence as duly to ticket in his collection—the combination is almost sublime!

The book, however, contains other and more important additions than this, or than the famous and amusing "Catalogue of Etchings and Dry-points," otherwise it would hardly be worth a separate review. These additions are the pamphlet on the Whistler-Ruskin trial called "Art and Art Critics," the "Ten o'Clock," and several shorter papers—"Propositions," etc.—which, collectively, may be assumed to contain Mr. Whistler's serious ideas on art and criticism; and the printing of them here lends a certain respectability—an air of reasoned intention—even to his Indian warfare upon his critics. Mr. Whistler is an artist of great talents and considerable achievement. Whatever one may think of the slighter productions which he occasionally exhibits, one must admit the universally recognized merit of his better work. He has, moreover, a following of enthusiastic disciples. His serious opinions upon art and criticism are therefore worth notice. The artist who boasts that he "never explains" has a somewhat oracular and mysterious style, and it is not always easy to be sure that one knows what he means, but we will do our best.

The best known of his opinions is that of the uselessness of critics. "Harm they do, and not good," he says, and again: "Let work, then, be received in silence, as it was in the days to which the penmen still point as an era when Art was at its apogee." He ridicules the pretensions of the critic to "do good to Art," and tells him that as "the best work was done when he was not there to help it," so art can get on without him in the future. Here, we think, though it would make him smile to tell him so, Mr. Whistler takes the critics altogether too seriously. Are there any of the breed yet extant who think they can "do good to art"? Do any of them still imagine that they can either correct the artist's faults or aid him to attain to merits yet unaccomplished? It is not so that we understand our humble office. Has not Mr. Howells assured us, in the last *Harper's Monthly*, that "journalism is criticism, the criticism of life"? Just so the art critic is the reporter of art. His mission is not to the artist, but to the public. His function is to write of what the public cares to read about. All he gives the artist is publicity, and most artists understand this so well that his silence they resent more than his bitterest attacks. Mr. Whistler asks that his work "be received in silence," but probably no living man would less like to be taken at his word. This is an age of printing; and what the people are interested in, that they will read about. By all means let us ask for good criticism rather than bad; by all means let us condemn ignorance and assumption, but to wish for the extinction of all criticism is to wish for the cessation of all popular interest in art.

This step, also, Mr. Whistler is apparently ready to take. He assures the people that they need not trouble themselves about art, that they have "nothing to say in the matter," and never had. "Art happens." "The master stands in no relation to the moment at which he occurs." "There never was an artistic period. There never was an Art-loving nation." Therefore he would "lift from their shoulders this incubus of Art." But if it is unimportant that the people should know anything of art, why deliver "ten o'clocks" and write pamphlets to instruct them therein? If the people need take no interest in art, who is to buy the pictures and how is the artist to live?

These are the greatest of Mr. Whistler's paradoxes, and the only ones in which he is wholly wrong; but even when he is partly right he is full of paradox and over-statement. In his preaching of "art for art's sake," as opposed to subject-painting or mere imitation, there is much that is true; but he carries it to extremes. "Take the picture of my mother," he says, "exhibited at the Royal Academy as an 'Arrangement in Gray and Black.' Now that is what it is." Surely not. That the "arrangement" of color is a great and important element in the art no one can deny, but if there were no more than that, why paint a portrait at all? It may be true that the public ought not to "care about the identity of the portrait"; but it *does* care about the rendering of human character and always will, which is why we care more for a portrait by Titian than for a handsome rug. Let Mr. Whistler say what he will, the *musical* element in painting, though a great one, is *only* an element, and painting does aim not only to please, but to *represent*.

We have tried to treat these opinions seriously, but, after all, are they the serious opinions of an artist upon art? Or are they only a part of that ingenious self-advertisement of which Mr. Whistler is past-master, intended not to instruct, but to draw attention? One has an uneasy suspicion that to take him in earnest is "to consider too curiously," and that perhaps the best answer to him would be, "*Blagueur, va!*"

THE KOREAN LANGUAGE.

I. *An Introduction to the Korean Spoken Language.* II. *A Concise Dictionary of the Korean Language.* Korean-English and English-Korean. By Horace Grant Underwood. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 2 vols., pp. 939.

THE three great divisions in which all the languages may be classified according to their expression in written symbol are the ideographic, the syllabic, and the alphabetic. The Chinese written character is a logogram, or, less properly, an ideogram, like that of the Egyptian, Hittite, or Aztec. The Japanese and Cherokee tables of letters are syllabaries. In order to express to the Chinese eyes foreign names, such, for instance, as Blaine and Cleveland, the scholar in Peking selects a certain number of characters, and, writing them in vertical line, makes approach to the true sound, very much as the diagram of a cat, an ass, and a trophy could be read "catastrophe." When the Japanese editors wished to inform their readers of the results of the nominating conventions of 1884, they published the names of *Boo-rā-n* and *Kee ree-boo-ran-do*. The Japanese table of letters is a syllabary like the Cherokee.

The Koreans possess a true alphabet, one of the simplest, easiest, and, for its purpose, probably the best in the world. As the Phœnician, or modified Egyptian, was probably the mother of the alphabets of the western world, so from the Sanskrit writing, carried by the Buddhist missionaries all over that part of Asia dominated by Chinese culture, have sprung alphabets or syllabaries in which literature for the common people could be written. Both by the evidence of parallel columns and by the statement of a Korean author, the native alphabet is based on the Sanskrit forms. Eight initial, eight final, and eleven middle characters comprise the alphabet of twenty-five letters, eleven vowels and fourteen consonants. Simple as is this alphabet, we doubt the statement of Mr. John Ross, that "half an hour's study is sufficient to master it"—unless one is a born linguist—and we prefer Mr. Underwood's direction to give at least a day to it. In his two volumes he very properly does not transliterate, but expects the student to master the sounds and proceed at once to use the vocabulary as written in Korean, for the work is an introduction to the *spoken* language only.

Spelling in Korea is purely phonetic, but the spelling-reformers of our own country who would find there the realization of their hopes, will be sadly disappointed. For even with an alphabet as faithful to the spoken word as Pitman's phonography, Korea is an awful example of license. The orthography, or rather cacography, in the native books is simply anarchy; for each man is a law unto himself. No two men spell alike, nor are two pages of the same author always uniform. This, however, may arise from the fact that native scholars utterly neglect the literary culture of Korean, and compose only in Chinese or Asiatic Latin. Even the Japanese, with only a syllabary, possess order and beauty of spelling unknown in Chō-sen. In addition to these difficulties besetting the learner, euphony plays curious tricks, changing the initial consonants of postpositions and suffixes. This phenomenon is so marked as to lead the French missionaries to arrange for nouns, which in reality have no inflections, five distinct declensions with eleven cases each.

Mr. Underwood has lived in Séoul, the Korean capital, since 1883, and has learned the language by close personal contact with all classes, from Cabinet Minister to street laborer. He disclaims having written a systematic grammar, but in reality he has produced one of the best specimens of the exposition of an Asiatic language according to the best modern methods. It is the height of absurdity to make Latin the norm of comparison and procedure, as do the scholars of southern Europe, or to take up space in pointing out the contrasts or resemblances to Hebrew, as the northern European of theological training is so apt to do. Wisely Mr. Underwood examines the Korean first by entering within and making plain its main points and lines; then, approaching it from the English idiom and structure, he shows how the foreigner can make use of it in conversation. His work is really a neat, clear, and simple grammar, with a concise dictionary of the most needful words. While to students who expect to really master the tongue of Chō-sen, the larger grammar and bulkier dictionary of the French missionaries published at Yokohama in 1881 are indispensable, the present pair of volumes is extremely serviceable for counter, desk, pocket, and library. The print is large, clear, and neat, the press-work well done, the paper good, and the binding excellent. The Seishi Bunsha of Yokohama, Japan, has turned out no better mechanical work, and the proof-reading, having been done on the spot by the author and his assistant, Mr. A. Stewart Annand, the pages are notably free from those misprints which so afflict the beginner. A small list of errata is inserted in each volume.

Structurally, Korean is as unlike Chinese as Hebrew is unlike English. Even the avalanches of Chinese words and phrases which have at various epochs rolled into the Korean, have swollen its vocabulary, but left only su-

perficial traces upon its syntax. Just as Latin has at different times entered and reëntered English in original and in mediate or modified forms, so has the Asiatic Latin influenced the speech of the peninsula. To-day the talk of the official class, the educated man, the student, consists so largely of Chinese terms that to the ear of the commercial foreigner there seem to be two languages. Beeween the "official" and the "coolie" of whom Mr. Underwood speaks, there is even more difference of understanding than between the "low" and "high" German of the raw recruit and the Prussian officer. Yet during all the two thousand years or so of Chinese culture in Chŏ-sen, the native syntax has retained its integrity. It may be noted, however, that, as in Japan, most of the Chinese terms borrowed have been taken from the books. Hence even the speech of the Koreans has been influenced by the terse written language of China, so that usually the Korean speaks with laconic conciseness. Nor can a Chinese and Korean speak together in conversation unaided by pencil and paper; for, in addition to the Korean's retaining his idiom, his Chinese vocabulary, like that of the Japanese, is, from a modern standard, mispronounced Chinese. The pronunciation of Chinese in China fluctuates from age to age, since no syllabary, alphabet, or trustworthy apparatus of rhymes has fixed the ancient sounds; while in Korea and Japan such a phonograph or registry has existed. As to sound, it is probable that more ancient Chinese or Asiatic Latin is heard in the neighbor countries than in the Middle Kingdom.

When, however, the Japanese wishes to learn Korean, his work is almost exclusively one of pronunciation and vocabulary, for the structure and idiom of both languages are almost the same as peas inside the same pod. Not only do the Japanese interpreters write interlinear translations of Korean sentences, proclamations, and books, word for word, and particle for particle, but to the foreigner familiar with Japanese the close resemblance in structure is almost ludicrous. The Catholic priests in Japan in the sixteenth century were able in a few weeks to understand at the confessional the talk of the converted Korean captives who, on the string of their vernacular syntax, soon threaded a new rosary of words. In the northwest provinces this close resemblance may be less manifest.

Like the languages of northeastern Asia, the Korean is poverty-stricken in imagination and the faculty of personification. Each word is a stamped coin worth only its face value, not a counter covering a wealth of thought beyond what meets the ear. Those vital ornaments which are to language what the traits of genius are to men and women—gender, number, person, and case—are, broadly speaking, absent. The native grammarians seem quite right in naming but three parts of speech — nouns, verbs, and particles. There are no true pronouns nor any real adjectives. Our prepositions are postpositions, and our conjunctions are rendered into Korean by particles, nouns, verbal moods, and the participial forms of adjectives and verbs. Nouns are made to do duty as pronouns and verbs as adjectives. He would be a courageous Korean who should try to translate Shakspere into his vernacular. To render Shelley into Korean would be a task to which the hunting of their own tigers must be remunerative and highly successful sport.

In this first fruit of American scholarship in the Land of Morning Calm, Mr. Underwood has made a contribution of the first order of value in the acquisition of the spoken language. He has been assisted by Prof. Homer B. Hulbert of the Royal Korean University, another fellow-American, by James S. Gale, A.B., and by Son Soun Yong, a cultivated native. The work fitly crowns the labors of scholarship in which Klaproth, Medhurst, Siebold, Ross, Aston, and the French missionaries have borne a share, and in the acquisition of which not only the brave soldiers of the cross from France, but also Thomas of Scotland and Mayers of England have perished as martyrs. The day of the complete Bible in idiomatic Korean should not now be far distant.

THE LATEST YEAR BOOKS.

Year Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Years xiv and xv. Edited and Translated by Luke Owen Pike. [Rolls Series.] London. 1889. Pp. lxxv, 424.

THE filling of the gaps in our black-letter Year Books goes on slowly. The present volume was, indeed, published seven or eight months ago, but the interval between this and the last preceding one was over a year. Mr. Pike's editing continues to be marked by a sort of research and accuracy which classical scholars have long expected and exhibited in their work, but which lawyers have known little of until recent years. Whatever there is in Fitzherbert or the Book of Assises that may illustrate these reports, now for the first time printed, has been consulted; the original records of the cases here given have been searched, wherever they could be found; and the text of the reports has been settled upon a study of several of the best manuscripts. The editor remarks upon the fact that there are sometimes many independent manuscript reports of the same case, and adds an important observation:

"Some of the cases . . . in the present volume appear in Fitzherbert's Abridgment in a form differing considerably from that in which they occur in any of the MSS. above mentioned. This fact is a confirmation of the suggestion previously made that there was not any reporter whose authority was generally recognized, or that if there was, he had many rivals who were not without patrons in the legal profession. It seems that reporting was an open profession, and that some judges and counsel possessed reports in one form, others in other forms."

The cases in this volume seem to be mostly of small importance. Of most interest is the one which recites the proceedings upon the arraignment of Willoughby, a late Chief-Justice, one of the numerous officials who were brought up before the special commissions to which the anger and jealousy of Edward gave rise upon his return from France in 1340. Willoughby was charged, merely upon "the clamor of the people," with maladministration of various sorts. It may gratify the reader's curiosity, and it will serve to show the style of these reports, to quote a part of this case in the original French:

"R. Wilby fust arene devant PARN. SAD. et SCOT. [Parning, Sadington, and Scot,] Justices a ceo faire, qe vient en garde de macers.—PARN. lui dit coment le Roy, affiaunt soveraynement en sa leaute et sen, lui fist son lieutenant en sa place demene, quant il passa la mier, et coment puis il avoit bestourne et vendi les leys com boefe ou vache, dount par clamour de poeple pardecea et de la chose est moustre a Roi. Par quei vous orrez nostre commission et ceo qe homme vous dirra.—Et la commission lieu doier et terminer, etc. *Wilby* dit qil fust mestre en la pluis haut place de la terre, par quei de trespas fait illoeques en place pluis bas il ne deivent conustre.—PARN. Derrour en tiele chose vous dites verite; mes si vous eiez trespase au Roi vous respondrez ou lui plerra.—*Wilby.* Le Roi ne voet estre resceu sans [estre] apris par enditement ou par suyte de partie atache par plegge.—PARN. Il est apris par clamour de poeple.—*Wilby* ad conseil par livere de COURT."

Several "bills" (*plusours billes*) were then read, not "affirmed by pledges" and without "suit," two from the commonalties of the counties of Nottingham and of Lancaster, and another from a certain Knight, to which, as they were read, Willoughby is reported as answering briefly. He was charged with taking gifts, which he denied. He was also charged with allowing a petit jury to sit in a criminal case without having any of the indictors on it. That, he answered, was the Sheriff's fault. Farning replied, "Certes, si enditours ne y soient, il nest bien pur le Roi." (This practice of placing or retaining some of the Grand Jury upon the petit jury was not abolished until about ten years later, by 25 Ed. 3., Stat. 5, c. 3.) A little further on, Willoughby remarks: "It is the custom for the justice to go to the indictors de les conforter et enformer." At the end, "Willoughby threw himself on the King's mercy, because he would not plead with his liege lord. The Lord of Wake [one of the Commission] said to him that this was the wisest plea that Willoughby ever pleaded. . . . And afterwards the King caused him to be led from one county to another," etc.

The editor's "Introduction" is mainly taken up with instructive comments upon the legal and constitutional situation in England during the period covered by these reports. The key to this situation lay in the pressure to get money from an unwilling people, to carry on the King's wars. The King traded off the old Presentment of Englishry for other sources of revenue, and made other concessions to his subjects. But still money was lacking, and he was unsuccessful abroad; he returned in November, 1340, angry and suspicious, and proceeded to issue a quantity of commissions to overhaul "almost the whole field of the English body politic and social." As to the nature of these commissions the editor has a learned consideration. The King also got into a lively quarrel with the ecclesiastics. But the storm soon blew over, and the judges, including Willoughby, were restored to their places. "It is by no means impossible that the somewhat abortive ending of all the commissions which had issued may have been to a very considerable extent due to clerical influence."

This "Introduction" is well worthy the attention of students of constitutional history. Peculiarly interesting is the account of the proceedings relating to the making and the repeal of the ordinance of Northampton. "The Chancellor, however, and Treasurer and some of the justices protested that they did not assent to the making or to the form of the statutes, and that they could not observe the statutes if contrary to the laws and usages of the realm which they were sworn to keep." Within a year the King, in "Letters Close" to the sheriffs of all the counties in England, repudiated the statute, reciting these protests and that he agreed to the statute only for fear Parliament would break up without doing anything, wherefore "we . . . did dissemble, as beseemed us," etc. Parliament afterwards agreed to this, but even in this agreement, as Mr. Pike remarks, "there appears a recognition of the right of the justices to pronounce whether a proposed statute was in accordance with the laws and usages of the realm, and, consequently, whether it ought to become operative as a statute. . . . The persons who had to administer the law were supposed to be entitled to a real, and not merely a nominal, hearing in the making of laws." It will be remembered by stu-

dents of our American law that ideas of this sort found expression in some of our early constitutional conventions, and were actually embodied in some of the early constitutions.

It is greatly to be wished that this excellent enterprise, so honorable to the British Government, of completing the early reports, should be more rapidly pushed forward. If the gratitude of legal scholars for what they have already had in this kind, a hearty appreciation of the method and thoroughness with which the work is done, and an eager desire for more, might avail to induce the British Treasury to give these much-needed volumes to the world considerably faster, then we might confidently expect that result. As it is we can only wish and beg for it.

The Village Community. By George Laurence Gomme. [The Contemporary Science Series.] Scribner & Welford. 1890.

THE aim of this essay is so exclusively controversial as to make it an improper selection for a series presumably intended to be of a popular character. It is a scientific treatise in so far as it illustrates the methods by which the advances of science are made, but not in the sense of containing a body of established truths. The author himself, with all his enthusiasm, would not claim that his theories were demonstrated, and they will certainly be opposed by men as competent as he to form a judgment.

The first proposition which Mr. Gomme endeavors to establish is that the village community is not an institution peculiar to the Aryan race. He begins with an examination of the communities of the Fijians, the Basutos, and the Dyaks. Among the Fijians there are villages where theoretically all the people are of common descent, and where every family group has its own town lot, subdivided until every household has a lot of its own, which is to be built upon so as to leave a pathway between it and the adjoining lot, and which is sacred against all encroachments. The lands of the village are of three kinds: the town lots, the arable land, and the forest. The arable land is sometimes apportioned in correspondence with the town lots, sometimes occupied indiscriminately, and the forest is used as common property. The Dyaks inhabit communal houses. The Basutos own their lands in common, shares being assigned by the chiefs to the fathers of families to be held by them so long as they occupy them, but to return to the community when that condition is violated. The tribal territory is divided into homestead, arable, and pasture. From these and other considerations he reaches the conclusion that the village community is characteristic of the backward races of the world; that its appearance among the more advanced institutions of civilization is due to survival, not to creation; and that its widespread existence indicates a phase of development through which all progressive races must have passed.

Turning to India, Mr. Gomme points out features in the customs of the non-Aryan hill tribes that appear in the Aryan communities. He then brings to our attention some very important evidence tending to show that the Aryan village community of India was really formed by the intrusion of the pastoral Aryans into existing agricultural communities of different race, the Aryans forming a superior caste supported by the labor of those whom they had conquered, but whose system of economics they did not materially disturb. As it is put by Mr. J. F. Hewitt, a settlement officer who speaks from actual observation, "not only Aryan and semi-Aryan tribes divided the country into townships, peopled and cultivated by associated villagers, but such townships exist also among those, like the Kols and Ooraons of Chota Nagpore, in Western Bengal, who have always hated the Aryans and have never been conquered by them, or subjected to their influence"; and it appears from the example of other communities "in which Dravidians and Aryans confessedly live together, [that] the Aryan village is formed on the lines laid down by Kolarians and Dravidians, and it is only altered in certain details to make it suit with the Aryan ideas of the sanctity and continuity of the family, and of the equal rights of all holding land in the village." As to the particular customs prevailing in these villages, we have space only to say that Mr. Gomme is able to point out similarities to the customs of certain English communities that are almost startling.

The second position maintained by Mr. Gomme is that Mr. Seebohm is not "correct in his opinion that the English village community was reared on the undestroyed and living Romanized land system." The fact that there is much which is not Teutonic or Celtic in the village community as it is found in Britain does not compel us to resort to Roman institutions in explanation, ignoring the possible results of the Aryan conquest of an extensive Iberian population. Certainly the commercialism of Rome seems to have made no enduring impression upon those self-contained villages, the inhabitants of which, in some instances as late as the present century, looked upon all outside of their own boundaries as foreigners. The treatment of the towns by the Anglo-Saxon invaders shows that they did not understand their use, and Mr. Gomme thinks that agricultural settlements were formed in the very outskirts of London. It has been proved that Wales was more thoroughly Romanized than other parts of Britain, and yet it is in Wales that we have the most remarkable evidence of the existence of the tribal community. In fact, Mr. Gomme would maintain that the village communities of Britain were no more affected by Roman influence than those of India have been affected by the rule of the English.

The greater part of the book is devoted to collecting the evidence of comparative custom bearing upon the existence of non-Aryan elements in the English village, the main position of the author being that the institution is a survival from prehistoric times. He considers that the Aryan conquerors of Britain, like the Aryan conquerors of India, met a people whom they did not exterminate, but subjugated, and that there resulted communities exhibiting the customs of both peoples. The pre-Celtic inhabitants were hill-men, and the instances of terrace cultivation and hill-top fortresses are carefully marshalled. It must be said, however, that the argument, so far as it depends upon the evidences of the terraces in England, limps painfully, and that it is saved only by resort to the existing practices of the hill tribes of India. It is strengthened by reference to some archaic customs which, in view of parallels to be found in India, lend support to the theory that two races were represented in the village community. We may instance the many examples of the election of a "mock-Mayor," which Mr. Gomme explains by comparison with similar ceremonies in India, where the non-Aryan castes of the village meet and elect their own leader, with the tolerance for the time of their superiors.

The traces of the existence of the tribal community in Britain, and the surviving examples of the transition to the village community, furnish some evidence confirmatory of Mr. Gomme's theory. Turning to the final type of the village community, of which the manor of Aston and Cote is a remarkable example, Mr. Gomme observes that there is no evidence of Roman occupation, while the successful resistance of the tenants to the claims of the lord of the manor has preserved for us an invaluable illustration of the customs of the archaic community. Here, as in India, we find that some of the villagers were set apart as village servants, and paid out of the village lands, and it had been already noticed by Sir Henry Maine that in some English parishes there are lots in the common field known from time immemorial by the name of a particular trade, and believed to be capable of being owned only by those following that trade. This instance is certainly favorable to the contention that the manor is a comparatively late development, imposed upon a foundation of earlier communal institutions. It seems to be almost unique as evidence, but it is difficult to resist the conclusion that we have here the explanation of the method by which, in thousands of instances, village rights were converted into lord's rights. The bearing of this upon the question of the origin of the manorial courts is obvious.

Upon the whole, Mr. Gomme makes out a case that has strong points, but that is by no means complete. Many of his arguments would apply to the phenomena resulting from a mingling of Teutons with Britons as well as to a mingling of Britons with a preceding race. But we cannot but sympathize with him in his reluctance to adopt Mr. Seebohm's view that the Roman villa is the key with which these chambers of the past are to be unlocked. It seems incredible that the advanced political organization of the Roman Empire should have materially affected villages unreached by roads and buried in forests; and the permanency of traditional customs is to be considered when we find so large a proportion of archaic elements. Mr. Gomme's book suffers a little in its arrangement from his proneness to grasp at arguments as they suggest themselves to his mind, without much regard for continuity. Further study will doubtless enable him not only to strengthen his reasoning, but also to develop his theory in a more orderly fashion.

Fundamental Problems: The Method of Philosophy as a Systematic Arrangement of Knowledge. By Dr. Paul Carus. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Company.

A BOOK of newspaper articles on metaphysics, extracted from Chicago's weekly journal of philosophy, the *Open Court*, seems to a New Yorker something singular. But, granted that there is a public with aspirations to understand fundamental problems, the way in which Dr. Carus treats them is not without skill. The questions touched upon are all those which a young person should have turned over in his mind before beginning the serious study of philosophy. The views adopted are, as nearly as possible, the average opinions of thoughtful men to-day—good, ripe doctrines, some of them possibly a little *passées*, but of the fashionable complexion. They are stated with uncompromising vigor; the argumentation does not transcend the capacity of him who runs; and if there be here and there an inconsistency, it only renders the book more suggestive, and adapts it all the better to the need of the public.

The philosophy it advocates is superscientific. "There is no chaos, and never has been a chaos," exclaims the author, although of this no scientific evidence is possible. The doctrine

of "the rigidity of natural laws . . . is a κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί." Such expressions are natural to Chicago journalists, yet, emphatic as this is, we soon find the κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί is nothing but a regulative principle, or "plan for a system." When we afterwards read that, "in our opinion, atoms possess spontaneity, or self-motion," we wonder how, if this is anything more than an empty phrase, it comports with rigid regularity of motion.

Like a stanch Lockian, Dr. Carus declares that "the facts of nature are specie, and our abstract thoughts are bills which serve to economize the process of exchange of thought." Yet these bills form so sound a currency that "the highest laws of nature and the formal laws of thought are identical." Nay, "the doctrine of the conservation of matter and energy, although discovered with the assistance of experience, can be proved in its full scope by the pure reason alone." When abstract reason performs such a feat as that, is it only economizing the interchange of thought? There is no tincture of Locke here.

Mathematics is highly commended as a "reliable and well established" science. Riemann's stupendous memoir on the hypotheses of geometry is a "meritorious essay." Newton is "a distinguished scientist." At the same time, the views of modern geometers are correctly rendered: "Space is not a non-entity, but a real property of things."

The profession of the *Open Court* is to make an "effort to conciliate religion with science." Is this wise? Is it not an endeavor to reach a foredetermined conclusion? And is not *that* an anti-scientific, anti-philosophical aim? Does not such a struggle imply a defect of intellectual integrity and tend to undermine the whole moral health? Surely, religion is apt to be compromised by attempts at conciliation. Tell the Czar of all the Russias you will conciliate autocracy with individualism; but do not insult religion by offering to conciliate it with any other impulse or development of human nature whatever. Religion, to be true to itself, should demand the unconditional surrender of free-thinking. Science, true to itself, cannot listen to such a demand for an instant. There may be some possible reconciliation between the religious impulse and the scientific impulse; and no fault can be found with a man for believing himself to be in possession of the solution of the difficulty (except that his reasoning may be inconclusive), or for having faith that such a solution will in time be discovered. But to go about to search out that solution, thereby dragging religion before the tribunal of free thought, and committing philosophy to finding a given proposition true—is this a wise or necessary proceeding? Why should not religion and science seek each a self-development in its own interest, and then if, as they approach completion, they are found to come more and more into accord, will not that be a more satisfactory result than forcibly bending them together now in a way which can only disfigure both? For the present, a religion which believes in itself should not mind what science says; and science is long past caring one fig for the thunder of the theologians.

However, these objections apply mainly to the *Open Court's* profession, scarcely at all to its practice; for a journal cannot be said to wrench philosophy into a forced assent to religion which pronounces that "it is undeniable that immaterial realities cannot exist," and that "the appearance of the phenomena of sensation will be found to depend upon a special form in which the molecules of protoplasma combine and disintegrate," and that "the activity called life is a special kind of energy" (a doctrine whose attractiveness is inversely as one's knowledge of dynamics).

Dr. Carus writes an English style several degrees less unpleasant than that of many of our young compatriots who have imbibed the German taste by some years' or months' residence in Berlin or Heidelberg. And as to consistency, whatever may be its importance in a systematic work, in a series of brief articles designed chiefly to stimulate thought, strictly carried out, it would be no virtue, but rather a fault. On the whole, the *Open Court* is marked by sound and enlightened ideas, and the fact that it can by any means find support does honor to Chicago.

A Dictionary of Applied Chemistry. By T. E. Thorpe, Professor of Chemistry in the Normal School of Science and Royal School of Mines, South Kensington, assisted by eminent contributors. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

When, in 1888, the first volume of the revised edition of Watt's 'Dictionary of Chemistry' appeared, under the editorship of Profs. Morley and Muir, it was announced that matters of chemical technology which had occupied considerable space in the former edition would be omitted and form the material of a companion volume to be edited by Prof. Thorpe. The original plan of confining the treatment of technical chemistry to the limits of a single volume has suffered a wise modification, and we are now promised a dictionary of applied chemistry in three volumes. The first of these lies before us. In size, typography, and general appearance it is uniform with the new edition of Watt's Dictionary, making a handsome book of about 700 pages. The text is illustrated by some 230 well-chosen cuts, the most fully illustrated subjects being Analysis, Aspirators, Assaying, Balance, Bleaching, Brewing, Candles, Carbon, Cements, Chlorine, Dextrin, and Distillation. As stated in the preface, the work is designed to be essentially a dictionary of chemistry in its applications to the arts and manufactures. Although in a general sense complementary to Watt's Dictionary, certain titles are of necessity common to both works: thus, such subjects as Atmosphere, Water, Fermentation, Chemistry of the Hydrocarbons, Vegeto-Alkaloids, Glucosides, etc., etc., are included in the plan of this dictionary by reason of their relations to technology or to medicine and sanitation; but in all cases these subjects are treated from the standpoint of practical application.

We are glad to see this separation of subject-matter and treatment. The bounds of chemical knowledge and its application to practical and industrial problems have been, in the last quarter of a century, so extended that the dictionary-makers must divide the field if they are to reach the last of the alphabet before the first volumes of their work become antiquated. And on the same account, in the interest of freshness and timeliness, the plan of succinct treatment adopted in these two dictionaries is to be commended. Concise outlines, if accurate, well up to date, and supplemented by good bibliographies, are worth infinitely more than the distant hope of future voluminously complete discussions. In completeness and thoroughness these dictionaries are not to be compared with the 'Neues Handwörterbuch der Chemie' or the 'Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Technischen Chemie.' But the former, whose first volume bears on its title-page the date 1871, has this year only just completed R; and the latter, in its fourth edition, is engaged with "Fette und Oele" on the 4,585th page from its start with "Aether."

This first volume of the 'Dictionary of Applied Chemistry' closes on the 715th page with Dysodil. Prof. Thorpe has certainly been fortunate in the contributors he has secured for the undertaking. Their names are a sufficient guarantee for the accuracy and value of the work. No one is better fitted to write on ammonia, chlorine, and bromine than Prof. Lunge of Zürich. Prof. Meldola is an unquestioned authority on azo-coloring matters, and Dr. Witt on the azines; and, in general, the thirty whose names appear as contributors to this volume are men specially fitted to write on the subjects assigned to them. No American names are in the list, but the preface leads us to expect contributions from some of our chemists in the succeeding volumes. Some of the most important articles, with the number of pages occupied by each, are: Disinfectants (18) by A. H. Allen; Analysis (57) by C. H. Bothamley; Cellulose (12) by C. F. Cross; Balance (14) and Cyanides (18) by W. Dittmar; Candles (5) by Leopold Field; Cements (27) by W. N. Hartley; Bleaching (13) and Dyeing (13) by J. J. Hummel; Brewing (29) by John Heron; Ammonia (17) and Chlorine (40) by G. Lunge; Azo-Coloring Matters (28) by Raphael Meldola; Alizarin (10) by W. H. Perkin; Albuminoids (7) by H. H. Robinson; Dextrose (8) by Cornelius O'Sullivan; Alcohol and Alcoholometry (11) by G. N. Stoker; Azines (10) by Otto N. Witt; Distillation (9) by Sydney Young.

One could wish that the bibliography of the subjects, so important a matter where the treatment is so condensed, had received closer supervision; for while on the whole the literature is pretty fully given, in a few cases of importance the authors have almost entirely or quite omitted their lists of references. Attention to another point involving little additional labor would have added materially to the completeness of the work and the satisfaction of its users: we refer to the giving of derivations, synonyms, and French and German equivalents of the words which serve as titles. This matter has evidently been left to the discretion of the various contributors, and has led to an annoying lack of uniformity.

But, aside from such comparatively slight blemishes, the work is a model of its kind. It will prove invaluable to the chemist, and to the technologist it will afford exact and useful information in regard to allied industries. To whatever subject the reader may turn, he will find description and statement always clear, well-arranged, fresh, and reliable.

Sketches of War History, 1861–1865. Papers prepared for the Ohio Commandery of the Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States. 1888–1890. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 8vo, pp. 471.

This substantial and attractive volume is the third which has been published by the Ohio Commandery of the Loyal Legion, and is good proof of the interest in historical matters maintained by the organization. Each volume has been an improvement on its predecessor, showing a growing appreciation of the proper character and the true value of personal reminiscences of the civil war. Under the intelligent editing of Capt. Hunter, the Recorder of the Commandery, the present collection is wholly free from padding, every paper being a genuine record of personal knowledge by men who were part of what they relate. Their experiences, as here narrated, range from the battle of Shiloh to Sailor's Creek and Bentonville, and include an interesting account of the politico-military condition of things at

Washington in the first weeks after the beginning of hostilities, by Mr. A. F. Perry.

Twenty chapters of personal reminiscences of the war are thus added to the valuable material for history which the Loyal Legion has before given to the country. The variety of topics, the vigor of the narratives, and (what might not be looked for) the general excellence of the style of the several writers, combine to make this a book not only of value to the future historian, but of present and often thrilling interest to the general reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Sir F. O. La Confédération Suisse. Édition française par Henry G. Loumyer. Basle: H. Georg.
Adams, W. J. L. The Photographic Instructor. The Scovill & Adams Co.
Arnold, Sir E. The Light of Asia. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Bunyan, J. The Pilgrim's Progress. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Carus, P. The Ethical Problem. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Co.
Chisholm, G. G. Longmans' School Geography for North America. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Classic Gems of English Literature. 2 vols. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1.
Conway, M. D. Life of Nathaniel Hawthorne. A. Lovell & Co. 40 cents.
Daudet, A. Numa Roumestan. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Lives of English Authors. Thos. Nelson & Sons. $1.
Ward, Rev. J. H. The White Mountains: A Guide to their Interpretation. D. Appleton & Co.
Winchester, Rev. E. Some Remarkable Passages in the Life of Dr. George de Benneville. Germantown, Pa.: Converse Cleaves.
Winter, John S. Dinna Forget. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Wolff, H. Cosmos: Die Weltentwickelung nach monistisch-psychologischen Prinzipien. 2 vols. Leipzig: W. Friedrich.
Wolff, H. W. Rambles in the Black Forest. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Woods, Katherine P. Metzerott, Shoemaker. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Worthey, Mrs. The New Continent. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Wright, T. W. Text Book of Mechanics. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Yonge, C. M. Cameos from English History. The Rebellion and the Restoration. 7th Series. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.

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SOUTHERN HOME SCHOOL FOR Girls.—Mrs. W. M. Cary, Miss Cary. Established 1842. Summer address, Bar Harbor, Me.

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EDGEWORTH BOARDING AND DAY School for young ladies will reopen Thursday, September 18. Mrs. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal.

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The Nation.

A WEEKLY JOURNAL DEVOTED TO

Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

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Schools.

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Schools.

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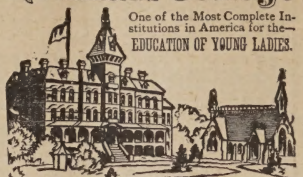

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 14, 1890.

The Week.

WHEN the historical record is made up of the first use of electricity in the execution of criminals, it will be necessary to divide it into two parts. One of these will have to be devoted to the execution as it actually occurred, and the other to the execution as it was recorded in the "great newspapers" of the period. With the exception of the *Evening Post*, the *Commercial Advertiser*, and the *Tribune*, every newspaper in this city has published a purely imaginative account of Kemmler's execution, written by persons who were not present, and who were in no manner restrained by the statements of persons who were witnesses of it. The cheap evening papers did this because they wished to sell their "extras"; but why should the morning papers have done it? They had ample opportunity to secure accurate and truthful accounts. Without an exception, every physician declares that Kemmler's death was instantaneous and painless, and that the convulsive movements and breathing were merely natural reaction. Yet, with the honorable exception of the *Tribune*, every morning newspaper gave up its first page to arrant deception of its readers by publishing an account which it knew to be sensational and false.

The comparative ease with which the New York Central Railway has overcome the strike which paralyzed its traffic on Friday evening is as much of a surprise to the general public as it is a relief. Few people were prepared to believe, what is now apparent, that the strikers showed their full strength at the outset. It seemed incredible that, with a few hundred out of 22,000 employees pledged to their support, the leaders in the strike could have had even a glimmering hope of success; and for this reason most people were inclined to place confidence in the assertions of the Knights of Labor concerning the existence of vast "sympathetic" movements, not only among the employees of the Central Road, but on the other great lines of the country. Even on Monday morning, when the company seemed to have the upper hand, the threats of the Knights to tie up nearly all the great railway lines of the country were so positive that the general public was made more or less uneasy by them. Men said to each other that unless there were some great labor movement held in reserve to back the demands of the strikers, they could not understand why the strike was undertaken. The outcome furnishes the explanation. The strike was a weak one because it was the last desperate effort in a failing cause. The leaders in it were able to see that delay would make them weaker rather than stronger, and that if they did not make their effort at once, they would never make it at all. They made the most impressive demonstration of their power possible, by striking at an unexpected moment, and at a time which would be especially annoying both to the company and the public. Undoubtedly they hoped for "sympathetic" aid after the strike was on, but it is very clear that they had no definite promise of any. The fact that they received practically none is the most significant development of the brief struggle.

Eastern Republican editors who are loudly demanding the passage of the Force Bill and the McKinley Bill have been repeatedly warned that they entirely misapprehend the temper of the Western Republicans. We are glad to observe that the readers of the New York *Tribune* have at last been permitted to get a hint of the truth, through a letter embodying "what a wide-awake Republican observed in the West." Elijah R. Kennedy, the writer of this letter, is one of the most prominent Republicans among the business men resident in Brooklyn, and he has just returned from Wisconsin, where he "had excellent opportunities for conversing with representative Republicans." The result of his inquiries as to the Force Bill is thus stated: "There is not a very deep interest in the Lodge Bill. If it were now dropped, nobody would be disgusted, except such zealous partisans as will remain Republicans in any event. Much more might be said, but I content myself with stating a fact which, I judge, may be news in the East." As to the Tariff Bill, Mr. Kennedy explains that he went West with the impression that the Republicans in Congress were quite content to concede New York State to the Democrats, as a consequence of the enactment of the bill in the shape in which it passed the House, but that "the bill was immensely popular in the agricultural States, and would confirm our hold on those States." He frankly confesses that he was the victim of a delusion. "Well," he says, "I have talked with the best judges of the political situation in Wisconsin, men also peculiarly well informed on affairs in the other Northwestern States, and I deem it a duty to declare that the final enactment of the McKinley Bill, in anything like the shape in which it now stands, will lose us the next Congress, and will render it next to impossible for the Democrats to bungle and blunder sufficiently to enable us to elect a successor to President Harrison."

The effect of the Force Bill agitation upon the two political parties is plainly visible in the recent State election in Kentucky. There was much dissatisfaction among the Democrats at the action of their State Convention, and two or three months ago the party was so disorganized that the Republicans hoped to make an excellent showing. But the returns show a large vote and Democratic gains all over the State, and the result is plainly due to the injection of the Force Bill issue. On the morning of election day the Louisville *Courier-Journal* thus foreshadowed and explained what was to happen: "The Force Bill will play a great part in the general election which takes place in Kentucky to-day. For more than two weeks the Democratic orators and the Democratic press have been arousing Democratic voters all over the State by constant reference to this Congressional iniquity. Such stump-speakers as John Young Brown, P. W. Hardin, John Rhea, and others have found in the Lodge scheme material for some of the most impassioned and powerful political speeches that have been delivered in the State in many days, and the Democratic editors on all occasions kept the fact prominently before their readers that an expression of Democratic opinion was never more desirable or more necessary than at this juncture. Thanks to the general desire to express a strong denunciation of the Lodge bill, the spirit of disorganization which threatened trouble to some of the local Democratic tickets a few weeks ago, has given way in most counties to a determination to keep the party lines drawn taut."

Detailed reports of the Alabama election show clearly the effect of the Force Bill agitation in reducing the Republican vote. Not only in Birmingham, but in Sheffield, Florence, Decatur, Fort Payne, and other places where Northern Republicans have settled and invested money of late years, there was a large increase of the Democratic vote. The county in which Sheffield is situated went Democratic for the first time since the war, and the reason given was that "the Force Bill changed white votes, and most of the Northern white men voted the Democratic ticket." Many of these Republicans from the North do not content themselves with voting against their party, but openly declare their opposition to the Force Bill. After the meeting of the Buckeye Club in Birmingham on Tuesday week the subject was taken up, and a number of men from Ohio placed themselves on record against the scheme. United States Commissioner W. H. Hunter, a life-long Republican, when pressed for his views on the Force Bill, said: "I think that it is a remedy worse than the disease it seeks to cure, and I am not in favor of its passage." The sentiment of the entire Club was against the measure, and it is probable that they will send a petition to the Senate asking that it be not passed. Maj. George A. Clark, an old officer of the Union Army, who now lives in Florence, Ala., recently formulated a petition which has also been signed by a number of men who, like him, formerly lived in Minnesota, protesting against the passage of the Force Bill, and urging the Senators from Minnesota to vote against the bill, alleging that in the event of its passage it would be detrimental

to their best interests and the interests of those of their friends in Minnesota whom they have induced to make large investments in the South.

The irritation shown by Senator Edmunds and other supporters of the McKinley Tariff Bill at the slow progress of the measure is quite natural to those who look upon a tariff bill that has been reported by the Finance Committee as necessarily the right thing to be enacted into law. Such persons cannot understand why such stubborn opposition should be made on small things, or what seem to them to be small things. We think that an easy answer can be found to this seeming mystery. Each of these small things involves the bread and butter of a greater or less number of voters and their families. The Democrats, as Senator Plumb has wisely discerned, do not want to eliminate from the bill all the thorns and stings that are producing riots in the Republican camp. Their idea is that protection has exhausted itself as a battle-cry, and that from this time forward the details of the tariff are the chief concern of the voters—that the difference between one cent and two cents in the duty on tin plate, for example, is the point of interest, instead of the general question of pauper labor and the Cobden Club. For this reason they are giving close attention to details, and in this they are right, both as a matter of party policy and as a matter of public interest. To hold up the five minutes' rule *in terrorem* will not move them a hair. It will merely put a fresh obstacle in the way of business. It is not for the interest of the Democrats to defeat the McKinley Bill (Senator Plumb is quite right on that point). It is for their interest, however, to expose all of its iniquities, and to do so in such a thorough way that the people shall be supplied with facts and arguments in the ensuing campaign.

Senator Dawes on Monday contradicted the statement of W. C. Cronemeyer, the head of the Pittsburgh tin-plate syndicate, that he (Cronemeyer) could make tin plate *at a profit* under the present duty of one cent per pound. Cronemeyer's Association issued a circular on the 26th of September last which embraced the following paragraphs:

"To counteract and offset the selfish greed of these importers *is the aim of the American Tinned Plate Association*, and for that purpose it has erected this plant, to awaken the interest of the public, and to demonstrate that tin plates can be made here as well as anywhere in the world.

"*And it is a fact, and we can prove it by figures, that they can be made here and sold with profit at present selling prices;* but if any one should attempt the manufacture now, he would share the same fate as those who, tempted by the enormous prices which have, at times, been charged to the consumers by the importers' monopoly, built works and at first made money, but soon found that they could not withstand the pressure of the monopolists who had temporarily, but long enough, reduced the price so low that competition meant ruin."

Yet Senator Dawes said that the duty was not sufficiently high to induce the manufacture of the article in this country, and he went on to make a speech in favor of what he called emancipation—the emancipation of the country from dependence on foreigners for tin plate. It is very strange that the country never discovered the condition of servitude under which it groans until Cronemeyer came forward and offered to emancipate it. But it is stranger still that when Cronemeyer said he could do the emancipation under a tax of one cent per pound, Dawes should come forward and say, "No, my dear fellow, you can't do it, you must have two and two-tenths."

It is rather pitiable that Senator Sherman should be supporting an increase of duty on rough building-stone—an increase from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. according to his own admission, but a much greater increase according to the computations of other Senators. The present duty is $1 per ton. The duty proposed in the McKinley Bill is 11 cents per cubic foot. When a change is made in the mode of assessing the duty, it is usually for the purpose of covering up a fraud. Senator McPherson said that the increase was equal to 65 per cent., and he read a letter from an importer of building-stone saying that any increase upon the present rate would be prohibitory. The very idea of a duty on stone in the rough is a travesty upon common sense. But the Hon. John Sherman, Senator from Ohio, thought that the proposed duty was very moderate. Perhaps it is as compared with other things in the bill, but how does it comport with Mr. Sherman's solemn admonitions on the subject of the tariff a few years ago? In his speech on the Tariff Bill of 1872—the McKinley Bill of that period—he said:

"It must be remembered that the present duties, taken together, are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then surely they are now too high when all these taxes are removed."

How Mr. Sherman must suffer under the ox-whip that McKinley flourishes.

It makes very little difference whether Mr. Blaine has converted the President to his reciprocity views or the President has induced Mr. Blaine to dilute the same in the interest of party harmony; the fact remains that, by giving his views utterance, Mr. Blaine has made it impossible for the Republican party ever to become a unit again in favor of higher protective duties. He has given vent to a great volume of smouldering discontent with the programme of his party in Congress, and has prompted the expression by Republican leaders and newspapers of opinions of the most revolutionary character. Throughout New England and the Northwest there have been deliverances of this kind which will be of incalculable service to the cause of tariff reform, for they will set thousands of people to thinking and doubting, with the inevitable result of ultimate injury to the high-tariff cause. In fact, since President Cleveland issued his famous message, there has been no single contribution to the work of educating the American people to a proper realization of the burdens and hardships of our protective system equal in effectiveness to this outbreak by Mr. Blaine. He has put a knife straight into the vitals of the protective system, and the wound will never heal.

We have already called attention to the fact that the Republican Convention in the Seventh Congressional District of Kansas adopted a platform which endorsed Mr. Blaine's reciprocity views, favored reduction of the tariff, and absolved the nominee of the Convention "from dictation of the party caucus upon all economic issues." Equally significant as to the drift of party sentiment on this question among Western Republicans was the action of the Convention in the Second Congressional District of Nebraska. The Convention adopted a resolution declaring "that we heartily endorse the Hale amendment to the McKinley Bill embodying the idea of Hon. James G. Blaine as to reciprocity among the American nations," and nominated a candidate who in his speech of acceptance said: "If I should be elected, I will do all I can do to represent the people of Nebraska, and especially the people of the Second District. On the question of the tariff I believe I am in accord with the people of the West. In the McKinley Bill there are things I would not vote for." In view of such manifestoes it is no wonder that both of the Republican Senators from Nebraska have been found voting for lower tariff rates than those of the McKinley Bill.

The protest against the high-tariff craze which finds such bold expression in the Republican newspapers of Nebraska, Kansas, and Minnesota, is coming to be heard in Iowa also. The Keokuk *Gate City* is one of the oldest and most influential journals of the party in the latter State. In commenting upon the action of the Kansas and Nebraska Senators in voting with the Democrats for lower duties, the *Gate City* says: "This shows that Kansas and Nebraska have been taken out of the high-protection list by the people, and the Republican Senators simply carry out their wish. Messrs. Ingalls and Plumb of Kansas, and Manderson and Paddock of Nebraska, do not pretend to have any personal desires about the subject save to do what the people they represent want." Like the *Pioneer Press*, the Keokuk newspaper attributes the change in popular feeling to the awakening among the farmers.

The leading Republican newspapers of the West do not mean to leave their Senators in any doubt as to their attitude towards the

pending Tariff Bill. The St. Paul *Pioneer Press* begins a vigorous editorial article, entitled "Full of Faults," in this way: "While the concentration of attention upon the free-sugar section of the McKinley Tariff Bill is a good thing, in that it promises to secure a modification of it in the direction suggested by Mr. Blaine, it is not a good thing in as far as it causes less study to be given to other and no less objectionable portions of the bill." It proceeds to consider two features "which are most of all obnoxious to the interests of the people, to the progress of our industries, and to a sound revenue system." One of these is the changes in the tobacco schedule, by which "it is proposed to increase so enormously the duties on imported Havana and Sumatra tobaccos that not only the price of smokers' goods must go up tremendously, but the great cigar-manufacturing industry of the country will fairly be driven out of existence." The other is what the *Pioneer Press* styles "the tin-plate enormity," and "this most monstrous feature of the bill." Of the proposition to increase by more than 100 per cent. the duty on tin plate, it says: "Not even the project to impose a duty on hides was a madder one, from the economic standpoint. It is a purely gratuitous exaction. It is not even demanded by any existing industry. All that we are told, when the wisdom of this policy is questioned, is that certain Pittsburgh capitalists will put half-a-million dollars into a plant for making tin plate if the new duty is allowed to stand. We have no reason to suppose that they will succeed. We have every reason to feel sure that they will not; for the experiment has already been tried and failed, not because of lack of duty, but because the processes of making tin plate are not so understood in this country as to enable the home to compete with the foreign product on any terms. And for the sake of this mere abstraction the people of the United States are to be taxed from $7,000,000 to $8,000,000 annually, for an indefinite term, and the canning and other industries that employ tin plate are to be thrown into confusion and possible ruin." The article concludes with these plain words: "The McKinley Bill is full of faults, from beginning to end. What it needs is not a revision by the Senate Committee, but such an entire reconstruction as was accomplished in 1883 by the substitution of a Senate bill for that which had passed the House." In considering such deliverances as this, it is to be remembered not only that the *Pioneer Press* is the most prominent Republican newspaper in Minnesota, but that its position is sustained by the lesser party organs throughout the State.

It is worth saying and repeating that the editors of the Force Bill and McKinley Bill organs in the East would have no excuse for their ignorance as to Republican sentiment in the West if they would only read their exchanges from that part of the country. Take, for example, Wednesday week's issue of the Omaha *Bee*, the most prominent Republican newspaper in Nebraska. Its leading editorial article is entitled "The Revolt against Higher Duties," and begins with the declaration that the four Republican Senators from Nebraska and Kansas who voted the other day, against the majority of their party colleagues, in favor of reducing duties provided for in the pending Tariff Bill on certain articles in common use, "represent Western constituencies almost wholly composed of agricultural producers, and they have ample assurance of the opposition of these people to the higher duties which the new Tariff Bill proposes to place on many manufactured articles which are absolutely necessary in every home." The *Bee* holds that "this revolt against increasing the burden of tariff taxation did not begin a day too soon," and hopes that "the Republican Senators who have inaugurated it will manfully hold their position in defence of the interests and welfare of their constituents, which are in common with those of the great majority of the people of the entire country." It points out that the Nebraska Republicans at their recent State Convention declared for "a revision of the tariff in the interest of the producer and laborer," and says that "the Republicans who gave their approval to this resolution do not believe that an increase of the average percentage of duties from 43 to 55 per cent. on nearly everything in common use is in the interest of the producer and laborer." It recalls the fact that the Republicans of Minnesota, at their recent State Convention, declared their opposition to the McKinley Bill, and says that "wherever Western Republicans have given expression to their views on the tariff they have distinctly indicated their hostility to higher duties," like those provided for in the McKinley Bill. In short, says the *Bee*, "the West has demanded, and still demands, a revision of the tariff, and it insists that it shall be downward and not upward," and it concludes with this earnest warning: "In this Western country Republicans are in harmony with the only rational and logical interpretation of the pledges of the party to the country, and urge the only policy which will not be a menace to the stability and potency of the party."

One of the coolest assumptions that ever found lodgment in Wall Street is that which supports the "reorganizers" of the Sugar Trust. This concern has been adjudicated a conspiracy to produce a monopoly. All the sugar-refining companies that went into it have been adjudged to have committed suicide, and the joint concern has been declared to be an illegal and usurping body. But some people have got it into their heads that if the name of it is changed, and if it is anointed by somebody or other who was not in the original deal, it will become a legal and reputable sort of thing, although its character as a conspiracy to produce a monopoly remains unchanged. This droll conceit has gained headway because reorganizations are very common in Wall Street, and because speculators do not commonly discriminate between different kinds of reorganizations. A shock was given to them last week by the simple appearance of the receiver of the North River Refinery as a defendant in the Brooklyn suit begun by the trustees of the old Trust in order to "reorganize." How the receiver could avoid appearing as a defendant, even if he were so inclined, does not appear. The shares of the North River Refinery are an integral part of the material out of which all the Trust certificates have been manufactured. Apparently, the receiver of the North River Company has some interest in the "reorganization," and could not get rid of it if he wanted to. His appearance as a defendant makes it necessary for the court to adjudicate the status of that company in the reorganization, or to take it out of the snarl, or do something which shall show up the whole concern in its true light. Hence these tears. Probably the reorganization proceedings will continue as long as there is any money to be made out of the ups and downs of the certificates in the market. When the public are sufficiently blistered to let them alone, the concern will go into liquidation and its assets be distributed to the parties entitled to receive them.

The outbreak of hostilities between Salvador and Guatemala wears a certain comic appearance, coming on the heels of the swearing of eternal pan-American friendship at Washington, but is in perfect keeping with Central American history for the past seventy years. Whatever the outcome of the present conflict may be, it will serve afresh to show the emptiness of a political name compared with political facts. A military oligarchy does not become a republic by calling it so; an illiterate and non-voting population cannot be said to have any "voice" or "representatives"; shooting down unpopular rulers, instead of voting them down, is not the best way to commend the democratic spirit to the world. One immediate result of the latest broil in Central America will almost certainly be the death of the project of Central American union, even in its preliminary and provisional form. The ultimate consummation of that project, set for the end of the century, was seen by its most ardent champions to be beset with tremendous difficulties, which they were trusting to time and good luck somehow to remove; and now that the very first step is made impossible, the final completed union must appear more chimerical than ever. A remoter but no less impressive effect of the new imbroglio will be to remind us of the perils necessarily surrounding such political engagements with nations inheriting Spanish-American institutions and methods as are contemplated in some of the schemes left over by the Pan-American Congress. Where will the confiding capital be found, for example, to build the continental railroad through Central America when a revolution may come any day to repudiate or rescind foregoing guarantees?

AN OBJECT-LESSON.

MR. H. B. HAIGH, representing the Ironclad Manufacturing Co., No. 22 Cliff Street, New York, sends us a printed "suggestion" concerning the increase of duty on tin plate as proposed in the McKinley Bill. The suggestion is that the duty on tin plate should remain unchanged, and that a bounty of 1 2-10 cents per pound be paid to all persons who shall produce tin plate in this country. Mr. Haigh evidently has doubts whether any tin plate will be made here under either plan. He is sure that at the end of five years, even with the utmost diligence on the part of intending manufacturers, not more than one-fifth of the present demand for the article can be supplied. So he figures out that, under the bounty plan, not more than $2,000,000 per annum of taxation would be required over and above the present tax on tin plate, while under the McKinley plan the increase of taxation would be upwards of $9,000,000. And this extra taxation would fall upon the humbler classes of society who use tin pans, cans, pails, dippers, etc.

All this seems very plain, and since the wise committees at Washington have adopted the principle of bounty-paying in the case of sugar, no reason can be urged against the paying of a bounty for tin plate, especially since there is no tin plate made here at present. The bounty would not be a tax on the people until *some* tin plate is made, and then it would be a tax only to the extent that the thing we pretend to be aiming at was actually accomplished.

Mr. Haigh propitiates us by remarking that he is himself a strong protectionist. "Primarily," he says, "I desire to say that the interests I represent are strongly in favor of a fair and equitable tariff to protect American industries. Secondly, that the present tariff on tin plate is fully adequate to protect that industry in this country at the present time. Thirdly, I am fully conscious of the fact that tariff adjustments must, in order to insure protection, be founded upon not only the conditions of to-day, but the possibilities of the future." All of which shows that Mr. Haigh is as blind as a bat, and will probably never have good eyesight until he finds himself compelled to pay a tax of 2 2-10 cents per pound on the raw material of his industry. It has been a belief with him, strongly held, that taxing one man for the benefit of another is good for all of us, and that such a tax can be made "fair and equitable." It is a necessary corollary to such beliefs that somebody shall be wise enough to tell what is fair and equitable in every case, and strong enough to get his ideas enacted into law, and that our system of government is adapted to bring that phenomenally wise man, and several hundred like him, into Congress, and keep them there, and make them agree with each other. But what do the facts show in this case? Why, that Mr. Haigh, who really does know something about the tin-plate business, is not in Congress at all, while the men who have "got there" differ from him altogether on the question of what is fair and equitable. It happens, also, that these men who do not understand the subject have the power to carry their fantastic conceits into effect, while Mr. Haigh can do nothing but "grin and bear it."

Suppose, however, that Mr. Haigh were in Congress, and were influential enough with his fellow-members to bring them to his way of thinking on the subject of tin plate, who would be responsible for the other 999 things in the tariff? Take the article of licorice paste, for example. We choose this because it was the subject of debate for two or three days in the Senate recently. The bill proposed a duty of five cents per pound. Senator McPherson thought that this rate was too high, because the article itself was worth only six cents per pound. Senator Aldrich, who has charge of the bill, took Mr. McPherson to task for such wild and absurd statements about so common an article as licorice, saying:

> "The Senator says that, notwithstanding the fact that the unit of value on importations for 1889 was in the neighborhood of 14 cents, licorice paste is worth 6 cents a pound in New York. I have here the quotations of the 19th day of July, which show that it was quoted at from 17 to 28 cents a pound, and I shall be very much obliged to the Senator if he will bring before the Senate any quotations from *Prices Current* showing that pure licorice paste is quoted at 6 cents a pound, or anywhere near 6 cents. This very *Prices Current* from which I have quoted quotes licorice root, which is free of duty, at from 10 to 12 cents a pound if put up in five-pound packages for use. The Senator must be as far off in his statistics with regard to that price as he is in regard to the cost of labor."

Then Senator Allison, who is also a member of the Committee that reported the bill, polished McPherson off neatly as follows:

> "It turns out," said he, "that the Senator from New Jersey was wholly wrong about the quotations he has given us from *Prices Current* showing the cost of the article. The Senator undoubtedly is the victim of a misprint or a misquotation of figures somewhere. Probably the transcriber made it 16 cents instead of 26 cents. He has got a figure wrong or something of that sort. I think, after the correction of the Senator from Rhode Island, the Senator from New Jersey ought to be willing to withdraw his amendment."

Mr. McPherson did not withdraw his amendment, but he went down to the telegraph office and sent a despatch to "the largest consumer and purchaser of licorice paste in the United States of America," asking him what were the prices of the article during the past two years. In due time the reply came: "Six to seven cents per pound; I do not use any low grades at all." When Mr. McPherson read this telegram, there was silence for the space of about half-an-hour at the Aldrich and Allison desks. They had been legislating upon the theory that the wholesale price of licorice was 17 to 28 cents per pound, and giving themselves as authority to their fellow-Senators to that purpose, when in fact it was only 6 to 7 cents per pound.

Now here we have an object-lesson, or rather two object-lessons. Tin plate furnishes one and licorice paste the other. What do they teach? Evidently that the easy conceit which has held Mr. Haigh spell-bound all his life, that it is possible to frame "a *fair and equitable* tariff to protect American industries," is an utter delusion. Nearly all delusions that have to do with dollars and cents have some fraud connected with them. The tin-plate tax has an attachment of this kind, which Mr. Haigh will find out sooner or later. The reason why his proposed bounty on the home production of tin plate will not be acceptable to the backers of the McKinley Bill is, that that would not compel people to buy galvanized iron for roofing purposes. The price of tin to the consumer being the same as before, nobody would feel compelled to discontinue the use of it and try something else. Picking the pockets of the people and then throwing the money back to them out of cab windows would be a preferable mode of redistributing the rewards of industry.

THE DEBATE ON IRON.

THE debate on the Tariff Bill in the Senate is yielding day by day much interesting information. One of the greatest mysteries of the tariff of 1883 was explained last week by Senator Aldrich at the instance of Senator Plumb, who inquired why the duty on iron ore, after being voted in both House and Senate, and in the Tariff Commission also, at 50 cents per ton, was raised by the Conference Committee to 75 cents per ton, and so passed. Mr. Aldrich replied that it was done at the urgent solicitation of Senator Mahone of Virginia—privately, of course, because all conference - committee work is private. Mr. Aldrich was very voluble in showing that there had been no violation of parliamentary law in the matter, because, although the House and Senate had both voted for 50 cents per ton, and nobody had dreamed of any higher rate, yet they had so voted on separate bills. If they had voted that way on the same bill, it would have been an infraction of parliamentary law to change what both had agreed to; but since the bill that the House had voted on had been dropped and a new one had been framed by the Senate and tacked on as an amendment to an internal-revenue bill, it was only—what? Some people might say, a barefaced swindle. Mr. Aldrich did not say what he considered it to be in a moral point of view, although he was a member of the Conference Committee.

An attempt was made to reduce this swindling tax not to the rate at which both House and Senate intended to fix it in 1883, and would have fixed it had not "Billy" Mahone whispered something to Aldrich through the crack of the door, but 10 cents higher, *i. e.*, to 60 cents per ton. Senator Dawes of Massachusetts screwed himself up to the point of voting for this relief to the iron interest of his own State, but his colleague, Mr. Hoar, voted no. He was willing to give not only the pound of flesh nominated in the bond, but 25 cents more. And so the Senate, by a vote of 21 to 29, ratified the Aldrich-Mahone private arrangement of 1883, after its true nature had been explained to them.

The year to which the last census report on iron manufacture applied was a very prosperous one. Mr. James M. Swank, the census expert, called it a "boom" year. A little over 7,000,000 tons of iron ore were mined in that year; the laborers employed, consisting of men and boys, numbered 31,668. They earned the magnificent average of *three hundred*

dollars a year each! They were only employed a part of the year. They could not get work for the whole year. The sum of their wages was a little over nine and a half million dollars, and the cost of their work in getting out each ton of ore was $1.35.

Since that date the product of iron ore has about doubled, but the new sources of supply can hardly be called mines. They are banks of ore, from which the ore is picked with a pickaxe and shovelled by common laborers into cars or carts to be carried to the iron works. The cost of labor is less than one dollar a ton, and all who are now occupied in this art can do a great deal more work than they did in 1880. Do they get any more pay? So far as information can now be obtained, they nearly all work at less than one dollar a day; few of them get any more.

There may be 50,000 men and boys now occupied in this work. "Shall we destroy this great iron-ore industry?" shouts Senator Aldrich. You cannot destroy it, sir. You could not if you would. The bounty to the mine-owners is wholly unnecessary. The most competent men who are engaged in converting iron ore into iron testify that they would use more American ore rather than less if they were permitted to import foreign ores free of duty. They need them for mixing in order to make steel.

The iron-ore swindle of 1883 having been explained and ratified, the Senate took up the subject of pig-iron, always an interesting one. Here Senator Vance called attention to a report just issued by Commissioner Carroll D. Wright of the Labor Bureau, entitled 'Preliminary Report on the Cost of Production, Pig-Iron, Steel Ingots, Steel Rails, Coal, Coke, Iron Ore, and Limestone,' and read from it that the average *total* labor cost of a ton of pig-iron in the United States is $1.54, against which a duty of $6.72 per ton is allowed, to protect the manufacturer against the difference in wages between this country and Great Britain. Here Mr. Aldrich was as smart as he had been in his private interview with Billy Mahone in 1883. He wondered why Mr. Vance did not take account of the labor cost of everything else that preceded the making of the pig-iron—that is, the ore, the coal, etc., etc. Mr. Vance thought that there were two answers. One was that all these labor costs had been previously allowed for in the tariff on those articles, and the other was that the British manufacturer had his costs of production also, including labor costs, stringing backward to the ends of the earth and all eternity. If all such labor costs, on both sides, were to be taken into the reckoning, nobody could ever tell what was the difference between the two countries, or on which side the balance lay. Mr. Aldrich finally produced a quotation from Abram S. Hewitt to the effect that "it actually takes 90 per cent. of the cost of the article for labor, when you include everything from beginning to end"—a remark which obviously applies to every manufacturer in England and Germany as well as in this country. To which Mr. Vance replied with equal effect and humor:

"Then, Mr. President, we will not stop there. We will ascertain and levy a tax upon this article to pay the labor of the man who discovered the mine, the labor of the man who dug the roads that reach the mine, and the labor of the man who built the houses upon the road that he stayed all night at and subsisted at upon his travels; and the labor of Christopher Columbus when he sailed across the ocean in 1492 and discovered this American country of ours; and the labor of the people of Spain who went back into the mountains of Catalonia or Castile and cut down the timber that built the ships that Columbus used in crossing the ocean; and the labor of the man in the shops of Toledo who manufactured the tools that cut down the trees in the mountains of Catalonia that built the ships in which Columbus sailed across the ocean in 1492, and so on, and so on.

"The Senator knows just as well as I know, Mr. President, as one of these little pages knows, that when he rises here and demands the passage of a law to protect the American laborer who makes pig-iron, he simply has reference to the man who manipulates the ore, who melts it, and casts it into pig-iron, because the laborer in every preceding process has already been protected. He knows that, everybody knows that; and to undertake to avoid the force of an argument, and to justify a great iniquity like this, he goes back rambling into the ages of the past and invoking all the doctrine of predestination and the metaphysical consequences of the dependence of one thing upon another. He might as well go back to the Garden of Eden and say if Adam had been properly protected he would not have eaten the apple, and would be there now, lying flat on his back in the garden, looking up and waiting for pippins to drop."

FARM AND FACTORY IN CONNECTICUT.

AMONG the many sophisms of the high protectionists none has been more lustily asserted than the theory of the "home market." Orators of that school have shouted it from the stump, high-tariff writers have expounded it, and in the title of "Home-Market Club" adopted by a powerful and active protectionist organization at Boston the dominance of the idea is still more clearly proclaimed. Tersely and not unfairly stated, this "home-market" theory is, that, by taxing the mass of consumers, our industries can be so diversified that they will exchange goods with each other and thus trade will be kept at home. In particular does this dogma lay immense stress on the benefits of upbuilding the factory near the farm. When that proximity is accomplished, according to the high-tariff notion, we shall have the American farmer buying his goods of the American factory-owner, and selling in turn to the latter and to his hands the products of the farm. With the distance between factory and farm minimized and costs of carrying saved, they are, under this dogma, sure to become a blessing to each other and the utmost benefits of trade to be realized.

No advocate of protection ever set forth this "proximity" idea as to farm and factory more strenuously than did the late Horace Greeley, and in New England he used to allege its most abundant harvest of good things. But before Mr. Greeley died he saw New England's trade in cereals already passing to the West. Still, he had his "truck-farm" theory left as a sort of second line of defence. New England farms might no longer supply New York and Philadelphia, or even New England cities, with wheat, or corn, or oats, or rye, but they would still find abundant prosperity in raising "garden sass" and fruits. Under the shadows of the bustling factory town the happy Yankee farmer might still grow his vegetables—his tomatoes, his green corn, his potatoes, lettuce, and beets—and bear them, with his apples, berries, and other fruits, in a kind of jocund harvest home, to the near market of the factory town. New England was thus to become the prosperous farming emporium of "truck," leaving the cereals to the West. Unless we are greatly mistaken, much the same notion of the benefits of proximity between farm and factory has been a favorite one of Senator Hawley of Connecticut. Certainly few men have been more ardent protectionists than has he; and to advocate protection without a "home market" and "adjacent" industries would be to surrender the high tariff without a battle.

We turn, therefore, to the Senator's own Connecticut for light on the workings of this great protection blessing of "proximity" of factory and farm. The census returns just in from the State give us an excellent opportunity to make the test. In applying it we do not take a single decaying farm town that is remote from a city, but only those farm towns that lie close by, thus giving the protectionists every possible advantage of the situation. The State now contains twelve cities. In the appended table each of these cities is selected as the centre of the group of farm towns nearest it, the farming character of each town being proved in almost every case by the description of it as "agricultural" in the Connecticut State Register of 1890. In a large number of cases the farm towns selected adjoin the city which is their natural market, and in no case are they more than a very few miles away. The population by the last two censuses of these twelve "farm groups," consisting of the three rural towns nearest each of the cities—except in the case of Hartford, the State capital, where four towns are taken—is approximately as follows:

Group.	Population 1880.	Population 1890.
New Haven	2,491	2,301
Hartford	6,010	5,492
Bridgeport	6,216	6,823
Waterbury	2,910	2,179
Meriden	3,767	3,307
New Britain	3,215	3,028
Norwalk	3,927	3,498
Danbury	5,956	5,195
Norwich	2,689	2,210
New London	2,972	2,608
Middletown	3,705	3,386
Rockville	4,457	4,040
Total	48,315	43,567

The decrease, subject to very slight revision in the final returns, during the ten years in these twelve groups is 4,748, or about 10 per cent. In the thirty-seven "farm towns nearest cities" which make up the whole twelve groups, two or three towns have been used twice over, in cases where they adjoin two cities—a point to which the ardent protectionist cannot object, as in that case the farm town is supposed to receive "protective" benefits from

both its urban neighbors. It will be observed, also, that in only a single group of towns has there been a gain of population during the ten years, and in that but the merest trifle. The figures, however, derive their chief value from the fact that they test and vitiate the "truck-farm" and "proximate-farm-town" theory on the choicest protection ground—in a New England State, in towns close to bustling and prosperous cities, where the farmer may be supposed to encounter no problems of transportation, and where the competition (in "garden sass" at least) with other regions of the country is reduced to its lowest terms.

On a larger scale, indeed, the whole State of Connecticut may be taken as a visionary sample of this "local-market" dogma of protection. Its cities are well scattered over the State, all but two of the eight counties containing one or more of them—in this respect Connecticut being unlike Massachusetts, with most of her cities in her eastern counties, or New Hampshire, with her cities near her lower boundaries, or Rhode Island, with population centred near Providence, or Vermont, with almost no cities at all. From four to ten railroad lines or branches traverse each Connecticut county, bringing almost all the country towns into pretty close connection with the urban centres. Yet under these singularly favorable conditions for local markets the farm towns of Connecticut continue their steady decline. In the rural county of Litchfield all but eight of the twenty-six towns score decreases by this year's census returns; the rural county of Tolland shows gains in but three of her towns; and of the State's total gain of say 118,000 in the ten years, about 95,000 is found in the twelve cities which now contain almost 50 per cent. of the whole population of the commonwealth. Universally the farm towns lose under precisely the conditions that the high protectionist vaunts as most favorable. That concrete fact is established by the State census-enumerators, and if the protectionist alleges outside causes to account for the decline, he must at least confess that his "home-market" theory in Connecticut makes mighty poor progress in resisting them.

SENTIMENT ON THE FORCE BILL.

THE growth of public sentiment against the Force Bill is most striking and encouraging. The tide of popular feeling is now setting strongly in the right direction, and it rises higher every hour. The latest developments in various parts of the country are full of interest.

A movement has been started in this city to secure an expression of opinion against the scheme from the business men of the land, without distinction of party. The first of the proposed petitions, signed by 107 leading merchants of the wholesale grocery district, was sent to Senator Hiscock on Thursday. It presents the arguments against the bill both temperately and forcibly. The signers include men of every political faith—Republicans, Democrats, Mugwumps, and Prohibitionists. Copies of the petition have been sent to all the business centres, and there is no doubt that they will be widely signed by Republicans as well as by Democrats.

An excellent test of the feeling among Republicans has been afforded by the experience of Congressman Harmer of Pennsylvania. He has for many years represented a Republican district in Philadelphia, and nobody better understands popular sentiment in that city. Mr. Harmer refused to follow the dictates of the party caucus on this question when it was before the House, and he has just written a letter giving these reasons for his attitude: "There are several objections which have given me cause to take the stand I have, any one of which should be sufficient, to my mind, to justify at least the expression of an honest opinion. I look upon the movement as very bad politics, and the effect of the passage of the bill into a law upon many important business interests of the country would, I am sure, be disastrous. Already, merely upon the agitation of the question, the gradual and increasing flow of capital from the North to the South has been interrupted, and a paralyzing influence has become noticeable in many directions, the effect of which and the extent of the damage to be done is only to be calculated by future results. It is time to call a halt in this line of legislation. We have at best too much of it." Mr. Harmer concludes with this significant statement as to the popular response to his position: "Since I have taken the stand referred to, every Independent, and with one exception every Republican paper, has given my action its endorsement, and with almost no exception the business men of my city with them give me credit."

One of these Republican papers, the *Bulletin*, expressed its views on the question with great emphasis last week. It had been announced that Senator Quay had come to the conclusion that the introduction of the bill was a mistake, and that the Senate ought quietly to put an end to it, and that he had urged this view on those of his colleagues who had been inclined to force it through the upper chamber at any cost. "In taking this view of the bill," said the *Bulletin*, "Senator Quay undoubtedly reflects the opinion of intelligent and thoughtful Republicans in Pennsylvania, who are anxious that the party shall enter the coming campaign free from the handicaps with which reckless leaders have been weighing it down. There is no demand whatever in this State for the passage of the Elections Bill, and Senator Quay would have misrepresented his people if he had given his sanction to the folly."

Senator Washburn of Minnesota has just been on a visit to his constituents, and was interviewed in Chicago on Thursday on his return to Washington. He expressed the opinion that the Force Bill would not be passed, and declared that "the West does not want the bill." That Senator Washburn correctly interprets public sentiment in that part of the country is clear to any one who reads the Western newspapers. The Omaha *Bee* is the leading Republican newspaper of Nebraska, and it asserts that "a majority of the Republicans of the North either take no interest in the proposed legislation or are opposed to it." Moreover, after reading the letters from the correspondent whom the Philadelphia *Press* sent through the South, and other evidences of the feeling against the bill among Southern Republicans, the *Bee* declares that "the evidence is ample and conclusive that a majority of the better class of Republicans in the South do not want any new legislation for regulating Federal elections." The Omaha newspaper thinks that "this widespread and decided opposition among the better class of Southern Republicans should not fail to exert an influence upon Republican Senators who are susceptible to the opinions of trustworthy members of their party in the section of the country where the proposed legislation is confessedly intended to remedy evils justly complained of," and it sums up the case as follows: "If a majority of the intelligent and reputable Republicans of the South do not want a new election law, because they can see in it no promise of good to the party there, but rather injury and an increase of evils, and a majority of the Republicans of the North either take no interest in the proposed legislation or are opposed to it, nothing more should be necessary to convince Republican Senators of the inexpediency of enacting new legislation on this subject at present. The pending Election Bill will not pass the Senate if Republican Senators give heed to the prevailing sentiment in their party, both South and North."

Meanwhile, proofs of the deep-seated opposition to the policy among Southern Republicans accumulate. One of the most prominent white Republicans of the South, a man who has been elected to high offices in his State since the war, in discussing the proposed law the other day said emphatically: "The day that bill becomes a law I will cease to be a Republican. That bill will draw the color line in the South as it has never been drawn before, and no white man in the Southern States can remain in the Republican party." Nor does the effect of the scheme in this direction wait for the enactment of the law. Leonidas J. Moore, a leading Republican of North Carolina, has just announced his withdrawal from the party, and gives these reasons for his course: "For twenty years past in every election, both national and State, I have cast my ballots for the Republican party. I have continued in the same old course. The time has come, however, in my judgment, when no man who lives in the South can longer affiliate with the Republican party without an utter indifference to the welfare and well-being of the whole people of the Southern States. The legislation of the present Congress has been such as to convince any man of sense that if the South does not, to a man, resist the encroachment of the Republican party upon its rights and interests very soon, we shall be but provinces, so to speak, and the general legislation of the republic will not apply to us." In the recent State election in Alabama the Republican vote fell off largely in those places, like Birming-

ham, where the party has had much strength among the whites, and the reason is given as follows by one of the leading Republicans of the State: "To tell the truth, I think the Lodge Bill is responsible for it. The Republicans of the South are not in favor of that bill. Many of them are too weak-kneed to openly express their disapproval, so they express it by failing to vote. Very few white Republicans in this State voted, and they made no effort to bring out the negro vote. If that bill becomes a law, it will make Democrats in all local elections of the best Republicans in the South. Those of us who have business interests cannot afford to have them ruined by any such foolish law. If the Lodge Bill were passed, it could not be enforced in this section, and I don't believe any white Republican would try to have it enforced."

All this is precisely in the line of the predictions as to the partisan effect of this agitation which were made by the *Valley Virginian*, the leading Republican journal of Virginia, when it began its warfare against the bill. Reflection and observation have only served to strengthen the opposition to the bill of this representative Republican newspaper. The leading editorial article in last Thursday's issue is devoted to the subject, and is more emphatic than any previous deliverance. The *Virginian* publishes the "intelligent and comprehensive review of the political situation in South Carolina from the staff correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press*," and maintains that it "amply sustains every position we assumed, and presents an overwhelming argument against the enactment of the Elections Bill into law, viewed solely from a Republican standpoint." It declares that "the Republicans in Congress will inflict an irreparable and fatal wrong upon the party if, through caucus dictation, the Lodge Bill or some similar measure is made law," since "it would unsettle and disarrange party organization all over the country, and be as sure to give the Democrats the next House of Representatives as election day will roll around." It says that "the Republicans of the South, who understand the situation, and desire to see a formidable organization built up in this section, are almost to a man against it," and that "only the few who hope to gain something personally by Federal interference with elections favor it." After reasserting its conviction that the bill "is unwise from any view it is considered," and expressing the hope that it will be defeated, the *Virginian* concludes: "It remains to be seen whether the Republicans in Congress will court political suicide by passing the bill. It will bury in the general revolution it will effect in parties a good many conspicuous in its advocacy, and teach a lesson that will not soon be forgotten."

If the Republican managers at Washington insist upon passing the Force Bill in face of such protests from their own party, both North and South, it will be the most extraordinary defiance of public opinion ever known in our legislative history.

THE LATE CARDINAL NEWMAN.

JOHN HENRY NEWMAN was born in London on February 21, 1801. His father, whose family were Cambridgeshire landholders in a small way, was in the banking business till 1816, when a financial crash involved him in its ruin, and he took a brewery at Alton, Hampshire, near Selborne (of White's 'Natural History.') He was a man of good general culture, with a special taste for music, hereditary in the family and passing on to his son John, who, when challenged, after he had gone to Rome, to a public theological discussion by some Protestant Boanerges, declined, with the suggestion that they should have a public contest with the fiddle. The mother was Jemima Fourdrinier, of a Huguenot family remarkable for manufacturing skill. True to the Huguenot tradition, she reared her children in the Calvinism of Baxter, Newton, Milner, and Romaine. There were three brothers, one of whom, Francis William, four years younger than John, has suggested, by his extreme difference from him, many comparisons and much speculation. Both were born disputants, and from their childhood took opposite sides of every question that came up. One of the sisters married John, one of the Mozley brothers, famous in the Oxford movement mainly on account of James's remarkable gifts as a preacher and paradoxical disputant, and Thomas's extremely interesting and instructive 'Reminiscences of Oriel College and the Oxford Movement.' John Henry Newman was not a public-school man, to his lasting sorrow, though Dr. Nicholas's school at Ealing had the highest rank as a preparatory school. He soon became the leading scholar here, but found time for many pleasant avocations, writing much album poetry and certain masques and idyls, and even an opera. Some of his album verses he preserved in his collected works. They are as solemn as anything he wrote. But these are of his Oxford days, which began in 1816. The same year his father's failure in business and his own conversion, the reality of which he never doubted, deepened the current of his life. His parents intended him for the law, and he actually kept a term or two at Lincoln's Inn, but it soon appeared that his calling to the priestly and prophetic offices was imperative and not to be denied. His Oxford college was not that associated with his later fame, but Trinity. He was still in his nineteenth year when he was examined for his degree and came out "under the line." While a scholar of Trinity, from 1820 to 1823, when he was elected to an Oriel fellowship, he was intensely evangelical in his opinions. In company with a friend he wrote and published two cantos of a poem, "St. Bartholomew's Eve," in which he "branded with infamy" . . . "this most barbarous and cold-blooded massacre," . . . "so pleasing to the court of Rome." These phrases of 1821 were retracted with many others inimical to Rome a few years before he entered into her communion. The Oriel fellowship must have been the more welcome as, simultaneously with his conversion in 1816, he conceived the idea that it was God's will that he should lead a single life. His drawing to a missionary life was of a piece with this. He had some waverings in it till 1829; none after that. He took orders in 1824 and became curate of St. Clement's, a quaint little church picturesquely situated in the suburbs of Oxford.

From 1822 to 1825 his relations with Dr. Hawkins were more intimate than with any other person. Hawkins was then Vicar of St. Mary's, and afterwards Provost of Oriel. In his 'Apologia' Dr. Newman follows the example of Marcus Aurelius in his Meditations, and gives an account of the various personal influences that shaped his life. Dr. Hawkins taught him to weigh his words and be careful in his statements. He learned from him, besides, to give up his "remaining Calvinism," and to accept the doctrine of baptismal regeneration; also, the most important thing of all, the doctrine of tradition—"that the Bible was never intended to teach doctrine, but only to prove it, and that if we would learn doctrine we must go to the creeds and catechism of the Church." From the Rev. William James, then fellow of Oriel, "in the course of a walk around Christ Church Meadow," he learned the doctrine of apostolical succession. About the same time (1823) he got two things from 'Butler's Analogy': the sacramental idea, which Keble developed in his 'Christian Year,' that all natural things are symbols of things spiritual, and the doctrine that probability is the guide of life. The ease with which he let slip one after another of his evangelical doctrines and adopted those of the High Church party suggests that they had no very serious hold upon his mind. But his change from a Low Church to a High Church position was complicated with certain liberal tendencies. He made much of these in his repentant afterthought, but they do not seem to have been much more pronounced than those of the man who confessed himself "something of an agnostic" because he could no longer fully accept the narrative of Jonah's experience with the whale. From Blanco White, already verging towards the Unitarianism of his later years, he received ideas of inspiration less rigorous than those of his first teachers. Whately was his principal liberal teacher. He became Whately's Vice-Principal and tutor at St. Alban's Hall in 1825, and held the position for a year. Whately's contribution, however, was distinctly in the line of his ultimate development. It was that Erastianism is a "double usurpation"; that the interference of the Church in temporal and the State in spiritual matters is alike deplorable. When he went to Rome Newman gave up the first part of this contention. In 1827 Whately accused him of Arianizing because of his favorable opinion of the anti-Nicene Fathers. He wrote some slighting sentences about the Fathers for the 'Encyclopædia Metropolitana,' and inclined to Middleton's opinions concerning the miracles of the early Church. "In truth," he says, "I was drifting in the direction of liberalism." He was reading Hume, and had Paine's 'Age of Reason' under lock and key. But there is evidence that all the deeper currents of his life were towards the sacramental system of his Tractarian days. His brother, whom he rebuked for "speaking disrespectfully of bishops," writes that between 1823 and 1826 his opinions developed into "full-blown Popery." In the 'Apologia' 1827 is given as the date when his liberal tendencies were checked by illness and bereavement.

In 1829 he broke with Whately on the Peel election, which found him on one side—with the Orangemen!—and Pusey on the other—Catholic emancipation. Pusey, however, took this side as a liberal. He had proved his liberalism by writing a generous defence of German theology against the attack of Hugh Rose. But already Newman's mind was moving rapidly in the direction which later marked the Oxford movement, and then his Roman Catholic conversion. During his first years at Oriel he was not at home there. But in 1826 he became one of the tutors of his college, wrote one or two essays that were well received, preached his first university sermon, and began to be well known. Thus he picked his shell, and when he was one of the public examiners for the degree of B.A. in 1827, he came fairly out of it, and remained so, as he says, till 1841. From a silent man in the commons-room of Oriel he became one of the most free in talk and eager in debate. An assistant secretary of the Oxford Bible Society, he marked his deflection from the traditional line of that evangelical Association by offering about 250 amendments to the Secretary's annual report. He became intimate with Robert Wilberforce and Hurrell Froude, and Whately saw around him the signs of an incipient party of which he was himself unconscious. In Newman's opinion the true and primary author of this party was John Keble. His was the first name he heard spoken of with reverence at Oxford. Froude brought them together in 1828, and accounted it the best deed of his life. The 'Christian Year' had made its appearance the previous year. The two main truths which, in Newman's retrospect, it brought home

to him were the same that Butler had taught him—the sacramental doctrine of the symbolical character of all material things, and the doctrine of probability as the guide of life. But in Keble's view the firmness of assent which we give to religious doctrine is owing, not to the probabilities that introduce it, but to the living power of faith which accepts it. It was only a step from this to Keble's advice to Arnold, who had doubts about the Trinity, to preach it as if he believed it, and then he would believe it. Nothing was more central to Dr. Newman's religious experience than this doctrine of Keble, which afterwards he amplified and argued in his 'Grammar of Assent.' We have here the explanation of his easy swallowing of certain Romish doctrines which before his conversion he could not abide. He made the will the primary factor in belief. One of the first results of this doctrine was an inclination to accept the miracles of the patristic period.

With Hurrell Froude, who was a pupil of Keble, made of much coarser stuff, Newman lived on the most affectionate terms from 1829 until his death in 1836. Newman says that his power of entering into the mind of others did not equal his other gifts. It is evident that he had no such power. Brilliant and rash, he delighted most in what was most offensive to his friends. With charity for none, with malice towards all, might almost have been his motto. His influence upon Newman was so great that, if he had lived, they must both have gone to Rome much sooner than Newman went alone. He held, apparently, to every Roman Catholic tenet except the headship of the Pope. "He professed his admiration of the Roman Catholic Church and his hatred of the Reformers." He made Newman "look with admiration to the Church of Rome and in the same degree to dislike the Reformation." He "fixed deep in him the idea of devotion to the Blessed Virgin, and led him gradually to believe in the Real Presence." About 1830, in connection with his first serious work, 'The Arians of the Fourth Century,' came his conviction that antiquity is the true exponent of Christianity and the basis of the Church of England. Meantime the ferment in his mind was getting livelier every day. Political considerations added their quota of dissatisfaction and disgust. In France the Bourbons, "sovereigns who had the divine right of inheritance," had been cut adrift. In England the Whigs had come into power, and Lord Grey had told the Bishops to set their house in order. "The vital question was, How were we to keep the Church from being liberalized?" "She must be dealt with strongly, or she will be lost. There was need of a second Reformation." So far had Newman come when, in December, 1832, he set out for the Continent in company with Hurrell Froude. This journey was to him Luther's Wartburg, Paul's Arabia, a time for gathering up his energies for a great encounter. A hundred incidents reveal the temper of his mind. Such fierce thoughts had he against the liberals that in Algiers he would not even look at the tricolor, and in Paris would not go out at all. It being questioned whether a certain interpretation of Scripture was Christian, some one remarked that Dr. Arnold took it. "But," said Newman, "is *he* a Christian?" It was at Rome that he and Froude began to write the 'Lyra Apostolica.' They chose for a motto the words of Achilles returning to the battle: "You shall know the difference now that I am back again." To Cardinal Wiseman's wish that he would come again to Rome, Newman answered, "I have a work to do in England." The degree of his mental excitement must have been dangerous. He had spasms of emotion, passionate tears, actual fever, during which he cried, "I shall not die," and, convalescent, returned upon his reply to Cardinal Wiseman, "I have a work to do in England." His contributions to the 'Lyra' all tended the same way. Homeward bound, becalmed in the Gulf of Genoa, he wrote the most beautiful of these:

"Lead, kindly light, amid the encircling gloom,"

In later years he regarded the lines—

"I do not ask to see the distant scene;
One step enough for me,"

as one of many premonitions of his final rest. It is impossible to avoid the feeling that "the distant scene" already present in his mind was Rome; that he tried not to see it while step by step he took the way that brought it every day more near. The Sunday after his return, Keble preached a sermon on the national apostasy, and the Oxford movement had begun. So Newman always reckoned.

The assumptions and the inferences of the Oxford movement were as follows: There must be fundamental dogmas; there must be a visible church, with sacraments and rites, with bishops standing in the place of God, with power to order penance and enforce it. These dogmas were the dogmas of the prayer-book; this Church the Church of England; Liberalism was in its very nature anti-dogmatic; therefore, it must be crushed. The Roman Church claimed to be the Church in virtue of antiquity, its apostolic line, its sanctity. But the Church was necessarily one. If it was Roman, then it was not Anglican. Therefore the Romish Church must be opposed. Into this twofold battle Newman flung himself with fine hilarity. He had never felt so well in body or in mind. He had a joyous sense of power. His dash and his bravado were immense. The Oxford movement may be variously credited; the Tractarian movement was his own. He began it; he finished it. The tracts that signified were his without exception. He not only wrote the tracts, but he saw to it that they were scattered far and wide. He travelled much, talking with curates and rectors, urging them to go to work and purge the Church of evangelical and liberal taint. For the former he had only hatred; for the latter he had nothing but contempt. This is strong language, but his own. His language was, perhaps, a little stronger than he actually felt. In his first tract he said of the bishops that there could not be a more blessed termination of their course than the spoiling of their goods and martyrdom. As for heresiarchs, they "should meet with no mercy." To spare them was a false and dangerous pity. His position as Vicar of St. Mary's, to which he had attained in 1828, gave him a splendid opportunity to work his propaganda. In his first sermon after his return he declared that it would be "a gain to the country were it vastly more superstitious, more bigoted, more gloomy, more fierce in its religion." A friend wrote him to expostulate with him upon his course. He wrote him back that he would ride over him and his as Othniel over Chushan Rishathaim, King of Mesopotamia. In this there may have been "a mixture of fierceness and sport" which he predicates of this period. But there was no sportiveness in his refusing to speak with his brother; in his dissuading a lady from attending the marriage of a sister who had left the English Church. Newman's faith in personal influence was always strong. He had broken with Dr. Hawkins and lost his tutorship before he went abroad because he wanted his scholars given over into his exclusive charge. Now he wrote numberless epistles to young men, to women; and on the young men of Oxford he threw himself with an ardor and affection they could not resist. The movement grew and prospered. Its leader's presence was magnetic and electrical. Enthusiasts flocked to his standard. His tracts, his letters, and his fame, were everywhere. In 1836, Dr. Pusey, by whose name the movement was afterward called, added his strength, which was not little, to that of Newman and his earlier coadjutors. He had long since sown his wild oats of Germanism. And, though Newman overrates his function in the movement, it was certainly important. It was organizing and conservative. It was particularly the latter after Newman went to Rome. Newman having run the ship upon the Vatican, and got safe ashore with a few others, Pusey got her off and pacified the crew and passengers, and did his best to patch the leaks and make the paint and gear as beautiful as Cleopatra's barge. Still, often in the night there was a plunge, and in the morning it was discovered that somebody had gone over and been picked up by some Roman Catholic craft—(the last word is accidental, but it may be allowed to stand). But in 1836, when Newman welcomed Pusey to his side, he was full of confidence in the *Via Media*, as he called his middle path between Rome and Reason. He remained so till 1839. After that, one makeshift after another delayed the final consummation for six years. Since the appearance of the 'Apologia' it has been evident that he did his best to keep himself from Rome. For a long time before his intellect was satisfied, his heart was yearning for her peace. One by one his objections to her were removed till only the headship of the Pope and her worship of the saints and of the Virgin remained. But his own reverence for the Virgin and his own feeling for the saints were near to worship, and grew nearer all the time. The necessity of opposing Rome if he would defend the Anglican Church as *the* Church stirred him up to many accusations. But they were very wilful; he had no heart in them. Froude's dying adjuration for him to "stop cursing" Rome often recurred to him. But he did his worst in this direction in his 'Prophetical Office of the Church,' though even here it was not the substance of the Roman Catholic creed, but the authorized teaching and traditional action of the Church, that drew his fire. In the spring of 1839 his position in the Anglican movement was at its height, and the prospects of that movement were at their best. He was never so much admired and feared as then. In April he wrote an article for the British *Critic* proudly reviewing the past of the movement, rejoicing in its present strength, and contemplating its future with the fairest auguries. Practically, it was his valedictory. That summer, in the course of his studies, his confidence received a stunning blow.

The note of antiquity had been his stronghold of Anglicanism, and in studying the history of the fifth century he suddenly saw the sixteenth and the nineteenth reflected in his own face, and he was—a Monophysite! Rome was where she is now. The Anglican Church was in the position of the Eastern churches. The Protestants, only a little worse, were the Eutychians. "What was the use of continuing the controversy if, after all, I was forging arguments for Arius or Eutyches and turning devil's advocate against the much-enduring Athanasius and the majestic Leo?" As if this blow were not enough, there came another. This had spoiled the antiquity of the *Via Media*; the second spoiled its universality. This time it was the history of Donatism and a phrase of Augustine that brought him low: "*Securus judicat orbis terrarum.*" "By those great words of the ancient Father the theory of the *Via Media* was fairly pulverized." They proved that the deliberate judgment in which the whole Church rests is a final sentence against such portions of it as protest and secede. Then he fell back upon the note of sanctity, but with a heavy heart. He was no better than a Protestant. He might as well say there was no visible Church.

In the fall of 1841 two occurrences gave his slow-dying Anglicanism an effectual quietus. He had published "Tract 90." It argued that the articles were in substantial harmony with Roman Catholic doctrine. Immediately there was a chorus of indignant protestation. A demand was made for the suppression of the tract. Upon this Newman's Bishop did not insist; but there must be no more. Newman agreed, and gave up his place in the movement; but this did not satisfy. The Bishops charged upon him right and left. The establishment of a Jerusalem bishopric, inviting Lutherans and Calvinists to its wedding-feast, and telling them to never mind about the wedding-garment, was a blow struck at a man already down. The theory that the Anglican Church was a *branch* of the one true Church followed the *Via Media* into the valley of contempt. Off with the old, he was not yet on with the new. But Rome's apostolicity was

sound. There was no doubt about the sacred "imposition." Her catholicity he worked out in his 'Development of Doctrine,' a happy thought to justify the enormous difference of her later from her earlier creed. Meanwhile he lingered in "Samaria," as he called it—the notion that the Anglican Church might, like Samaria of old, be a subject of extraordinary grace. But it was a place of torment. In the autumn of 1843 he resigned his living at St. Mary's. He would fain have kept the curacy at Littlemore, hard by, but this was not allowed. He had previously made a formal retraction of all that he had ever said against the Roman Church. After his resignation he went down to Littlemore, a layman now, to die in peace to his old life and hope. But this was not permitted. The strife of tongues reached him in his retreat. He was in league with Rome; he was starting a monastery. "Why doesn't he go over?" was the shout of the pack upon him in full cry. On the night of October 8, 1845, Father Dominick, whom he had sent for, came to Littlemore, and of him Newman requested "admission into the one fold of Christ."

The rest is quickly told. He was immediately received into the Roman Catholic Church and ordained a priest by Cardinal Wiseman, who in 1848 placed him at the head of a newly established oratory near Birmingham. There he remained until his death, with the exception of four years spent in Dublin as rector of the Roman Catholic University, a fruitless undertaking. Whately was then Archbishop of Dublin, but the old friends never met; or, if they did, were mutually repellent. After his return to Edgbaston a school in connection with the oratory was established for the education of young English converts in the details of their new faith. His relations with the brothers of his house and the boys of his school were most affectionate. He lived with them a quiet and a busy life. Rising at five in the morning, he gave the first two hours of every day to private devotion; mass at seven o'clock; at eight breakfast in silence, but with his morning mail to batten on besides the frugal meal; then five or six hours of work alone in his own room, well stocked with books; later a good walk, his boys entreating, "Father, may I go, too?"—the common dinner at seven, silent, but for the lector's voice reading the Vulgate and less serious matter, the Cardinal serving in his turn, white-aproned for the task; next a discussion, each brother ending with "I speak under correction"; then a social hour, and finally more work extending far into the night. In all the Roman calendar there is no more cheerful saint than St. Philip Neri, whose patronage the oratory ostensibly enjoys, and his character would seem to have determined that of the brethren of his rule. We have the word of the Cardinal that in his new home he had perfect peace and contentment and never one doubt. Not but that certain difficulties remained, but "ten thousand difficulties do not make one doubt." Having accepted the Church as a whole, he found no difficulty in believing anything she taught—transubstantiation, the worship of Mary and the saints, the efficacy of relics, the winking of Madonnas, and all similar miracles. The most serious disturbance of Dr. Newman's peace came in 1864, when Mr. Kingsley brought against him a railing accusation of intellectual dishonesty and falsity. His answer is embodied in his 'Apologia pro Vitâ suâ,' which has been more widely read than any of his other books, and with general agreement that the demolition of Mr. Kingsley is complete. But the chapters in which Mr. Kingsley is not named, containing an account of his religious opinions till he went to Rome, constitute its greater value. The decree of the Virgin's immaculate conception in 1854 found Dr. Newman ready to welcome it; that of the Pope's infallibility in 1871 he thought "untimely," but brought his shrewdness to its justification after the event. In 1877 he was elected Honorary Fellow of Oriel, and visited Oxford, which he had not seen for more than thirty years, meeting Dr. Pusey and other fellow-soldiers in his early battles. In 1879 he was made Cardinal-Deacon by Leo XIII., an honor which permitted him to keep the even tenor of his way at Edgbaston.

When, in 1877, a collected edition of Dr. Newman's works was published, it numbered thirty-four volumes, and subsequent matter, with some then omitted, would make at least a half-dozen more. They represent various phases of his development and of his intellectual energy. There are many volumes of his sermons, and there is much in them that transcends all differences of creed and sect. That he was a very great preacher no one is likely to deny. The moral intensity of his preaching was its most piercing note. Its greatest attraction, after the general beauty of his style, was the wealth of correspondence it drew out between Biblical and traditional persons and events and the immediate situation. His style was at its best in his sermons, but nothing he could write was safe from its all-conquering charm. The 'Apologia' has passages of unrivalled splendor. The 'Grammar of Assent' has a more even flow, but that, too, has its swelling waves. Everywhere there is a wonderful clarity, an energy, a cumulative force, a resonance, that of themselves would justify the claim that is made for it of being the best style of the century. But it has, besides a music in its cadences, a felicity of word and phrase, a passion and tenderness, which compel our admiration and sometimes go nigh to stop the heart. If splendor of expression carried with it, as Emerson averred, the proof of that contained, Newman's doctrines would all be proven. His poetry, which has some excellent lines and stanzas, is less poetical generally than his prose. His "Dream of Gerontius," which many value highly as a vision of things after death, was accidentally saved from his waste-basket by a friendly hand, so that apparently he undervalued it as few have ever done. There are varying accounts of Dr. Newman's manner as a preacher. The truth would seem to be that it had a nameless fascination in despite of awkwardness and other limitations. Jonathan Edwards did not stick closer to his manuscript than he.

Turning from the more outward aspect to the quality of Dr. Newman's mind, we must account it more remarkable for its acuteness than for its breadth. As a dialectician his superior would be hard to find. No man could argue a foregone conclusion with greater ingenuity. He dearly loved a paradox, and was never happier than when arguing that the Roman Catholic opposition to free thought had been more provocative of it than any other cause, seeing that it does "from opposition grow." There was certainly a lack of largeness in his mental operations. He seldom looked at a great matter in its entirety; concerned himself not with the forest, but with the trees. If he could choose, he always met an enemy in detail. On his way from Anglicanism to Rome the question always was how this particular agreed with some other; there were no broad comparisons. We seldom find him asking simply, "What is true?" He is generally asking, "What can be made of this or that? How can it be held on to consistently with something else?" Nothing if not logical, he was ever too intent on drawing his conclusions to notice whether or not his premises were sound. Morally as well as intellectually, intensity was his mask. His moral judgments were not broad. His zeal for personal religion made him contemptuous of nearly all the virtues by which society exists. It is not difficult to solve the riddle of his ecclesiastical progression. The appearance of the world convinced him of some "terrible aboriginal calamity." If there were a God, he would break through the accustomed order of the world and "introduce a power invested with infallibility in religious matters." Where was this power? Not in Protestantism, surely; not in Anglicanism, as he found out in the course of time; not in the Bible, which "the wild living intellect of man" can interpret in more ways than one. The Greek Church being beneath his notice, it must be in the Roman Catholic Church. She alone claimed it, and with sufficient ingenuity he could find in her the notes of apostolicity, catholicity, sanctity, that were essential to the proving of her claim. That Dr. Newman, seeing some things so clearly and so blind to others, found this result sufficient for his mind and heart is not surprising. That few have followed where he led is not so. Some of them have not been sure about the "terrible aboriginal calamity." Others have not been about the various notes. They have missed in Dr. Newman the essence of pure thought. They have found him always mixing argument with antiquity and tradition. They have wondered why, the soul of man being equal to the sure knowledge of God and immortality, it could not, without miraculous interposition, attain to lesser things. If only Dr. Newman could have started with Calvin's doctrine of the natural intellect as wholly imbecile, this rejoinder would have been averted. But he needed the initial postulate of God. And farther, some have asked, if reason is adequate to discover the true Church, how is it possible that it should not be adequate to test the doctrines of this church?—a much less difficult matter, it would seem.

The religious history of the century has had no more interesting person than Dr. Newman; no career more picturesque than his or more dramatic. But when we come to measure his influence upon life and character, we are obliged to hope that in a thousand intimate ways he accomplished more than he did in any obvious result. The Tractarian movement of 1833-'41 midway of the century became the Puseyite movement, a much smaller thing than Newman had imagined; and later ritualism, which is smaller still. There has been a great increase of order and sobriety and æsthetic purpose in the establishment because of Newman's work. There must have been more, too, of spiritual aspiration. But the liberalism against which Newman summoned all his powers has steadily increased. It is in all the universities, in all the churches. As Newman feared, his secession made more converts from his "Anglicanism" to liberalism than from that to Rome. To many he was a warning; not to many an example. His insistence that between Rome and atheism we must choose (unjustified by his own fundamental postulates) has sent more to liberalism than to Rome. The doctrine of evolution has taken away for many the foundation on which his whole structure was built up—the "terrible aboriginal calamity." Meantime the political order of society has been advancing upon lines which, to his thinking, as both Anglican and Protestant, "took hold on hell," and its social order has been ameliorated by the exercise of those virtues of sobriety and industry and self-respect which he so heartily despised. The final impression that he leaves upon our minds is that of unreality. His world was one of speculation and tradition, not one of breathing fact. The saints of long ago were more alive for him than the men and women of to-day. His intellectual preëminence in the Roman Catholic Church would have been more significant of his commanding stature if he had been less solitary there in his intellectual pursuits and aspirations. His life, viewed in connection with that of his brother Francis William, is an impressive lesson touching respect for honest difference of opinion, to which the Cardinal did not attain.

PHILOSOPHY ON THE QUAI VOLTAIRE.

PARIS, July 14, 1890.

THE Quai Voltaire, as every book-buyer knows, extends for a mile or more along the Seine, and the second-hand books are displayed in boxes upon the wall, which are provided with covers as a shelter from rain and for protection during the night. The books are arranged so that the titles are easily seen and that they themselves may be easily examined. The Quai is a better place than many of the stores for picking up a rarity, as too often the books are not easily accessible in the latter and cannot be examined at all. I have seen them stacked in some stores in great piles, so that neither the buyer nor the seller can know what

they contain, and I have not been able to obtain a complete catalogue in any case, and in some of the largest collections none at all. Still, the rarest books are generally placed where they can be seen, and it seems that the stores along the Quai are the owners of the books on the wall running along the banks of the Seine.

I had been trying for a long time to get a copy of Bentham's 'Deontology,' but had met everywhere with the response that it was out of print. An appeal to the second-hand book-dealers was equally unsuccessful. By a happy chance I picked up a copy on the Quai Voltaire for a franc and a half, printed on fine linen paper, but with the binding in poor condition. I had only to rebind it to make it as good as new, and to congratulate myself on a rare piece of good fortune. I also saw a copy of Bentham's 'Treatise on Legislation,' in three volumes, well-bound, and offered at forty centimes a volume, or twenty-five cents for the whole. It was the edition of Dumont, and was not long in being picked up by some one. A still more interesting case is that of DeStutt-Tracy's 'Ideology.' He was one of the coterie of philosophers who helped give a certain direction to the philosophic and the political destinies of France at the time of the Revolution. The little book which I was fortunate enough to discover was the first of three parts of a work designed as a text for the new and higher system of public schools established by the Revolutionary Government. DeStutt-Tracy signs himself "citoyen," and the book is dated in the year IX. The work was not completed until 1804. The first part appeared, as I have indicated, in the year 1800. It made no special reputation, but is interesting for its attempt to put the mental sciences on the same plane with the languages in the curricula of the time. The views expressed are those of Condillac and the coterie of philosophers connected with the 'Encyclopædia.' But the remarkable feature of the work is the skill with which the author conceals the consequences of the mental analysis which he introduces into the mind of the student. His book is not a great one, but has an historic interest. I obtained it for fifty centimes.

A more important illustration is afforded by Laromiguière, two finely bound volumes of whose 'Lectures on the Faculties of the Soul' I purchased for eighty centimes. They are bound in gilt-edge leather of the best quality, with good print and linen paper, and are dated 1820. There were three other copies on the Quai, not so well bound as this, and with poorer print, dated respectively 1815, 1818, and 1823, and considerably worn. Those of 1815 and 1818 were placed at 6 francs. But what is the interest of the volumes? Laromiguière was not a great man, and is scarcely, if at all, known outside of France; what reputation he did have was soon eclipsed by Cousin and overlooked by those who surrendered wholly to the influence of Condillac. Yet Th. Ribot, editor of the *Revue Philosophique*, and well known in scientific and philosophic circles for his works on 'Heredity,' 'Attention,' 'Maladies of the Will,' and several other books, seems to have borrowed some of his fundamental ideas from this wholly forgotten author, although I see no traces of acknowledgment. Laromiguière had made an important addition to the psychology of Condillac. He insisted upon the distinction between the *active* and the *passive* powers of the mind, assigning a large and important influence to attention—in fact, practically laying down the simple theory that sensation gives us the material, and attention constructs it into the abstract forms of knowledge. Students of philosophy after Kant will appreciate the significance of this; I cannot dwell upon it here. Now, it is extremely interesting to find that the apparent novelty of a recognized savant is drawn from the dust of a wholly forgotten author. Thus the appearance of originality may be secured by resurrecting the ideas of a buried philosophy, and this in turn discovered for the small sum of sixteen cents.

Again, I was fortunate enough to pick up a copy of the 'Port Royal Logic' for a franc. In spite of its fame, the book is remarkably rare. I have never been so much as able to examine it in any library with which I am familiar in America. It is, no doubt, to be found in the principal libraries to which I have not had access, but it is so rare, in spite of a translation (by De Morgan, I think) perhaps forty years ago, that the English student can hardly hope to get a copy of it except as he may happen upon it as I have done. Its chief historical interest is too well known to require any remarks; but there are some characteristics about the book which even the historians of philosophy have not mentioned, and which throw much light upon the intellectual occupations of the age in which it was composed. It appeared towards the close of the seventeenth century, and contains what to-day would be the last thing to find its way into a work on logic, viz., a homiletic chapter on morals and religion, and another discussing the Eucharist and Transubstantiation, which makes the most tremendous metaphysical doctrines turn on the reference of the Latin demonstrative *hoc*. This, like nearly all the illustrations, shows how everything was made to serve the theological dogmas of the time, while it is clear from the tone of the book that the spectre of scepticism is flitting in the background. Descartes had raised what he could not lay.

Another valuable work was picked up for two francs. It consisted of two octavo volumes of over 400 pages each, with good paper and print and well bound, although a little worn. It was 'L'Esprit' of Helvetius, in many respects the Bentham of France, although a little more consequent than the great Englishman. Students of the history of ethics know the value of the work, and I need say no more about it. Concerning the Quai Voltaire itself I will only remark further the very interesting and perhaps significant fact, that the religious literature for sale on the Quai is almost exclusively of the old régime and Roman Catholic in its character. It generally sells for little more than its worth as old paper, or perhaps as a souvenir of a particular age, kind of print, or style of binding. Protestant books are as scarce as Catholic books would be in England and America. Of modern books, science, history, literature, and politics are the most numerous, and these of the radical free-thought temper. Of classic religious authors, Bossuet and Chateaubriand are the most frequent. They still have purchasers, but others are much more neglected. Works of Voltaire and Rousseau are perhaps the most numerous, unless they are rivalled by Molière, Racine, and Boileau. Modern popular writers are not so often met with.

J. H. Hyslop.

A BYZANTINE STUDY.

Paris, July 25, 1890.

No part of history has been more neglected than the history of the Byzantine Empire. This prodigious monarchy, formed of the most composite elements, issued from the old Roman Empire, placed between Eastern and Western Europe, always occupied with struggling against the barbarians, and becoming itself half-barbarian, is almost absolutely unknown. Strangely enough, it has been brought into notice lately by one of our lightest dramatists, M. Sardou. His drama called "Theodora" is certainly not without merit; it owed the greatest part of its success to the enchanting acting of Sarah Bernhardt, but it denoted a close acquaintance with the most important documents which concern the history of the Byzantine Empire, and with its strange and corrupt civilization. M. Gustave Schlumberger, a young member of our Institute, who belongs to the division called "Inscriptions et belles-lettres," has had the curiosity to choose an historical incident in the second half of the tenth century, and to group around a central figure all he knows of the greatest epoch of the Byzantine Empire, from the double point of view of its military power and of the perfect development of Greek art and civilization in the Middle Ages. The figure which has attracted his notice is the Emperor Nicephorus Phocas, an illustrious captain of Constantinople, who spent his lifetime in wars against the enemies of the Empire. Gibbon has written a few brilliant pages on this period; but they are mere sketches. M. Rambaud has made a remarkable study of the tenth century at Byzantium in the time of Constantine Porphyrogenitus; he has well understood that Byzantium was something *sui generis*, not merely the continuation of ancient Rome. M. Schlumberger has had, however, very few modern works to consult; he has been obliged to refer to the original documents, which are unfortunately rare, Byzantine, Arab, Armenian, Russian chronicles.

Nicephorus Phocas was a soldier; he achieved his reputation in a great expedition against the Island of Crete, which had become the headquarters of the Saracen pirates. "Of a profoundly mystical temper," says M. Schlumberger, "like so many of his Oriental contemporaries, but at the same time a man of violent passions, generally well kept down, but sometimes abandoned to their free flow, of a warm nature, but simple and primitive, severe but never cruel without necessity, of austere habits, which bordered on asceticism, when he was not conquered by passion, Nicephorus appears, at least in the first period of his existence, as a sort of soldier-monk." The expedition against Crete was one of the greatest efforts of the Greek Empire; we have very precise documents on the preparation of it, as to the strength of the fleet and of the army, and the singular composition of this army.

M. Schlumberger gives curious details about the ravages committed by the pirates of the time. There is, for instance, an account of the sacking of Thessalonica, the orthodox city, the second city of the Empire, in 904. The Arab pirates, headed by a renegade, destroyed completely this magnificent Greek town; 22,000 young men and women were taken away as slaves. The division of the spoils took place at Khandax in Crete. Khandax was a permanent slave-market. Imagine "the Saracen population of this city of brigands running to the shore, animated with a savage joy at the prospect of such incredible spoils, the women and children applauding the victory, the yells of the negroes, the sound of the cymbals and the trumpets, the terror of the captives. What a picture to paint on this admirable coast of Crete under this burning sky! Not one of the captives had even an incipient beard! Of so many thousands of women, not one who was not young!"

It is easy to imagine what was the popularity

of Nicephorus Phocas after he had conducted successfully the expedition against Crete and punished the people of Khandax. The departure of the immense fleet is admirably described by M. Schlumberger, with more color than is usually found in historical works; but he has carefully studied in the old manuscripts all the details of the costumes of the time, the forms of the ships. He gives curious particulars about the Greek fire, which was a terrible instrument of naval warfare in that age, and which modern chemists, with all their science, have not yet been able to imitate well. A number of pictures representing warriors and incidents of war have been taken from the old Greek manuscripts of our National Library; the engines employed in the sieges have been reproduced from an Arab manuscript. Khandax was besieged, stormed, and emptied of the spoils of a thousand Christian cities, accumulated within its walls by the pirates of the Archipelago. Phocas was surnamed by his army the Victorious, and ever after preserved the name. Crete never fell again into the hands of the Arabs. The Byzantines retained it for two centuries; it was given later to the Venetians, who kept it until it fell into the hands of the Ottomans. The next Eastern war will probably be the signal for the definitive deliverance of the Christian island.

Phocas had a triumphal entry into Byzantium on his return. The "Book of Ceremonies" gives the whole "programme of the ceremonies to be performed during a solemn triumph in the Forum of the Augusteum," commonly called the Agora. It was a great spectacle provided by the Basileus. Nicephorus afterwards campaigned in Cilicia and in Syria. The siege of Aleppo was the end of this campaign; the great city fell before him, and his army avenged the wrongs of three centuries. The splendid mosques were burned and demolished, the women and the young men were sent to Constantinople as slaves.

The Emperor Romanus II. died at this moment; his wife Theophane, who had only young children, entered into secret negotiations with Nicephorus. The conqueror of Crete and of Syria had many partisans; he arrived with his army before the capital. A popular sedition arose, and finally, after a long struggle, Nicephorus was proclaimed Basileus, made a triumphal entry, and received the crown. Theophane was the real inspirer and promoter of this revolution. She was young, full of ambition, and wished to reign under the name of Nicephorus. He was in love with her; she was extremely handsome. "It was a secret to nobody in Byzantium that the charms of the Empress had produced a deep impression on the simple soul of the austere Nicephorus. The crowned siren, whom he loved so much afterwards, had already profoundly agitated this violent nature, made of exalted passions, maintained with difficulty under the rigid rôle of an excessive piety and chastity." Theophane is the heroine of the drama told by M. Schlumberger. We must imagine her in her great ceremonial costume, like that of the Empress Irene, the second wife of Alexis Comnenus, in the beautiful enamel which forms a part of the celebrated *Pala d'oro* now to be seen on the great altar of Saint Mark's in Venice—sceptre in hand, with long embroidered draperies, a crown with triple points and flowing fillets.

From the year 963, Nicephorus became *autocrator* of the Romans and Regent of the Empire in the name of the two young Basileis, the children of Theophane. He was fifty years old, of an olive complexion, with long black hair, stout, very muscular, a sort of Hercules, and, as we have said, half monk, half soldier. He had relations with the builder of the St. Laura Convent on Mount Athos. After having first shut up Theophane in a convent, Nicephorus, who himself led the life of a cenobite in the palace at Byzantium, sent for her, and, throwing off the mask, and unable longer to resist his passion, married her. Was he simply carried away by a blind love? Did he wish to improve his political situation by this union with the mother of the two young legitimate sovereigns? The Patriarch tried to oppose this union, but finally he had to submit.

"This strange man, half soldier, half ascetic, this devout warrior already old, who had sworn, since the death of his parents, to abstain from sexual commerce, who had sworn never to eat any meat, who wore on his skin the hard cilice of his uncle, the old solitary, Michael Maleïnos, dead in the odor of sanctity; this iron man, whose confessors tried in vain to moderate his austerity, this man, accustomed to live in camps, whose habits were rude, united himself to this refined woman, delicate, exquisite, an enchantress in every respect, but profoundly corrupt, without faith and without love."

It was the story of Samson and Delilah over again, the story of Hercules and Dejanira. The details are changed, the setting is different. M. Schlumberger very cleverly reconstitutes the scene of this extraordinary Byzantine union; archæology becomes in his hands the servant of psychology. Nothing can be more operatic, if I may use the expression, than his description of the marriage of Nicephorus and Theophane. Nicephorus swore on the holiest relics that his own children, if he had any, should only reign after the children of Theophane and Romanus II. The Patriarch would not allow the Emperor to enter a sanctuary, hidden behind the silver doors of the *iconostase*. The canons of the Church forbade it for a year to those who had contracted a second marriage. The bold soldier had to submit to the will of the old and fanatical priest. Theophane and her husband received this insult before the eyes of a whole people. It did not prevent them from holding their court a moment afterwards. The procession of all the men passed before the autocrator, the women before Theophane. This daughter of an innkeeper, whom her beauty and her wit had made the real mistress of an immense empire, sat on a golden throne in the gyneceum, surrounded by an army of eunuchs, with painted face, a gown embroidered in gold, like an idol, her shoulders covered with a heavy mantle having great particolor squares crusted with pearls and rubies; on her head she had the diadem with a triple row of pearls.

The reign of Nicephorus was troubled with perpetual wars. His popularity did not last long; he was hard and avaricious, he levied excessive taxes. He was very partial to his soldiers, but treated the population with much severity, even cruelty. He soon was obliged to fortify his own palace, and the hostility against him became general. Theophane saw the end coming, and she precipitated it. She had never felt any love for her husband; she entered into a conspiracy against him with a bold warrior called John Zimisces, who had become her lover. On a certain day the conspirators entered the palace in disguise in women's clothes. Theophane hid them in the gyneceum. At five o'clock in the morning Zimisces arrived, found the Emperor asleep on a tiger's skin, and fell on him, sword in hand. His accomplices finished the old man while Theophane waited behind a door. So fell, at the age of fifty-seven, the man who had gloriously defended the Byzantine Empire against its numerous enemies, who had reëstablished the imperial armies and inflicted terrible blows on the Saracens. He had been less fortunate on the Danube, but, had he lived longer, he might also on that side have given greater strength to his monarchy. His Armenian murderer, who became his successor, continued his policy, and M. Schlumberger will probably give us some day the history of his reign, as well as of that of Basil II., who reigned after the usurper.

Correspondence.

THE SILVER NOTES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The second section of the Silver Bill says: "That the Treasury notes issued in accordance with the provisions of this act shall be redeemable on demand in coin at the Treasury of the United States or at the office of any Assistant Treasurer of the United States, and when so redeemed may be reissued; *but no greater or less amount of such notes shall be outstanding at any time than the cost of the silver bullion and the standard silver dollars coined therefrom then held in the Treasury purchased by such notes.*" And again: "That upon demand of the holder of any of the Treasury notes herein provided for, the Secretary of the Treasury shall, under such regulations as he may prescribe, *redeem such notes in gold or silver coin at his discretion.*"

How can these two clauses be reconciled? If the Treasurer should buy $5,000,000 worth of silver bullion and issue Treasury notes of an equal amount in payment therefor, and then redeem the $5,000,000 certificates with gold, there would be that amount of silver in the Treasury vaults and no Treasury notes outstanding.

I will say further that it does not seem probable that redemption in silver will be accepted on these notes to any great extent at present, as the Treasurer would be giving only about 85 cents worth for a dollar as the market now stands. W. M. H.

St. Louis, August 4, 1890.

[The probable explanation of the mystery is that the word "outstanding" means out of the issuing department of the Treasury. Thus, in the last annual report of the Treasurer of the United States, he reported as "outstanding" June 30, 1889, $262,629,746 of silver certificates. He reported exactly this amount of standard silver dollars in the Treasury. He reported also $5,487,181 of silver certificates in the Treasury, this latter sum being a portion of his assets. From which it would appear that silver certificates once issued are considered "outstanding," although they may have been taken back, being held by the Treasurer subject to reissue.

As long as the Secretary maintains the two kinds of dollars, silver and gold, at par with each other, it is erroneous to speak of one of them as being worth only eighty-five cents "as the market now stands." The reason why redemption in silver will not be generally accepted is, that silver is an inconvenient thing to carry around. The probability is, that when the Secretary is called on to redeem any of the new Treasury notes, he will give a check for the amount, drawn on the Sub-Treasury, and this check will turn up at the Clearing-house and be settled for

like all other demands on the Treasury. Of course it will be settled at gold value as long as the Secretary has gold to settle with or the means of getting it.—Ed. Nation.]

THE KITTERY NAVY-YARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In President Arthur's time the condition of things at the Kittery Navy-yard attracted my attention. The resolution lately introduced in Congress leads me to think that the following extracts from my note-book of that time may be of general interest. Each story was vouched for by a respectable citizen of Portsmouth or Kittery. Beyond this I cannot assert their truth; but I am sure that they are typical of hundreds of stories for many years current in this region.

(1.) An engineer in the Navy declined to employ at the Kittery yard an incompetent man sent to him by a local Republican politician. The politician sent back the man, with a vague threat that unless he was employed something would happen. The engineer repeated his refusal: in a few days he was ordered to sea for three years.

(2.) An Irish Democrat, wishing a recommendation to the yard, promised a Republican citizen of Portsmouth, who did not happen to approve the plan, that if the citizen would get him work in the yard, he would henceforth be a good Republican.

(3.) A Kittery man, unskilled, was offered $2.50 a day for work as carpenter at the Navy-yard. Normal wages for skilled labor at that time were $1.50 to $2.00. He demanded $3 and got it.

(4.) About the same time a laborer at the yard was paid a full day's wages for carrying three boards from one part of the yard to another.

(5.) A Kittery man offered work at the yard declined it, on the ground that he would rather wait till election day and see what his vote was worth in cash. On election day there were votes enough without his. He received nothing. This story was current as "a good joke on the man."

(6.) A widow in Portsmouth was offered $150 if she would prevent her three sons from voting the Republican ticket. She accepted the offer. When the election came, the money was unpaid. The indignant sons declined to vote at all.

These current stories throw light on what first directed my attention to the matter. I saw three laborers working together—two admirably, the third with irritating laziness. I asked a local farmer what the matter was with the lazy man. "He's a Republican," was the answer, "spoiled by the yard."

Faithfully yours, B. W.

New Castle, N. H., August 3, 1890.

THE KENTUCKY CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Just forty years ago, a very able body of men gathered at Frankfort and formulated the third and present Constitution of Kentucky, a very lengthy document, which, in the main part, sets forth with remarkable particularity the duties of State and county officers, etc.; in the Bill of Rights forever abolishes deodands, and takes a general crack at creation; but nowhere contains a single word in regard to railroad or other corporations, or anything else more modern than the times of Jefferson.

The secret of the retention of this antiquated muniment is easily fathomed by reading together articles x and xii, the first containing an adamantine foundation for an iron-clad slave code; the other requiring for any the slightest amendment three votes by three distinct Legislatures — meeting biennially — and three votes by the people, any one of which failing, the whole series must be begun *ab initio*. This mishap has occurred, indeed, more than once.

By the strange irony of fate, this slavery provision—mighty enough to defeat the renowned and idolized Henry Clay for a seat in the Convention, and strong enough to draw after it as a safeguard this tremendous law, not for but against amendment—is the only clause which will certainly disappear from the new Constitution.

One hundred delegates were elected last Monday to meet in September and make our fourth Constitution. Many able men among them; but they were elected on party lines—about 85 out of 100, Democrats. Hardly a dozen candidates, therefore, thought it necessary to allude, during the campaign, to their probable courses and votes, if elected; speeches ran, instead, on the good or bad "Democracy" of themselves and their opponents—who taught them the word?—and whether the other man had not at some remote period, by the devil's bidding, voted for "local option"—in one instance, as it appeared, through the mistake of an election clerk. Under such circumstances, the strongest and best Mugwump of '84, who had stuck ever since, like the *Nation*, to Democracy and Reform, but who voted for Frémont and Lincoln before he voted for Cleveland, would have stood as much chance for a Democratic nomination as a New York alderman for the eternal bliss of Paradise.

There will probably be, however, at least two good changes in the new Constitution:

First. The appellate courts will be reformed, making the judges elective by the entire State instead of by districts. The people do not desire an appointive judiciary, and probably would not ratify a constitution providing one.

Second. The people demand the Australian ballot system and the real freedom it brings (the present Constitution establishes a *viva-voce* vote at all State elections). The probable effect of this reform is rather overestimated by the politicians. I heard one delegate-elect remark that he would vote for the ballot in deference to Public Will—the capitals are mine—but he solemnly prophesied that within three years the State would be Republican; to which the by-standing politicians sadly murmured, Amen! As the Democratic majority, on Monday, was 45,000, a fulfilment of this prophecy would be a curious commentary on the timidity of our "unarmed Kentuckians."

The Convention will have before it an excellent model in the Louisville Election Law, which was drawn up by its authors partly to that end, and has worked very smoothly for the last two years. A. L. D.

Louisville, Ky., August 6, 1890.

THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT IN TENNESSEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The first election in this State under the Australian-ballot system took place on August 7, and thoroughly confirms the results as announced from other States. The election was everywhere orderly. The ward-politician who has heretofore surrounded the polling-places was absent, and the voters, without molestation, cast their ballots and retired at once. The most notable effect of the law was in Hamilton County, in which the city of Chattanooga is. A corrupt ring has for years been in control of the offices of that county, and thoroughly dominated its county politics, Under the operation of the law, the good citizens of the place were able to defeat every objectionable candidate that the ring proposed. Approbation of the law is universal, and its extension to the whole State may be looked for. It is now applicable only to cities of over 9,000 inhabitants, the places where corruption has been flagrant, and was adopted by the Legislature as an experiment in the hope of correcting those evils. Gustavus.

Nashville, Tenn., August 9, 1890.

THE ALLIANCE IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the editorial on "The Alliance Movement" in the *Nation* of July 31, 1890, it was said: "In Arkansas, however, it is the Republicans who have decided to cast their fortunes with the Alliance, having endorsed Mr. Fitzer, its gubernatorial candidate."

Mr. Fizer (not Fitzer) is the candidate of the Union-Labor party so called, an organization which sprang up two years ago as a relic of the old Greenback party. Some of your readers may have noticed that in 1888 it had a candidate for the Presidency in the field, a Mr. Streeter. The candidate on the same ticket for Vice-President, Mr. Cunningham, is a citizen of this place. The party has never had any thorough organization in this State, and it is difficult to tell what it represents. It is composed chiefly of disappointed Democratic office-seekers and political nondescripts generally. Its platform this year favors none of the measures you mention as being supported by the Alliance except the governmental ownership of railroads.

In 1888, when the Republicans, the Democrats, and the Union-Laborites each had Presidential tickets in the field, the last-named polled only about 10,000 votes.

The Alliance is very strong in this State, comprising perhaps three-fifths of the voters. They have never gone into politics as a body. They have no tickets out in any county in the State, so far as I know. They have so far seemed content with the present party organizations, and are chiefly Democrats. The Republicans, being in a hopeless minority, in 1888 "endorsed" the Union-Labor candidate. They have this year repeated this endorsement. —Very respectfully, T. D. Crawford.

Little Rock, Ark., August 6, 1890.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of July 31, in an editorial on "The Alliance Movement," you say: "In Alabama the old-line Democrats have sought self-preservation in the same way. Colonel Thomas Hardman, their candidate for Governor, has withdrawn from the canvass, leaving the field clear for Colonel W. J. Northern, the Alliance candidate." This is a mistake. The Democratic Convention held at Montgomery, some two months since, nominated Colonel Thomas Jones, a prominent and active lawyer of the Montgomery bar, and on Monday, August 4, he was elected by a large majority Governor of Alabama. The Alliance candidate before the Convention was the Hon. Reuben Kolb, the present State Commissioner of Agriculture.—Yours truly,

J. W. Horton.

Birmingham, Ala., August 6, 1890.

[By a slip of the pen we wrote "Alabama" in place of "Georgia."—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial on the Alliance movement in the *Nation*, No. 1309, you say: "Having refused to endorse the Sub-Treasury Bill, Senator Vance is no longer fitted, in the estimation of the Alliance men, to represent the State of North Carolina at Washington, and if they can elect enough members of the Legislature, they propose to displace him." This statement is misleading. A month ago the *Progressive Farmer*, which is the official organ of the North Carolina Farmers' Alliance, and whose editor, L. L. Polk, is also the President of the National Farmers' Alliance, printed an editorial which, after criticising Vance's position on the Sub-Treasury Bill, closed with the following significant paragraph: "The moral of it all is this: We must go back to the old way of electing farmers to Congress and the United States Senate. It becomes more and more apparent that those we call our friends are our enemies. Begin this year. Delays are dangerous." The *Progressive Farmer* circulates largely among farmers. They represent the one great interest of the State. They compose the rank and file of the Democratic party, and control its action when they desire. The editorial was a signal for Democratic county conventions to express their confidence in the faithfulness and honesty of Vance. More than this, many Alliances have done the same, some saying that they "regret," and others that they "heartily disapprove," the criticism of the *Progressive Farmer*. Prominent Alliance men declare that although they dislike Vance's position on the Sub-Treasury Bill, they favor and will fight for his return to the Senate. Some counties have even instructed their candidates for the Legislature to vote for him, and candidates have found it a drawing card to declare for him in their public utterances.

There are a few demagogues in the Alliance in North Carolina who would care neither for the Democratic party nor the State if by that means they could accomplish their own advancement, but they are few; they cannot dictate the policy of the Alliance, and this organization, if its words and actions are any criterion, are for Vance by a very large majority. No one has suggested a successor to Vance should he be retired, but it has been hinted that the editor of the *Progressive Farmer* would not be adverse to Senatorial honors.

The real fight in North Carolina is for the Congressmen. The Alliance has captured two of the five already nominated, and will probably get two if not three of the remaining four. This struggle is within the party, and the utmost harmony prevails where the nomination has been made. The Alliance presents certain demands to all candidates; some have refused to sign them, but that this does not mean political death is shown by the renomination of Congressman Bunn of the Fourth District after he had refused to sign the demands and when the other candidates had done so.

Stephen B. Weeks.

Chapel Hill, N. C., August 9, 1890.

Notes.

The anonymous story which has been appearing in the *Century*, called 'The Anglomaniacs,' will be issued in book form in October by the Cassell Publishing Co. They will also bring out 'Society as I Have Found It,' by Ward McAllister, in two editions, one limited and *de luxe*.

Ginn & Co. will have ready next month Shelley's 'Defense of Poetry,' edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale; and the second volume of the selections in prose and verse, 'Open, Sesame!' edited for committing to memory by Mrs. B. W. Bellamy and M. W. Goodwin.

D. Appleton & Co. announce that the third volume of Mr. McMaster's 'History of the People of the United States' is so far advanced as to be likely to appear in the course of the winter. It begins with the Congressional debate on the constitutionality of the Louisiana purchase, and closes with the War of 1812.

Macmillan & Co. have in press for immediate publication a new volume of stories by Rudyard Kipling, uniform in size with 'Plain Tales from the Hills.'

'Valve Gears,' by Prof. H. W. Spangler of the University of Pennsylvania, is in the press of John Wiley & Sons.

'A Brief Course in the Elements of Chemistry,' by Prof. James H. Shepard, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Sir George Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians (1450-1889)' is now rounded out by an Index to the four volumes prepared by Mrs. Adela H. Wodehouse, herself one of the contributors to the Dictionary (Macmillan & Co.). The Index comprises, of course, all the titles of the main work, but also selects from the articles names and topics which would otherwise elude research. It is followed by a catalogue of the articles contributed by each writer in the Dictionary. Dr. Grove's list proves that the editorial office was with him no sinecure: his articles fill two pages of fine print. Mr. W. H. Husk comes next, Mr. W. S. Rockstro third, and Mr. J. A. Fuller-Maitland fourth; but all are far behind their chief. Mrs. Walter Carr was the most abundant contributor of her sex, which has five representatives on the list.

The companionable little series known as "The Stott Library" (Macmillan) began the republication of Montaigne's Essays in Florio's version, under the supervision of Mr. J. H. McCarthy. A second pair of volumes, comprising the Second Book, have now appeared, with the customary frontispieces, and, since the editor has already supplied an introduction, with a dedication on his part to Robert Louis Stevenson.

The index to vol. xiii. (new series) of the *Critic* (January-June, 1890) shows a particular stress on the following topics—Art, Browning, Copyright, Libraries, and Shakspere. The Shakspere Department is new, and is conducted by a votary, Dr. W. J. Rolfe of Cambridge, Mass. The *Critic* will conclude its tenth year with the current volume.

Profs. Charles Mills Gayley and Fred Newton Scott have jointly prepared a classified 'Guide to the Literature of Aesthetics,' which is printed as Bulletin No. 11 of the Library of the University of California at Berkeley; and which, though a full pamphlet of 116 pages, is to be had of the Librarian for the postage—five cents. It is the forerunner of a series of bibliographies which will deal with special aspects of the main subject, so that the present essay is designedly general and without pretence of being exhaustive. The bibliography of Literary Criticism, for instance, will shortly be sent to press. The compilers and the Library are much to be commended for this service to students.

From time to time, as the work on the United States Geological Survey proceeds, Prof. O. C. Marsh puts out a preliminary notice of some of his most important discoveries, in an illustrated pamphlet of a few pages, from the *American Journal of Science* or elsewhere. Recently some half-a-dozen of these notices have reached us, relating to the gigantic Ceratopsidæ, new Dinosaurian reptiles, the new order Hallopoda, new Cretaceous Dinosaurs, new Tertiary mammals, and some extinct Testudinata. One of the oddest of his recent acquisitions is the huge cretaceous Dinosaurian Triceratops, a creature with a skull six to eight feet in length and a brain in inverse proportion—of the smallest among land vertebrates. Over each orbit the animal had a slender pointed horn core a couple of feet or more in length, and over the snout a shorter one. It had a rostral bone in front of the premaxillaries, and was furnished with a beak like a turtle or a bird, besides the long series of peculiar teeth on each jaw at the sides. From the back of the skull the parietal and the squamosal bones were produced and expanded over the nape into a broad, shovel-shaped hood, the hinder edge of which bore more than twenty smaller horns. Recent Reptilia furnish nothing that compares closely with the Ceratopsidæ.

Three papers fill the current *National Geographic Magazine* (vol. ii, No. 3). The first, by Lieut.-Com. Chas. H. Stockton, possesses the most popular interest, for it describes the arctic cruise of the United States steamship *Thetis* a year ago, when the entire coast line of Alaska to Mackenzie Bay was followed for the first time, and a return made in one stretch to Herald Island and Wrangel Land. Off Point Barrow a whaling fleet of forty-seven vessels carrying the American flag was a stirring spectacle. In Mackenzie Bay a tidal rise and fall of three feet was met with, and from this point was launched the first of several drift-floats which will render an account of themselves after many days. A view of the whale-like outline of Herald Island is given. The other papers are on the Law of Storms, fully illustrated, by Everett Hayden, and on the Irrigation Problem in Montana, by H. M. Wilson.

"The Place of the Medical Department in the Army" is the title of a very forcible and indeed conclusive paper in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution* for July by Brevet Lieut.-Col. Alfred A. Woodhull of the Medical Corps. It is in the first place an argument for the essential identification of the medical officer with the army in a true military sense, and against regarding him as a mere civilian and non-combatant appendage. This is demonstrated with the aid of very striking illustrations. Major Woodhull next contends that his brother "surgeons" should be regularly addressed by their military titles, as is, in fact, the practice in communications from the Adjutant-General's office. He concludes with some excellent advice about the training of newly appointed medical officers in their unwonted duties, the keeping of the service abreast of medical science by compulsory attendance without cost at standard medical schools, the elimination of the unworthy without resort to a court-martial, etc. Maj. Woodhull is consistently opposed to that part of the Geneva Convention which neutralizes medical officers on the field. They may often, he says, gain important intelligence, and they have sometimes taken command of troops left without a head.

What may be called a passing topic, Heligoland, is pleasantly treated by Walter Armstrong in the *English Illustrated Magazine* for August, with the aid of illustrations which show off the island's picturesqueness to advantage.

In the London *Athenæum* of July 26, Mr. C. S. Warren, whose address is Southfields, Longford, Coventry, prints a tentative list of all the versions of the "Dies Iræ" in the English language. The American number ninety-two,

or five more than the English; but then Dr. Abraham Coles flings no fewer than thirteen of his own into the scale. On the other hand, the English went at the task as far back as 1621; our countrymen first took it up in 1841. While eight versions are set down to the seventeenth century, the eighteenth produced but two. The rate of production in the present has been nearly two per annum.

The American Forestry Association will meet on September 2, by invitation of the Government of the Province of Quebec, in the Parliament Buildings, and will sit four days. The Treasurer of the Association is Dr. Henry M. Fisher, No. 919 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.

On the 19th of last month the German composer Robert von Hornstein died at his home in Munich. He was known best in Germany through several charming books of songs, in which he had put the verses of a most cosmopolitan set of poets—Shakspere, Goethe, Byron, Béranger, Heine, and others—to music. He has also written a book of "Duets," of "Songs for a High Voice"; two operettas, "The Pages of Versailles" and "Adam and Eve," with text by Paul Heyse; a ballet, "The Flowers' Revenge"; and the pretty music to Shakspere's "As You Like It," without which the play is never given on the Munich stage. He was born December 6, 1833. At Leipzig his teachers were Rietz, Moscheles, Hauptmann, and others.

We learn with regret of the recent death at Munich, in his sixty-first year, of an eminent jurist, Dr. Franz von Holtzendorff, who had for more than thirty years occupied a prominent position as teacher, writer, and reformer, particularly in respect of the imprisonment and punishment of criminals, and as joint editor of two remarkable series of political and social tracts, "Zeit- und Streit-Fragen" and "Sammlung gemeinverständlicher wissenschaftlicher Vorträge," which have had a very enlightening influence in Germany. He was the founder, too, of the 'Encyklopädie der Rechtswissenschaft in systematischer und alphabetischer Bearbeitung,' the author of numerous penological works and legal manuals, of a book of sketches of travel in Scotland, of a treatise on Rumania's riparian rights on the Danube, etc. He undertook the defence of Count Harry von Arnim. To him Germany owes its "Juristentag," a periodical convention of native jurists for professional goodfellowship and amelioration of the statutes, which dates from 1860. In 1863 he participated in the "Protestantentag" which met at Frankfort and gave birth to the Deutscher Protestantenverein—an active protest against orthodox illiberalism and dogmatism, and an important factor in the *Kulturkampf*. Finally, this noble and indefatigable scholar was conspicuously in advance of his class and countrymen in being an advocate of the elevation of woman. Germany and the University of Munich suffer a great loss in him.

—A number of local historical works have accumulated on our table. We may begin with the stout fourth volume of the Chicago Historical Society's Collection, edited by the President, Edward G. Mason, and very handsomely printed, under the general title 'Early Chicago and Illinois.' The arrangement is from present time to past, and at the front we have memorial biographies of some very eminent citizens of Chicago (as, Isaac N. Arnold and E. B. Washburne), which are good reading in themselves, and convey no little information concerning the history of the West and of contemporary New England, from which most of these men were derived. French biographies follow the American, and both series are illustrated, as far as possible, with portraits. The two main divisions of the remainder of the book are occupied with a copy of Col. John Todd's Record-Book, and with hitherto inedited papers relating to British Illinois. There is a pretty full index. The town of Guilford, Conn., celebrated a year ago the 250th anniversary of its settlement, and the proceedings have been preserved in a solid volume, with a few illustrations, of which by far the most interesting is that of a stone house built in 1639. The list of houses more than 100 years old is surprisingly large. The best of the historical addresses is that by Prof. Samuel Hart, but all are instructive; and the Rev. James A. Gallup, sixth pastor of a church which in 182 years has never dismissed a pastor, remarks a compensation for the steady drain of the young men to the cities and manufacturing towns in the advent of the summer beach cottager and the revival of ship-building.

—Noticeable in the Guilford celebration was the number of speakers representing the families of the first settlers. Heredity played an equally significant part in the exercises on the 150th anniversary of the Greenville Baptist Church in Leicester, Mass., on September 28, 1888, now reported in a thick pamphlet. The first pastor (to whom a tablet was set up by his descendants, with Mr. Samuel S. Green, the well-known Librarian of the Worcester Free Library, for their spokesman) was also a physician, and his posterity have abounded in doctors and druggists. This church was the eighth of its denomination in Massachusetts, and its communicants had to acknowledge themselves "Anabaptists" in order to be exempt from rates under the statute of 1757. The original building was removed to make way for the present, and when burnt up was serving as a woollen mill. The "First Church of Christ in Quincy," Mass., was 250 years old in September last, and the present pastor's historical sermons, added to the commemorative proceedings, make a volume of very uncommon interest. The "Chappel of Ease," as Lechford called it, had for its first pastor John Wheelwright, whose sympathy with Mrs. Hutchinson's views involved them in a common condemnation and banishment at the hands of Boston, leaving, however, a leaven of liberality which Unitarianism, on its advent, found of its own kind and ready to adopt the name. Into this church were baptized John Adams and John Quincy Adams and John Hancock. All these worthies, together with their wives, Mr. and Mrs. Charles Francis Adams, Josiah Quincy, Pastor Wheelwright, etc., enter into the portrait illustrations of the handsome volume. Other photographic views are of old houses, churches, and interiors. The literary as well as typographical execution is much to be commended (Boston: Damrell & Upham). We can barely mention 'Historical Papers and Journal of Semi-Centennial of the [Episcopal] Church in Florida,' a pamphlet likewise well supplied with portraits. Its greatest lesson is, we believe, in the aloofness of this denomination from the humanitarian instinct of the age. On the all-absorbing subject of slavery we read only that, down to 1838, "it is grateful . . . to note the interest manifested in the spiritual welfare of the negroes. There is frequent mention of them by the different missionaries"; and that Bishop Rutledge congratulated the Convention held in 1861, after Florida had seceded, to reorganize the Church South, "that the Church had taken no part in the unhappy dissensions which were agitating the country." This was only too true, both North and South. Bishop Polk of Louisiana soon afterwards took the field in arms to prevent black Christians from becoming freemen.

—The section of "Social Economy" of the Paris Exposition of last year is the subject of an elaborate report prepared by M. Jules Helbronner, a Canadian Labor Commissioner, and published by the Canadian Government in a portly (French) Blue-book of 686 pages. The terms "Social Science" and "Social Economy" are used so loosely and with such a variety of meanings, that it may be necessary to explain that in this instance what is meant is the all-pervading "Labor Question," which, in its turn, is likewise a most comprehensive expression, embracing such topics as wages, coöperation, benefit societies, workingmen's dwellings, alcoholism, and a dozen more. The exhibit referred to consisted in the main of several hundred documents, more or less voluminous, submitted by as many firms and associations, principally French, although there were a few from Belgium, England, and Italy. The report of the Belgian section made a volume of 1,100 pages. The whole number of exhibitors was 1,116, and their contributions were divided into sixteen classes, treating various phases of the general subject. M. Helbronner reprints such a selection of them as in his judgment is likely to be of practical service to Canada. He follows the official classification just mentioned. Thus, in section i., Wages, he gives not only tables of wages in different industries, but also details concerning a number of selected establishments together with the rules enforced in different factories, as well as a table of strikes in France from 1874 to 1885. Section ii., on Profit-Sharing, contains a full account of all the French establishments, and of some in other countries, in which the owners have admitted their workmen to an interest in the profits; the testimony is uniformly in favor of this method of solving the vexed problem of the relations of labor and capital. Not so encouraging is the second part of the same section, devoted to coöperative manufacturing, in which as yet no decisive success can be recorded. Space fails us to follow the report through other branches of the subject, but enough has been said to show that it offers a mine of valuable and interesting information for students of the labor question.

—'Das Heidentum in der Römischen Kirche: Bilder aus dem Religiösen und Sittlichen Leben Süditaliens' (Gotha: Fried. Perthes, vol. i., pp. 342) is the title of an interesting work by Th. Treve, who during the past twelve years has been the pastor of a German Protestant church in Naples, and has taken advantage of his continuous sojourn in that city to study Neapolitan manners and customs and popular superstitions, which he treats chiefly as survivals of pagan antiquity. The field which he has chosen for his investigations is a peculiarly fruitful one. Of the many Grecian colonies in Macedonia, Thrace, Asia Minor, and elsewhere which bore the name of Neapolis (New Town), the one founded between the picturesque promontories of Misenum and Campanella on the western coast of Campania was the most celebrated and most prosperous, and surpassed all the others in historical importance. In this beautiful bay Phœnician traders anchored their ships, and, at a later period, Alexandrian merchants established themselves on the shore and left a reminiscence of their enterprise in the street still known as *Vico Nilo*. Nevertheless, Naples was at no time a great commercial emporium like the Roman colony Puteoli (Pozzu-

oli), nor did she ever compete with Venice, Genoa, Pisa, and Amalfi for the sovereignty of the Mediterranean. Her greatness consisted, not in material wealth or political power, but in the fund of intellectual treasures which she had inherited and preserved. Under the dominion of Rome she clung with fidelity to the traditions of the mother country, prided herself on the purity with which Greek was spoken within her walls, and remained the seat and centre of Hellenic culture in Italy. She fostered the arts in a liberal spirit, and maintained schools to which Augustus intrusted his nephew and presumptive heir, and in which Roman youths of noble lineage received their education. She was the only Italian city that would not tolerate the brutalities and butcheries of the amphitheatre, as she afterwards refused to permit the Holy Office to exercise its inquisitorial functions within her domain. The calm and cheerful serenity of the place, and the "still air of delightful studies" which pervaded it, are sufficiently indicated by such epithets as *dulcis, docta, ad otia nata*, so frequently applied by Roman poets to their favorite Neapolis. To-day these charming characteristics have given place to scenes of incessant din and vulgar hubbub, and the ancient *otium cum dignitate* has degenerated into a lazy and ignoble *dolce far niente*. Herr Treve points out many curious survivals of pagan antiquity in the usages of common life among the lower classes of the population, but he dwells chiefly upon resemblances and parallelisms in religious conceptions and ecclesiastical ceremonies. He regards the Romish Church as the great reservoir into which has drifted all the débris of ancient superstition. The shrines of Christian saints have superseded the altars of heathen deities, but the worship is essentially the same. From an ethical point of view Herr Treve finds Neapolitan Christianity vastly inferior to the Greek paganism which it has supplanted. A painful example of this deterioration is seen in the relation of man to the lower animals. His book is not a compilation from other works, but a record of original observations, and may be commended as a valuable contribution not only to comparative theology and mythology, but also to the broader science of comparative culture and civilization.

—"The Tokugawa Princes of Mito" is the title of a very interesting paper read before the Asiatic Society of Japan by Mr. E. W. Clement, an American teacher living in the city which was once the capital of these famous patrons of literature. The paper is now reprinted as a pamphlet of twenty-four pages, with three epigraphic illustrations. Mito is an interesting city situated northeast of Tokio, near the seacoast, the name meaning "water-door." The feudal house was founded by Yorifusa, the eleventh son of the great Iye'yasŭ, the founder of Yedo and the Tokugawa dynasty of shoguns who ruled Japan from 1604 to 1868. The house of Mito was one of the three, Kii, Owari, and Mito, out of which an heir to the shogunate could be chosen, and it was one of the revenges of history that while the heirs were always, until 1867, taken from Kii or Owari, the shogun from Mito when chosen was the last to hold the office, and to surrender it, prior to its abolition, to the Mikado. The two most famous Princes of Mito were Mitsukuni (1628–1700), who founded a library of 200,000 volumes, gathered a circle of scholars and historiographers around him, invited to his court refugee Chinese scholars driven out of China on the fall of the Ming dynasty, reformed abuses, encouraged Chinese learning and the spread of Confucianism, and wrote the 'Dai Nihon Shi,' the great standard history of Japan. By proving historically that the institution of the shogunate was a usurpation, he set in train the influences which led ultimately to the revolution of 1868. The next important personage was Nariaki, who ruled from 1829 to 1861, and was one of the very few powerful daimios who had personal as well as official importance. Outwardly, he opposed foreign intercourse and the Yedo Government, and paid great reverence to the Mikado, while most probably a student of Christianity and of Western civilization, and a believer in the Japan which exists to-day. He was one of the most prominent figures in the political turmoil consequent upon the opening of the ports by the Townsend Harris treaty. His successor has often figured in popular American and European illustrated newspapers and in broadside pictures of "rulers of the world," as the Mikado Mutsuhito. The present head of the Mito family is now the Marquis Tokugawa Atsuyoshi, the Minister of Japan to Italy. The pamphlet is an interesting indication of the thoughtful study of Japanese history in its own home by Americans. Since 1888, when Mr. Shimada, the editor of the *Mainichi Shimbun* (Daily Newspaper) of Yokohama, published his 'Kai Koku Shimatsu' (origin and all the circumstances of the opening of the country of Japan to foreign influences) or the life of Ii, the great rival of Mito—a book which bids fair to create a new epoch in the method of writing Japanese history—the lively controversy as to the merits and demerits of Mito has been going on in newspaper review and solid volume. It is probably the forerunner of that critical reconstruction of the history of Japan which is sure to come, and which even Government censors, with the weaponry of prisons and fines, cannot much longer keep postponed.

RECENT SOUTHERN FICTION.

Throckmorton. By Molly Elliot Seawell. D. Appleton & Co.

Jack Horner. By Mary Spear Tiernan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Little Radical. By Jeannette H. Walworth. Belford Co.

Expiation. By Octave Thanet. Charles Scribner's Sons.

White Marie. By Will N. Harden. Cassell & Co.

Strange True Stories of Louisiana. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE novel-writing industry continues to flourish in the South. The readiness of Southern warriors, or of their wives and daughters, to beat swords and powder flasks into pens and inkbottles is one of the most peculiar consequences of the war, perhaps the only one that has no parallel in history. Eagerness to dilate on one's own discomfiture is not common. People generally preserve an impenetrable silence about defeat, at least until the bitterness has been outworn and many interesting particulars have been forgotten. By this reticence much valuable experience is lost, and future historians are driven distracted by a quest for data to describe the condition and feeling of a conquered nation.

The world really owes a debt of gratitude to Southerners for the ease with which they threw off morbid sentimentality, or compromised with it by adopting the medium of fiction, and set about telling how their homes were made unto them desolate, even while the shadow of that desolation still lay thick and heavy over all their land. While feeling was strong and memory keen, they wrote some wonderful stories, but, as feeling wastes into vague sentiment and memory grows cold, the strength of the stories diminishes. The tendency of the writers is to substitute for events which we know any and every Southerner might have shared, those romantic complications which no actual human beings, not wholly devoid of intelligence, ever allowed themselves to become involved in. A uniformity of folly is preserved by adjusting the characters to the plot, though a close reader may discover inconsistency when some ridiculously entangled person displays a faint glimmer of reason. Fortunately, the blighting tendency towards ineffable foolishness is checked, and may yet be cured, by the appearance of a critical faculty and dawning ability to recognize the difference between heroics and heroism.

'Throckmorton' illustrates both tendencies. The plot is agonizingly romantic. In mixing lovers up, *Puck* was clumsy compared with the author; and, as we follow her solemn and harrowing disentanglement, we begin to realize that "A Midsummer Night's Dream" is a superb *tragédie manquée*, all on account of its author's too volatile spirits and his disposition to make light of the most serious affairs. It is in the character-drawing of persons who are not lovers, and of lovers when temporarily diverted from love's miseries and ecstasies, that the author shows a critical faculty which condones much nonsense. There were doubtless many generals who, like Gen. Temple, were more courageous than capable, and many mothers who, like Mrs. Temple, dragooned their families into everlasting mourning for a son left dead on the battle-field; but the Southern author who rejoices in poking fun at the General, and who deliberately exposes the selfishness if not cruelty of Mrs. Temple's grief, must have independence of observation and the courage of her opinions. These excellent qualities are even more boldly asserted in the delineation of the "war widow," Mrs. Judith Temple, and in that of her sister-in-law Jacqueline. To tell the whole truth about a Jacqueline without making her appear contemptible is no easy task. When Jacquelines die young, as Jacqueline Temple does, and as they all should, their grave defects of character are forgotten, and memory dwells on an elusive charm which all felt and none could describe. If they happen to live to full maturity, they become hard, sordid, fat women, with whom it appears ridiculous to associate a fascinating past.

The cleverness and the stupidities of 'Throckmorton' are both suggestive of the 'Berkleys and their Neighbors,' a Virginian novel which appeared several months ago. If they are by the same author, she is to be congratulated on a general improvement in manner and style, yet still advised to look to her grammar, and to consider that sentences are not beautiful or impressive simply because they are long.

It is somewhat surprising to find a thick book, entitled 'Jack Horner,' addressed to an audience long past infancy. One takes it up with dread of a prolix treatise intended to demolish the nursery hero's complacent estimate of himself—an estimate which has been accepted without question by many generations. Fortunately the author makes no attempt to disturb any ancient faith. Her Jack Horner is a baby, apparently lacking legitimate name, deposited in a luxurious basket at the door of a maiden lady in Richmond when the enemy was at the city's gates. He permits himself to be nourished and fondled on the supposition that he is a child of the

Confederacy, and never so much as whimpers with remorse when, after the war, he is claimed by a Northern father, and the good old lady who has cared for him is all but killed by patriotic indignation. Moreover, he unscrupulously demoralizes a beautiful widow, nearly related to his protectress, a woman who was a second, or third, mother to him. Previous to his appearance on the scene, she had been an impassive and lovely image of devotion to her dead husband; but with Jack Horner's advent her pent-up affections break loose and gush about wildly. Unsatisfied by Jack, they embrace one Maj. Dallas, the very pick and flower of the Confederacy. When she is arrayed for the bridal, the exigencies of war call the Major from her side. Her heart, temporarily bowed down, soon lifts itself and goes out to the next comer — no other than Jack's father, who has assumed the disguise of a Confederate soldier and entered Richmond in order to see his long-lost child. Let it not be supposed that being on with a new love seems to her good reason for being off with the old. It is quite impossible to follow the arguments and incidents used to prove that she was truth itself to Dallas while blushing and thrilling beside Dorset; but, as this is a matter of no importance whatever, we are willing to take the author's word for it. The conception of the story is trivial, and the whole train of incident improbable. There are a few very good descriptions of social life in Richmond at the time, and several situations illustrate strongly the intense feeling of the populace. Nevertheless, two or three such novels would make the most ardent admirer of Southern fiction forswear it for ever.

Mrs. Walworth's 'Little Radical' is scarcely above the level of 'Jack Horner.' She seems to be torn between waxing admiration for a new, working, plebeian South, and waning reverence for an old, idle, aristocratic South. The first half is mostly an expression of sympathy with the new order. Her Radical suffers expulsion from a "finishing school" on account of avowed democratic sentiments, which are declared to be communistic and incendiary. The young person carries her red flag into the aristocratic seclusion of her grandmother's estate. Established there, she persists in making low acquaintances, whom she invites to garden parties, and, very soon, she effects a runaway match with a young man, presumably of no antecedents, who keeps books in a factory. At this juncture Mrs. Walworth seems to have decided that radicalism can no farther go—indeed, that it has already gone too far—and that reparation is due to offended gentility. It would clearly never do to let the Radical repent and seek forgiveness: that would be to stultify both author and heroine. Besides, the book-keeping husband is an immovable obstruction. The devices to which Mrs. Walworth resorts, in order to harmonize conflicting interests and opinions, include the introduction of a vagabond foreigner whose claim to be the Radical's father is so well supported by documents that she is frightened out of her wits, and forgets she ever had any interest in the morals of factory women and the health of their babies. Several minor domestic agitations serve to detach her from the practice of social heresies, and, when her husband turns out to be a scion of an ancient house and the possessor of an ancestral mansion, much out of repair, she is reinstated in the position to which she was born. That position Mrs. Walworth persists in describing as "in the purple." Novelists are always attaching themselves to high-sounding phrases, with fine scorn of their meaning, and this is a somewhat ludicrous example of the habit. In all civilized countries, including probably the Southern States, unless the mother is a person of very exalted rank, children take the social status of their father. Why in the world should the daughter of a Mississippi steamboat's captain, whose manners and conversation are of that rough-and-ready kind conclusive as to ancestry, have any pretensions to birth in the palest shade of the imperial color?

To associate the Arkansas novel, 'Expiation,' with feeble company is rather shabby treatment. It is a vigorous, straight-away story. From the start the author knows where he means to arrive, and does arrive, without any tumbles or accidental deviations from the direct route, or deliberate experiment in byways which lead nowhere. The title suggests a subjective study, but the author's real strength is in the narration of thrilling adventures. The interest in the struggle of Fairfax Rutherford to overcome attacks of congenital cowardice is much inferior to that in the exploits of Dick Barnabas and his band of desperadoes. Barnabas is a reckless and commanding ruffian, who, but for lesser opportunity, might have rivalled Morgan, the buccaneer, slain his thousands and captured cities. An old-fashioned, romantic novelist could not have resisted endowing him with abstract virtues, and laying the blame of his actual crimes on a cruel fate which compelled him to make his living by murder and robbery rather than by any of the gentler vocations of meaner men. Here he is treated truthfully, and consistently both with good morals and good art. One follows his career with no less enthusiasm because his cruelty and depravity are perfectly plain, nor does one deplore his death, for he gets in the most probable way the punishment he richly deserves. All the characters are drawn with similar truthfulness and skill, and the situations are spirited and dramatic, without being sensational. Parson Jones and his mule Ma'y-Jane are worth honorable mention and particular praise. The stanch, wary, humorous old parson is delightful, while, for an humble beast, Ma'y-Jane's resources of character are wonderfully varied and entertaining. She is more worthy of a full-length portrait than is Aunt Hizzie, the cook, or mammie, of huge girth and polysyllabic piety, who seems still to be an indispensable scourge and blessing of Southern families. Her pictorial possibilities are, however, greater than Ma'y-Jane's, which may be sufficient reason for preference. She would be unusually amusing, too, if one had not just read about Delilah, the mammie in 'Throckmorton,' who goes far ahead of her in spontaneous fun. The portrait is the best of the numerous illustrations of 'Expiation,' most of which are so vague and spectral that they disfigure rather than adorn the book.

The story of 'White Marie' owes nothing of its pathos to form or phrase. It has, in fact, no literary merit, but rests for notice on one of the most abominable possibilities of slavery—the possibility that a child of the white race, whose parentage it was deemed expedient to conceal, might be handed over to negroes and herself become a slave. That was the fate of White Marie, to be sold and resold, to be married by force to a negro, and to grow old before she had any proof of what she had always felt, that she belonged to the dominant, not to the servile class. It would require great power of psychic analysis to depict adequately the life-long agony of a woman in such a plight, and the author has wisely refrained from seriously attempting such a task. To assure indignation it was not necessary for him to represent Marie as a "scion of a great and powerful race, the descendant of a people who associated with kings and queens." The knowledge that a system ever was under which a woman could be helplessly condemned to ignominy, is enough, even so long after the abolition of that system, to excite persons of humane disposition quite as much as is good for them.

Among Mr. Cable's 'Strange True Stories of Louisiana,' that of "Salome Müller, the White Slave," is in essentials the same as the story of 'White Marie.' Mr. Cable assures us, in a very elaborate and particular prefatory chapter, that the truth of these stories is the genuine truth, the truth which is popularly supposed to be keeping itself eternally cool and dark at the bottom of a well. Nobody could desire to probe the matter deeper, but suspicion may be permitted to rest a moment where Mr. Cable himself seems to have suspected. The lady who, when past forty, wrote the "Adventures of Françoise and Suzanne," ostensibly the story of a journey made when she was only fifteen, had a remarkably gracious and graceful gift for writing stories, whether true or false. The manner of the story of "Alix de Morainville" is so very like that of Mme. Françoise that, notwithstanding Mr. Cable's carefully collated evidence to the contrary (external evidence of differences in handwriting, spelling, texture of paper, etc.), we are inclined to give her credit for the authorship of both. But no matter; everything in the collection is good, with agreeably varied time and place, and with naturally contrasting joy and woe. Some are so coherent, so full of opportune coincidence and unlooked-for compensations, that one needs to have had wide experience to know how easily they may be true. Few French comedy-writers, for instance, have arranged a neater knot and climax with more deliciously comic minor situations than those unfolded in an episode of the life of Attalie Brouillard. Retributive justice in high tragedies never meted out more appropriate punishment than the death decreed to Mme. Lalaurie, the fiendish woman who, sixty years ago, kept splendid state in the "Haunted House of Royal Street." Decidedly, the more of such true stories that Mr. Cable can unearth, the better shall he be beloved of critical and uncritical readers.

STANLEY AFTER EMIN.—II.

In Darkest Africa, or the Quest, Rescue, and Retreat of Emin, Governor of Equatoria. By Henry M. Stanley. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890. Two vols., 8vo.

THE interest of Mr. Stanley's story does not reach its climax with the meeting with Emin Pasha. Yet there are few pages in the whole work so graphic as those in which he describes his first impressions of the Governor of Equatoria. He notes, with not unnatural surprise considering the reports of Emin's necessitous condition, the indications of comfort in his "suit of snowy cotton drilling, well-ironed and of perfect fit," but especially that his face bore no "trace on it of ill-health or anxiety; it rather indicated good condition of body and peace of mind." In the conversations between the two leaders, during the four weeks they were together, an indecision in the Pasha was very painfully evident. Three propositions were laid before him: to return to Egypt, to remain and hold the Equatorial Province for the Congo State, or to establish himself, with such of his officers and soldiers as would accompany him, on the northeastern corner of

Victoria Nyanza in the territory of the British East African Association. Without coming to any decision, he returned to his province to consult with his officers, while Mr. Stanley, with but one white companion, his servant, set out on the search for the men whom he had left behind at Yambuya nearly a twelvemonth before. The sufferings endured by his company of 214 men during this second journey through the forest, chiefly from want of food, were terrible. He himself for nearly a month subsisted "entirely on bananas or plaintains, which, however varied in their treatment by the cook, failed to satisfy the jaded stomach. My muscles had become thin and flabby, and were mere cords and sinews, every limb was in a tremor while travelling, and the vitals seemed to groan in anguish for a small morsel of meat." His followers were so weakened by their privations that, on more than one occasion, on coming into a shower of cold rain, some of them "fell dead as suddenly as though shot."

Tortured with anxiety as to the fate of the rear column, he pressed rapidly on, and, being unencumbered with loads, and the path being well marked, he marched in 62 days a distance which it had taken 142 days to accomplish in the journey to the lake. The remnant of the rear column he found encamped nearly 100 miles east of Yambuya, under the command of the assistant surgeon, Mr. William Bonny, one of Tippu Tib's headmen having murdered Maj. Barttelot a month previous. As the conduct of the unfortunate officers who had charge of this part of the Relief Expedition is a matter of controversy in which one side only has been heard, it would obviously be unfair to form any final conclusions from Mr. Stanley's hasty and somewhat incoherent account. We are bound to say, however, that he himself does not appear to advantage in this closing chapter of his first volume. His sarcastic strictures on men who had lost their lives in endeavoring to carry out his necessarily vague instructions, if in a blundering way, are inexcusable. Furthermore, we have very carefully read all that he has written on this subject, and, in the light of the information which he gives, we fail to see how the spirit of his instructions was disobeyed, although serious mistakes were made. We are inclined, also, to think that, had Maj. Barttelot followed directly in the path of the advance column, as Mr. Stanley appears to say he ought to have done, the whole force would have perished. For if he, with all his experience and marvellous capacity as a leader, lost nearly a fifth of his picked force from hunger and the perils of the forest, what would have been the fate of the larger and weaker body of men behind him? Could they have found sufficient food in the banana-groves and manioc-fields, already stripped by the famishing advance column? This delay to advance, so unaccountable to Mr. Stanley, although it cost many lives, may have saved more.

However great the disappointment at his lack of generosity in his treatment of Maj. Barttelot and Mr. Jameson, the reader cannot but be touched at his unaffected sympathy with the poor Zanzibaris. There is infinite pathos in the closing words of his description of the camp in which the bodies of the dead lie unburied. "I heard of murder and death, of sickness and sorrow, anguish and grief; and wherever I looked, the hollow eyes of dying men met my own with such trusting, pleading regard, such far-away yearning looks, that it seemed to me if but one sob was uttered my heart would break." Then, after enumerating the dead natives, he writes, as if rehearsing the meeting with Bonny: "'And of the gallant band of Englishmen?' 'Barttelot's grave is but a few yards off. Troup went home a skeleton. Ward is somewhere a wanderer. Jameson has gone to the Falls, I don't know why.' 'And you—you are the only one left?' 'The only one, sir.'"

It was on the last day of August, 1888, that Mr. Stanley began his third march through the forest, which, the more we learn of it, the more truly does it seem to be a "region of horrors." Again men enfeebled by want of food are stricken instantaneously to death by the merciless rain. At another time, with the utter recklessness of children, one hundred and fifty of the carriers threw away their five-days' rations on the false report of an abundance of bananas near at hand. All the able-bodied were sent back three days' journey for a fresh supply, and the remainder, one hundred and thirty people, lived for a week on berries and fungi and a thin broth made of "a pot of butter and a pot of milk." The only bright spot in this record of suffering is a chance meeting with the pygmies. A box of ammunition had been left on the path and a party was sent to bring it to the camp.

"Arriving near the spot, they saw quite a tribe of pygmies, men, women, and children, gathered around two pygmy warriors, who were trying to test the weight of the box by the grummet at each end. . . . Every member of the tribe seemed to have some device to suggest, and the little boys hopped about on one leg, spanking their hips in irrepressible delight at the find, and the tiny women, carrying their tinier babies at their backs, vociferated the traditional wise woman's counsel. Then a doughty man cut a light pole and laid it through the grummets, and all the small people cheered shrilly with joy at the genius displayed by them in inventing a method for heaving along the weighty case of Remington ammunition. The Hercules and Milo of the tribe put forth their utmost strength and raised the box up level with their shoulders and staggered away into the bush."

Meanwhile the soldiers of the Equatorial Province revolted and imprisoned their Governor and Mr. Jephson, who had remained with him. On the news of Mr. Stanley's return to the lake, however, these gentlemen were released and rejoined him on February 17, 1889. In his account of the events of the next two months there is shown very considerable ability as a writer. Incidents are narrated and conversations reported with an almost photographic accuracy, so far as vividness of impression goes. But his qualities as a leader were never more apparent. The patience with which he awaits the decision of the Pasha, the forbearance with which he endures the insults to himself and the outrageous treatment of his men by the Egyptians, the wonderful control which he exercises over his indignant followers smarting under their injuries—all this excites our highest admiration. The inevitable moment when this patience and forbearance will give place to stern and vigorous action is awaited with an almost breathless interest. At length, being satisfied that Emin has absolutely no control over his people, who only seek an opportunity to seize their rescuers and deliver them prisoners to the Mahdists, he gives the signal to muster under arms. Facing the throng of now cowed and cringing Egyptians, he bids the Pasha tell them "that in future they are under my command. If I discover any treacherous tricks, I shall be compelled to exterminate them utterly. No Mahdist, Arabist, or rebel can breathe in my camp. . . . Whatever I can do to make them comfortable I will do, but for sedition and theft of arms, there is only death." With this dramatic incident the climax of his story is reached, although the remainder is by no means lacking in interest. Soon after the beginning of the march to the sea, an acute attack of gastritis prostrated the leader, showing how great had been the strain upon his strength. For nearly a month the great caravan halted to watch, as it were, the struggle between life and death. During the crisis of the disease, the ringleader of a band of deserters, who had also carried away several rifles, was tried and convicted, and, although Mr. Stanley was apparently at the point of death, he was borne into the presence of the people to pronounce his sentence, "Yallah rabuna! Depart to God!"

There is little worthy of special note in the further progress of the expedition, now numbering 1,510 souls, 600 of whom were the Pasha and his people. Fortunately it met with but little resistance from the greatly dreaded natives of Ankori. This surprised Mr. Stanley, nor could he learn the reason until he heard of what had taken place in Uganda, and recognized the fact "that the events of 1888, the deposition of Mwanga, the revolution and counter-revolution, were simply clearing our track for a peaceful march to the sea." He led his expedition into Bagamoyo, on the mainland opposite Zanzibar, on the afternoon of December 4, 1889, after an absence of three years, during which they had travelled, in simply going from ocean to ocean, over 6,000 miles.

By a strange irony Emin Pasha met with an accident on that same evening which nearly proved fatal. In regard to the character and conduct of this man, the second subject of controversy which this book will awaken, it is again necessary to reserve our final judgment until his account of what took place is given to the public. But as, in the case of the rear column, we were compelled, in the light of the facts presented, to withhold our commendation of Mr. Stanley, it is only fair to him to say that it seems to us difficult to acquit Emin of the charges which he makes against him, or to deny that the picture which he draws of him is, in the main, true. He certainly showed an unaccountable remissness in not attempting to communicate with the expedition sent out for his relief. He persistently concealed the true condition of affairs in his province, having apparently become a true Oriental, or "negrofied," to use his own expression, in languor, reticence, and indifference, except in scientific pursuits. These had become a passion to which, according to his own people, he was apparently willing to sacrifice everything. Fond of the semblance of power, he was unable to compel obedience. By his own confession his rule of the province of Equatoria was marked by the same oppression of the wretched natives which characterized that of the Khedive Ismail in Egypt. We may not wonder at his ingratitude to Mr. Stanley, who, no doubt, intensely irritated him, but this does not excuse his conduct towards the few who remained faithful to him. "Dr. Vita Hassan, the apothecary, his most devoted follower, received a letter from him a few days before I left Cairo, which announced to him that he and the others must look out for themselves; that as he had severed his connection with Egypt, he could not be troubled any more with them. Poor Shukri Agha, faithful to the last, with tears in his eyes came to ask me what it all meant."

We have purposely reserved but little space to speak of the scientific results of this expedition. They were, we imagine, somewhat disappointing, since, in the absolutely unknown region passed through, Mr. Stanley's whole energies were devoted to guiding his people and finding food for them. Had Mr. Jameson,

the naturalist, lived to penetrate the forest and climb the slopes of Ruwenzori, the case would probably have been very different. To the geography of Africa Stanley has contributed more than to its natural history or its ethnography. The course of the Aruwimi has been traced, and the water-shed between the basin of the Congo and the Albert Nyanza determined. The relations of the "Mountains of the Moon," the Albert Edward Nyanza and its effluent the Semliki River to what he terms the "Albertine" Nile are clearly shown. His descriptions of the dwarfs, their villages and manner of life, are somewhat meagre and unsatisfactory, and leave the reader in considerable doubt as to their rank in the human scale. If, as he asserts in his table of forest and grassland languages, they are able to count to a hundred, it must be far above the lowest level.

Emin Pasha is authority for the most astonishing passage in the book, which runs as follows:

"The forest of Msongwa is infested with a large tribe of chimpanzees. In summer time, at night, they frequently visit the plantations of Mswa station to steal the fruit. But what is remarkable about this is the fact that they use torches to light the way! Had I not witnessed this extraordinary spectacle personally, I should never have credited that any of the Simians understood the art of making fire."

If the circumstance here stated is true, it must certainly be considered one of the most important contributions to ethnology in recent years, for the fact would not only establish the closest connection between the intelligence of the human and brute creations which naturalists have thus far been able to chronicle, but it would destroy the value of the "fire" era in the history of development of the human species. Naturalists will probably receive the statement with some hesitation. Prof. Romanes, who has made the study of animal intelligence his own, bluntly refuses to accept the trustworthiness of Emin's observation, and prefers (as he states in a communication to *Nature* of July 10) to account for the phenomenon in question on the supposition that the Pasha, by reason of his shortsightedness, "had mistaken a band of native children for his 'large tribe of chimpanzees.'" But it can scarcely be conceived that Emin was alone when he made his remarkable observations. Moreover, a still more recent statement in *Nature* avers that "a large ape is now undoubtedly acting as a signal-man (under direction) on a railway at Natal."

In the greater part of his work Mr. Stanley seems to be too sparing of his commendations of what his European officers did, though he does not hesitate to blame them for their failures to meet his expectations. The single exception is Dr. Parke, of whom he says in one instance: "This expedition possesses the rarest doctor in the world. . . . We are all bound to him with cords of love." Nevertheless, all of them—Stairs, Nelson, Jephson, and Bonny—must, we think, be satisfied with the final eulogium and the affectionate parting words with which their leader closes his work.

The illustrations are in the main hardly worthy of the book and add but little to its value. The maps, on the other hand, are very clear and show few signs of haste in the preparation.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives Relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. IV., Nos. 344 to 453. Issued only to subscribers at No. 4 Trafalgar Square, Charing Cross, London. 1890.

THE fourth volume of this collection is devoted to the organization of the royal commission sent by Great Britain to America in 1778 with proposals of peace. Burgoyne had surrendered; France was about to take part in the struggle. On the other hand, the royal forces had beaten Washington's army at the Brandywine and had occupied Philadelphia. It seemed worth while to make a last effort for conciliation.

What should be the basis of an agreement? Since the close of the Seven Years' War, discontent had been growing in America. The colonists had been displeased with one act of Parliament after another. England would therefore consent to abrogate all unpopular statutes on colonial affairs passed since 1763. But the Ministry recognized that this was not enough. The clock could not simply be set back. The Americans had shown themselves a power to be counted with. It was worth while to keep them as subjects on almost any terms. How much could be granted them and anything worth having be retained? Such was the question before Lord North and his Cabinet.

As we read the instructions to the Commissioners, here first published in full, we see that hardly anything would have been absolutely refused, so that only the name of independence had been relinquished. The Commissioners were empowered to grant much. The Americans might retain their ancient charters, to be amended only on the petition of their own assemblies. They might even hope to be directly represented in the Parliament of Great Britain. They might elect their own governors, subject only to confirmation by the King. They might raise their own tribute and employ it in the maintenance of troops for their own defence. The Commissioners were even empowered to acquiesce in a proposition of no contribution at all, should they find the colonists peremptorily fixed in such a resolution. Although an attempt was to be made to retain commercial advantages for Great Britain, yet this matter also was open to negotiation. And even such things, "short of open and avowed independence," as the Commissioners were not allowed, or were not disposed, to give up, were, if insisted on by the colonists, to be referred to his Majesty for decision, instead of being firmly refused.

Such concessions as these would, in 1775, have been greeted with joy in America, by all but a few hot-heads. They were useless in 1778. Opinions and feelings change rapidly in days of revolution; and the Congress of the United States, although driven from Philadelphia and shivering in a Pennsylvanian village, had just negotiated a treaty with His Most Christian Majesty, obliging itself to insist on that absolute independence which Great Britain was unready to grant, in spite of the conviction of her statesmen that it was inevitable.

Evolution and Disease. By J. Bland Sutton. Scribner & Welford. 1890. 8vo, pp. 285. Illustrated.

DR. SUTTON'S first sentence, "My object in writing this book is simply to indicate that there is a natural history of disease, as well as of plants and animals," is not well chosen. It gives the impression that disease is to be treated as something entirely distinct from the natural history of plant or animal. A fault to be found with the author throughout his work is that his purposes are not kept before the reader with the clearness and prominence called for in writings on popular science. The study required to determine what and how much he intends to teach might be no obstacle to a specialist, but many of those for whom the book was written will throw it aside as a jumble of facts from which they have not the energy or the discipline to reach the conclusions.

The author's object is to show that disease is controlled by laws of general function in biology. Susceptibility to disease may arise from weakness in an organ consequent upon disuse or undue development of some other organ, from vestigial structures, from reversions or atavistic acquisitions, or other heritages not in harmony with the general organization. Under discussion of supernumerary digits, limbs, heads, and so on, it is suggested that a common cause underlies the production of such monstrosities, but what it may be is not made clear, and there is no hint of possible connection with budding processes in lower organisms. Where a summary of all the causes mentioned might be looked for, in "Causes of Disease," bacteria only are treated. Tumors are said to arise from change of function in organs, from bacteria, and from "sports," and glandular tumors and cancers are modified epithelial growths. The "Zoölogical Distribution of Disease" gives man but two diseases (leprosy and syphilis) not shared with lower animals. Evidently acquired characters, malformations, tendencies to particular diseases, etc., are believed to be more or less directly transmissible; mutilations are left in doubt. It will interest their owners to know that pug dogs are supposed to be cretins, products of disease. The mosquito will gain no favor from being known as the disseminator of the filaria that produces the terrible disease elephantiasis. As examples of careless statements occurring here and there, it will suffice to mention that concerning the hind legs of the viper, or the use of the legs of menobranchus as paddles: the viper has no hind legs; menobranchus and its allies use the tail for paddling and the legs for walking.

The book is interesting, and contains a good deal that is of value. It is not so much a symposium of horrors as a glance at the illustrations of abnormalities, cretinism, leprosy, and the like, might lead one to suppose; but we cannot say the author has made the best use of his material and opportunity.

Cent Ans de République aux États-Unis. Par le Duc de Noailles. Vol. II. Paris: Calmann-Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

THIS work is a serious effort to analyze and understand the working of our institutions. It is not to be expected that a Duke with an historic name which carries us back to the court of Louis XIV. should take an over-favorable view of the great democracy, or be as much prepared as Mr. Bryce to appreciate the high national qualities which form an offset to the defects and dangers of our political machinery. The American reader must therefore be on his guard not to let the gloomy picture so depress his spirits as to deprive him of all hope and courage.

Like most Europeans, the writer exaggerates the power of the President, but is shrewd enough to see that this power depends upon the use of the offices for party purposes, and he is evidently not impressed so far with the results of civil-service reform. In confirmation of his view of the power of the Executive, he points out that while the Constitution defines very clearly the powers of Congress, it leaves those of the President almost wholly indefinite, and thus capable of great expansion, as was shown during the civil war. But though he dwells upon some of the consequences, he does not clearly show how this indefiniteness has

worked the other way, and subjected the Executive to the constant encroachments of Congress, forming the greatest difficulty of our politics to-day. He adopts Mr. Bagehot's view of the "Presidential" as different from the parliamentary system, making it quite impossible for the Cabinet to have seats in the Legislature, and points out with much satisfaction how this results in the rule of the lobby and the utter confusion and chaos of legislative work. He might have made the picture much stronger if he had shown how, in the absence of these and any other representatives and defenders of the national interest, the whole field is given up to a conflict of local, private, and party interests, which, and neither the ignorance nor the perversity of the people, is the real cause of the overwhelming preponderance of special legislation. An elective judiciary, the mechanism of elections, and the politicians come in for their share of castigation. Immigration, moreover, pauperism, and "alcoolisme" are bearing us downward, and our successes are attributed to our great natural resources and the absence of standing armies.

The average American, finding himself in tolerably comfortable circumstances, may be sustained under this accumulation of horrors by the reflection that it is, after all, the same people which carried through the Civil War, abolished slavery, and then disbanded the armies, and which may yet prove itself equal to dealing with existing political problems.

The Life of George H. Stuart. Written by himself. Edited by Robert Ellis Thompson, D.D., University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. M. Stoddart & Co. 1890.

THERE is a suggestion of crushing a butterfly upon the wheel in Dr. Thompson's ponderous introduction to Mr. Stuart's autobiography. He need hardly have gone back so far as Sts. Paul and Augustine and Justin Martyr for a justification of this kind of writing. He need not have gone away from Philadelphia. But Franklin's autobiography had a charm of manner which added much to the fact that it protrayed the youth of one who came in time to be one of the great men of his century and of the modern world. Mr. Stuart was a good man—in a narrow sense a much better one than Franklin; he was an energetic, useful, and extremely pious man; but he had none of the elements of greatness and he had no literary skill. Men with much less to tell than he, have told it so pleasantly as to bring children from their play and old men from the chimney corner. But such interest as there is in Mr. Stuart's autobiography is wholly in the facts. He adds nothing to them by his report. He touches them with no felicity of thought or phrase. It is difficult to imgine how the same things could have been narrated in a less interesting manner. Nor has the editor done even what he could to make up what was lacking in his friend's performance. He has not corrected obvious errors, such as those on page 61, where of the Liberty party it is said: "This small party nominated John P. Hale for President in 1844, and continued steadily to grow until 1854, when it was merged in the Republican party." Here there are two mistakes, if not three. Hale was the candidate of the Free-Soil party in 1852, which was hardly identical with the Liberty party that nominated Birney in 1840 and 1844. Granting the identity, instead of steadily increasing, it fell off from 291,000 in 1848 to 155,000 in 1852. There is a suggestion here of failing memory, which is augmented on the previous page and makes us wonder how far the trouble goes. On page 60, we are told that James G. Birney "finally located in Washington, where he for a short time published the *National Era*." Mr. Stuart has confounded Birney with Gamaliel Bailey, who established the *National Era* after having for ten years edited the *Philanthropist*, which was Birney's paper in 1836 and 1837, in Cincinnati On the same page we are told that Birney's party in 1840 was "called the Free-Soil party," as it was not, and that its candidate for Vice-President was "Thomas Earl" of Philadelphia (it was Thomas Earle). A careful editor could not have let such an agglomeration of mistakes escape. It is a little matter, but if Dr. Thompson had known how Dr. Samuel Hanson Cox expressed himself when asked why his son spelled his name "Coxe," he would not have spelled the Doctor's in that way, as he has done.

Mr. Stuart was a more than average specimen of the piety whose ascendancy in our national Government is strongly marked at the present time. Mr. John Wanamaker was his intimate friend and the teacher of a Bible class four hundred strong, in the Bethany Sabbath-school, which was of Mr. Stuart's making. There is a picture of Mr. Wanamaker that is radiant with self-satisfaction. Mr. Stuart's piety had the defects of its qualities: it did not err upon the side of delicacy or refinement; the coarser methods of Moody and other revivalists had for him great attraction, and he was an effective speaker as well as organizer in religions circles. He was not narrowly sectarian. One evangelical Christian was for him about as good as another. For his efforts in behalf of Presbyterian reunion in 1868 he was suspended from office and membership, on the ground that "he had sung hymns of human composition and communed with other than the Reformed Presbyterians." This was a pleasant martyrdom in many ways. If old friends fell off, new ones were extremely warm and flattering, and Mr. Beecher celebrated the event in a discourse of which Mr. Stuart was not a little proud.

But the sect which cast him out in 1868 had done him good service a generation back. After 1800 it denied even occasional communion to persons holding slaves. Mr. Stuart, while still in his teens, became strongly anti-slavery. He knew Benjamin Lundy. Because the Abolitionists, mainly Friends, did not open their meeting with prayer, he organized a Young Men's Anti-Slavery Society, which corrected the omission. The religiousness of the early anti-slavery agitators is allowed on page 58, but with an insinuation that afterwards they fell from grace. Mr. Stuart was one of the first political Abolitionists and a Republican from the start. He encouraged Grant's fatal predilection for rich men by the subscription for the house given to him in Philadelphia. Mr. Stuart managed this, and four years later was offered the Treasury in Grant's Cabinet. He declined the place, and suggested A. T. Stewart, another Scotch Irishman in Dr. Thompson's extensive list of those Scotch-Irish Presbyterians who have been prominent among us. It is probably not very critical, for it includes "the Websters," and Daniel certainly was not of this stock.

The most important public station held by Mr. Stuart was the Presidency of the Christian Commission. His account of this is marred by the absence of any generous recognition of the work of the Sanitary Commission. There is the frankest possible admission that the Christian Commission was organized "mainly to reach and help men spiritually," and some would have had its work exclusive of all temporal and material help. Mr. Stuart was too shrewd, as well as too kind, to be taken in this snare. He wished to supplement the work of the Sanitary Commission, and he wished to commend his theological wares to the soldiers by offering them "a prize in every package."

Mr. Stuart's business career had not the circumstances of poverty for its beginning which are so dear to the biographers and the writers of moral tales. His father was a thrifty and successful farmer and manufacturer. The son came to America in 1831. His great success in business had a painful termination in 1879, when the house of Stuart & Brother, in which he had been a partner for forty years, went into liquidation. The circumstances are withheld, but that they brought no stain on Mr. Stuart's character is evidenced by the enthusiasm with which a bank was organized of which he was made the President. He was born April 2, 1816, and died April 11, 1890. He was married on the great day of the bank suspensions in 1837, and as he went for the doctor for the birth of his first child he passed Pennsylvania Hall in flames, the work of a pro-slavery mob, May 17, 1838.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldé, H. Songs without Music. 3d ed. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Austin, J. W. Literary Papers of William Austin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Caliwell, F. M. Dorothy Arden. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Fairfield, Abbie H. Starting Points. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Gurney, E. H. Reference Handbook of English History. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Haskins, Rev. T. W. Is the Papacy in Prophecy? Oakland: Pacific Press Publishing Co.
Heddeus, J. Lord Ively: An Epic Poem. John B. Alden.
Higher Grade English. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 50 cents.
Hyde, F. W. The Directional Calculus. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Japp, A. H. Thomas De Quincey: His Life and Writings. New ed. London: John Hogg.
Johnson, J. The Defense of Charleston Harbor. Charleston: Walker, Evans & Cogswell Co.
Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies and Practice at Law, in Equity, and under the Codes. Vol. VI. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Lellyett, J. Letters to Goldwin of Gas (R. G. Ingersoll). Nashville: Barbee & Smith.
Lower Grade English. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 40 cents.
Matheson, A. The Religion of Humanity, and Other Poems. London: Percival & Co.
Melville, M. C. The Lost Ring. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
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Michaelis, R. Looking Further Forward. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.

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The EDITION of THE NATION this week is 12,500 copies. The Subscription List is always open to the inspection of advertisers.

*** Copies of THE NATION may be procured in Paris at Brentano's, 17 Avenue de l'Opéra; and in London of B. F. Stevens, 4 Trafalgar Square, Brentano's 430 Strand, and George Street, 30 Cornhill, E. C.

London agent for advertisements, R. J. Bush, 92 Fleet St., E. C.

Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

COLORADO, Golden.

STATE SCHOOL OF MINES.—Established 1874. Fall term opens Sept. 24, with new buildings and greatly enlarged facilities. Full course in Metallurgy, Mining Engineering, Analytical Chemistry, and Assaying. Tuition free. Circular for fall term sent on application.

CONNECTICUT, Clinton.

A HOME AND SCHOOL.—*J. H.* Sperry, A.M., Asst. Prin. Morgan School, which fits thoroughly for College or business, receives four boys into his family. Personal Circular and School Catalogue on application.

CONNECTICUT, Greenwich.

ACADEMY AND HOME FOR TEN Boys.—(Sixty-fifth year of Academy, Eleventh of Home.) Thorough preparation for college or for business. Absolutely healthful location and genuine home, with the most refined surroundings. Good Gymnasium. Highest references given and required. J. H. ROOT, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Hamden.

RECTORY SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—$325 to $375. Homelike influences combined with firm discipline and thorough school system. Extensive grounds, gymnasium, boat-house, etc. Send for circular. Rev. H. L. EVERETT, M. A., Rector.

CONNECTICUT, Hartford.

WOODSIDE—*Home and College-Preparatory* School for Girls will reopen September 17. Address Miss SARA J. SMITH, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Lyme.

BLACK HALL SCHOOL—*A FAMILY* and preparatory school for boys; highest references from parents and from members of the Faculty of Yale University. CHAS. G. BARTLETT, A.M., Prin.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven.

1660-1890.—*HOPKINS GRAMMAR* School. Prepares thoroughly for Colleges and Scientific Schools. For Catalogue address GEORGE L. FOX, Rector.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven, West End Institute.

MRS. CADY'S SCHOOL FOR YOUNG Ladies. Institute Course of Study and College Preparatory Course. Admits to either Smith, Vassar, or Wellesley by certificate. Circulars. Early application necessary.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven, 136 Sherman Ave.

THE ELDERAGE.—*FAMILY SCHOOL* for Young Ladies, pleasantly located in the suburbs of the city. The Misses BANGS, Principals.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

MISS BAIRD'S INSTITUTE—*A* Home School for Girls and Young Ladies.—Number of boarding pupils limited to 20. Excellent advantages in Music, Art, and the Languages. A new gymnasium, with the most improved appliances. Pleasant grounds, healthful location. Pupils boarded through the summer months. Board and tuition in the English branches $300 per scholastic year. Send for circular.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

NORWALK MILITARY INSTI- TUTE.—Thorough teaching, careful training, moderate charges. Superior building, gymnasium, bowling alleys. F. S. ROBERTS, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

MR. E. H. WILSON'S SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Thorough preparation, not merely for entrance to college, but for work in college.

CONNECTICUT, Pomfret Centre.

THE MISSES VINTON'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen Tuesday, October 7. Number limited.

CONNECTICUT, Wallingford.

ROSEMARY HALL.—*BOARDING* and Day School for Young Ladies. Academical and preparatory courses. Principals—Miss LANSING and Miss RUUTZ REES. Christmas Term begins October 2. For Catalogues address Rosemary Hall.

CONNECTICUT, Waterbury.

ST. MARGARET'S DIOCESAN School for Girls.—Sixteenth year. Advent Term begins (D. V.) Thursday, Sept. 18, 1890. The Rev. Francis T. Russell, M.A., Rector. The Rev. John H. McCracken, M.A., Junior Rector.

DELAWARE, Wilmington, Franklin Street.

THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1890.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

THE COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY—*Medical* College, Medical School, Dental School, Law School, Scientific School. For catalogues, address DR. JAMES C. WELLING, President.

ILLINOIS, Chicago.

UNION COLLEGE OF LAW.—*FOR* catalogues or information address as above.

ILLINOIS, Chicago.

CHICAGO ATHENÆUM—*TWENTI-* eth year. Open to both sexes and all ages. All studies elective. It provides thorough instruction in Academic Course, Business and Shorthand College, in Drawing, Mathematics, Elocution, French, German, and Latin, Literature and Music. It maintains a choice Library and spacious Gymnasium. In January, 1891, it will occupy a large and beautiful building of its own in the heart of Chicago, next to the Art Institute. For Catalogue, address E. I. GALVIN, Superintendent.

ILLINOIS, Highland Park.

NORTHWESTERN MILITARY ACA- DEMY.—Col. H. P. Davidson, Supt. Reopens Sept. 17; 23 miles from Chicago. Graduates commissioned in State Militia.

ILLINOIS, Woodstock.

TODD SEMINARY FOR BOYS AND Youth.—42d year commences Sept. 17, 1890. Boys from 8 to 18 years preferred—prepared for college or business. A delightful home—manners, morals, and health carefully guarded. Address Rev. R. K. TODD, A.M., Principal.

LOUISIANA, New Orleans, 247 Prytania Street.

MRS. F. D. BLAKE AND MRS. L. Polk Chapman's French and English Boarding and Day School for Girls reopens Oct. 1, 1890. Students prepared for college. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

MAINE, Portland.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN A. BELLOWS School for Young Ladies reopens September 16, 1890. Address Deanforth St., Portland, Me.

MARYLAND, Annapolis.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—*102D SES-* sion commences September 17. Eight Departments and four courses of study. Buildings heated by steam. Terms moderate. For Catalogues, address the President. THOMAS FELL, LL.D., Ph.D.

MARYLAND, Baltimore 1214 Eutaw Place.

MISS RANDOLPH'S SCHOOL, LO- cated in the most beautiful part of the city, opens Sept. 25, with a very able corps of teachers. Students prepared for college. Principals—Miss S. N. Randolph, Mrs. A. L. Armstrong.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 16 Mount Vernon Place.

MOUNT VERNON INSTITUTE.—Mrs. Julia R. Tutwiler and Mrs. Anne Cabell Rust Princip's. Boarding and Day School for Young Ladies and Little Girls. Boarding pupils limited to twenty. Reopens September 24.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 915 and 917 N. Charles Street.

SOUTHERN HOME SCHOOL FOR Girls.—Mrs. W. M. Cary, Miss Cary. Established 1842. Summer address, Bar Harbor, Me.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122 and 124 West Franklin Street.

EDGEWORTH BOARDING AND DAY School for young ladies will reopen Thursday, September 18. Mrs. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal.

MARYLAND, Catonsville.

ST. TIMOTHY'S ENGLISH, FRENCH, and German Boarding School for Young Ladies reopens September 18, 1890. Principals—Miss M. C. and S. R. CARTER.

MARYLAND, Ellicott City.

MAUPIN'S UNIVERSITY SCHOOL. —Ninth session opens 18th September. For terms, address CHAPMAN MAUPIN, M.A., Principal.

MARYLAND, Lutherville, near Baltimore.

$225 *PER YEAR AT LUTHERVILLE* Seminary for Young Ladies. 38th year. Graduates in English, Classical, Scientific, and Music Schools. Modern conveniences, full Faculty, thorough training, and *home* comforts. Send for Catalogue. Rev. J. H. TURNER, A.M.

MARYLAND, Reisterstown, near Baltimore.

THE HANNAH MORE ACADEMY for Girls—Western Maryland Railroad.—Long noted for healthfulness, careful training, and thorough instruction. Rev. ARTHUR J. RICH, A.M., M.D.

MARYLAND, St. George's, near Baltimore.

ST. GEORGE'S HALL, FOR BOYS and Young Men.—English, Classical, and Commercial, and unsurpassed in advantages, situation, health and comfort. Moderate charges. Prof. J. C. KINEAR, Principal.

MARYLAND, St. Mary's County, Charlotte Hall.

1774-1890.—*CHARLOTTE HALL* SCHOOL.—Situation unsurpassed. English, Classical, Mathematical, Commercial, and Military Courses. Board and tuition, $160 for 10 months. Address R. W. SYLVESTER.

MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

OAK GROVE, HOME SCHOOL FOR Young Ladies, reopens September 18, 1890. Building remodelled and enlarged. Pupils admitted to Smith and Wellesley on our certificate. Miss VRYLING W. BUFFUM, A.B., Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

MRS. W. F. STEARNS'S HOME School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 18, 1890.

MASSACHUSETTS, Andover.

ABBOT ACADEMY FOR YOUNG Ladies will begin its 62d year Sept. 11, with enlarged facilities, in its new and improved buildings. Terms, $400 a year. PHILENA MCKEEN, Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Berkshire Co., Berkshire.

CRESTALBON FARM.—*A Home School* for six boys. Preparation for college or business. For circular, address EDWARD T. FISHER.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY Law School, Address the Dean. EDMUND H. BENNETT, LL.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 259 Boylston Street.

CHAUNCY-HALL SCHOOL (62d Year), For boys and girls.—Preparation for the Mass. Institute of Technology is a specialty. Reference is made to the Institute Faculty. The location of the school building, on Copley Square, is especially attractive and is very near the Institute.

Preparation also for college (with or without Greek) and for business. Special students received.

Schools.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 324 Commonwealth Avenue.

THE MISSES GILMAN WILL RE-open their Home and Day School for Young Ladies October 1.
Circulars on application.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 76 Marlborough St.

MISS BROWN AND MISS OWEN reopen their Home and Day School for Girls Oct. 1. Certificate admits to Smith and Wellesley.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 18 Newbury Street.

MISS ABBY H. JOHNSON'S HOME and Day School for Young Ladies reopens October 1, 1890.
Superior opportunities for the study of Language, Literature, History, and Philosophy.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 112 Newbury Street.

THE MISSES HUBBARD'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen October 1, 1890. A limited number of boarding scholars will be received.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 5 Otis Place.

MR. HALE'S SCHOOL PREPARES for Harvard College and the Institute of Technology, on the same courses of study. Physical Science, Mathematics, and Modern Languages the prominent features.

MASSACHUSETTS, Bradford.

CARLETON SCHOOL FOR YOUNG Men and Boys.—Superior training; best home care. Number limited. Reopens sept. 10, 1890. $550 per year. E. N. CARLETON, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Brookline, Cypress Street.

MISS LEWIS'S SCHOOL FOR GIRLS. —Three miles out of Boston. Fall term begins Oct. 1, 1890.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge.

THE CAMBRIDGE SCHOOL AND Margaret Winthrop Hall, English, Classical, and Elective Courses for Girls. Home comforts and social cultivation. Building and furniture new. No crowding. Applicants must be over fourteen. Address Mr. ARTHUR GILMAN.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, 13 Appian Way.

DAY AND FAMILY SCHOOL FOR Boys. Fits for college. Boys taken care of during the summer, with or without instruction, on the coast of Maine. Address for the Summer, Islesford, Me. Circulars, JOSHUA KENDALL, A. M.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, 8 Garden Street.

BROWNE & NICHOLS'S SCHOOL FOR Boys reopens Sept. 24. Entrance and Condition Examinations sept. 23. Preparatory department full; a few vacancies in Classes I, II, and IV. Address the Principals at Rockport, Mass.
GEORGE H. BROWNE. EDGAR H. NICHOLS.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, Larch Street.

HOME FOR BOYS.—DR. ABBOT AD-mits not more than four boys into his family, to fit for college or educate privately. Separate tuition, with best of care in all respects. Charming location with fine tennis-court. F. E. ABBOT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Concord.

HOME SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—SIX boys received into the family to prepare for College or business. Charming situation. Tennis, rowing, and canoeing. French spoken in the family. Separate tuition and board. Health of pupils JAMES S. GARLAND, A.B., Harv., 1866.

MASSACHUSETTS, Danvers.

THE WILLARD COLLEGE PREPA-RATORY and Home School for Young Ladies will reopen Sept. 10. Full corps of teachers. Certificates accepted at Smith and Wellesley. For circular, address MRS. H. M. MERRILL.

MASSACHUSETTS, Duxbury, Powder Point.

POWDER POINT SCHOOL.—PRE-pares for scientific school, college, or business. Laboratories. The boys are members of the family. FREDERICK B. KNAPP, S.B. (M.I.T.)

MASSACHUSETTS, Greenfield.

PROSPECT HILL School for Young Ladies.—21st year. Regular and Special Courses. Beautiful and healthful location. Our certificate admits to Smith. Science, Art, Music. J. C. PARSONS, Prin.

MASSACHUSETTS, Plymouth.

MR. KNAPP'S HOME SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Twenty-fourth year begins Oct. 1, 1890. Mrs. Knapp, Prin.; H. B. LEARNED (Harv.), H'd Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Quincy.

ADAMS ACADEMY, PREPARA-tory and Boarding School for Boys.—School Year begins September 17. For all information address WILLIAM EVERETT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, South Braintree.

THE THAYER ACADEMY.—FIRST Term, fourteenth year, begins September 17, 1890. For information address J. B. SEWALL.

MASSACHUSETTS, Springfield.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN McDUFFIE, Successors to Miss Catharine L. Howard in her School for Girls. Address Mrs. JOHN McDUFFIE, care of Miss Catharine L. Howard.

MASSACHUSETTS, West Newton.

WEST NEWTON ENGLISH AND Classical School.—Thirty-seventh year begins Wednesday, Sept. 17, 1890. A family school for lads and misses; prepares for college, scientific school, business life. For catalogue and particulars, address NATH'L T. ALLEN. At home first week in August and after Sept. 10.

Schools.

MASSACHUSETTS, Wilbraham.

WESLEYAN ACADEMY—ONE OF the half-dozen best academic and classical schools in New England. The payment of $61 in advance will cover ordinary tuition, with board, for Fall term, beginning August 27. Send for catalogue to Rev. G. M. STEELE, Prin.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC IN-STITUTE.—Courses in Civil, Mechanical, and Electrical Engineering, Chemistry, and Physical and Political Science. New and finely equipped laboratories and workshops. Address H. T. FULLER, Ph.D., President of Faculty.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

JOHN W. DALZELL'S PRIVATE School for Boys, at 66 West St., opens Sept. 10. Preparation for College. Send for Catalogue.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

MRS. THROOP'S SCHOOL FOR Young Ladies and Children. College preparatory. Reopens Oct. 1. $600 per year.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

THE HOME SCHOOL.—MISS KIM-BALL'S Day and Boarding School for Girls is finely located in the delightful city of Worcester. Pleasant, cheerful home. College-preparatory and special courses. Desirable home for motherless girls. Address HOME SCHOOL.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

THE HIGHLAND MILITARY ACA-DEMY begins 35th year Sept 17. Classical, Scientific, Business. JOSEPH ALDEN SHAW, A.M., Head Master.

MICHIGAN, Ann Arbor.

SCHOOL OF CHEMISTRY, University of Michigan.—The Annual Directory of the Alumni, showing what each graduate is now doing, sent on request.

MICHIGAN, Houghton.

MICHIGAN MINING SCHOOL.—A State School of Surveying, Mining, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, Physics, Chemistry, Assaying, Ore Dressing, Mineralogy Petrography, Geology, Drafting, Machine Design, etc. Tuition free. For catalogues and information, address M. E. WADSWORTH, A.M., Ph.D., Director.

MICHIGAN, Orchard Lake.

MICHIGAN MILITARY ACADEMY. —A College Preparatory School of the highest grade. Location thirty miles from Detroit, and unsurpassed for beauty and healthfulness. For catalogue, address Col. J. S. ROGERS, Supt.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, Exeter.

THE PHILLIPS EXETER ACADE-MY. The 108th year begins September 10, 1890. For Catalogues and information apply to the Secretary.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, Portsmouth.

MISS A. C. MORGAN'S SCHOOL FOR young ladies reopens Sept. 24, 1890. J. G. Whittier says: "A better, healthier, and pleasanter place for a school could scarcely be found in New England."

NEW JERSEY, Beverly.

TRINITY HALL.—YOUNG LADIES' Home-School of the highest order. Solid culture in English, Music, Art, and Languages. Careful training in manner, mind, and heart. Twenty-third year begins September 25. For circular address the Principal, RACHELLE GIBBONS HUNT.

NEW JERSEY, Bridgeton, Seven Gables.

MRS. WESTCOTT'S BOARDING School for Young Ladies, in South Jersey, prepares for any college. Climate mild and dry. Gymnasium. Illustrated circular.

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.

ST. MARY'S HALL, THE OLDEST Church School in the country for Girls, will begin its 64th School Year on Sept. 29. For Catalogue apply to the Principal, Miss CHARLOTTE TUTCOMB, or to the Bishop of New Jersey, the President.

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.

BURLINGTON COLLEGE.—A School for boys. Prepares for college or business. Opens Sept. 29. Address Rev. C. W. DUANE, Prin.

NEW JERSEY, Englewood, Dwight Place.

MISS CREIGHTON AND MISS FAR-RAR'S School for Girls. Near Palisades of the Hudson.

NEW JERSEY, Freehold.

FREEHOLD INSTITUTE.—ESTAB-lished 1844. College preparation a specialty. Family school for boys. Primary, High School, and Classical Courses. Gymnasium. A. A. CHAMBERS, A.M.

NEW JERSEY, Lakewood.

ALL-THE-YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL for Boys. Address HEAD MASTER, Lock Box 785, Philadelphia P. O., Pa.

NEW JERSEY, Lakewood.

LAKEWOOD HEIGHTS SCHOOL.— A thorough and attractive school for boys. Opens sept. 30. JAMES W. MOREY, A.M., Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Morristown.

MISS E. ELIZABETH DANA'S School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 23. Terms, board and tuition in English, Latin, and French, $600. Circulars on application.

NEW JERSEY, Mount Holly.

MOUNT HOLLY ACADEMY FOR Boys.—Near Philadelphia. Healthful, helpful, homelike. Education with formation of character. College Prep., English, and Business Courses. $350 per year. HENRY M. WALRADT, Yale, Prin.

Schools.

NEW JERSEY, New Brunswick.

RUTGERS COLLEGE PREPARA-tory School. Boarding school for boys and young men. Prepares for the best colleges, scientific schools or business.
E. H. COOK, A.M., Ph.D.,
Head Master.

NEW JERSEY, Short Hills.

BAQUET INSTITUTE.—ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and children. Mlle. HARRIET S. BAQUET, Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Summit.

SUMMIT ACADEMY.—PREPARA-tory School for Boys. Six boarding pupils received. Military Drill. Reopens Sept. 18. For circular, address JAMES HEARD, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Albany, 42 Lancaster St.

THE ALBANY HOME SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF is adapted to the training and oral instruction of the deaf. Boarding or day pupils. Special training for very young children. Send for circular. MISS A. M. BLACK, Principal.

NEW YORK, Albany.

THE ALBANY ACADEMY.—77TH year. Prepares boys for any College or Scientific School. Twenty reliable boys placed in small groups in private families. HENRY P. WARREN, A.B., Prin.

NEW YORK, Aurora.

WELLS COLLEGE FOR WOMEN.— Three Full Courses of Study. Location beautiful and healthful. A refined Christian Home. New building ready next September. Session begins September 10, 1890. Send for Catalogue.
E. S. FRISBEE, D.D., President.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn, 160 Joralemon St.

MISS KATHERINE L. MALTBY, recently Principal of the Nassau Institute, will open her spacious and inviting residence sept. 24, 1890, for the reception of young ladies desirous to spend a winter in the city in the enjoyment of its art or musical advantages, for students who will attend the sessions of day-schools in Brooklyn, or for pupils who wish special instruction under her charge. 2d Year. Address for Circular, Miss MALTBY, Prin.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn.

BROOKLYN HEIGHTS SEMINARY. —Boarding and Day School for Girls. 40th year opens Sept. 25. Address for circulars, 138–140 Montague St.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn, 140-142 Columbia Heights.

THE MISSES ELY'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen October 1, 1890.

NEW YORK, Buffalo, 284 Delaware Ave.

BUFFALO SEMINARY.—THE FOR-tieth year begins September 17. For circulars, address Mrs. C. F. HARTT.

NEW YORK CITY, 6 and 8 East 53d St.

THE REED SCHOOL.
Miss Julia G. McAllister, Principal (*succeeding Mrs. Sylvanus Reed, who continues as visitor*). 27th year begins Oct. 1.

NEW YORK CITY, 343 Madison Avenue.

BARNARD COLLEGE FOR WOMEN. —Degrees given by Columbia College. Fall entrance examinations begin Sept. 29. Free scholarship of $150 offered to the student that passes the best examinations for admission to the Freshman Class. Botanical and Chemical Laboratories, admitting special students. Circulars upon application to Secretary.

NEW YORK CITY, 423 Madison Avenue.

J. H. MORSE'S SCHOOL FOR BOYS reopens Oct. 1. Full Primary, Intermediate, and Academic Courses. Until Sept. 15 the Principal's address is Cotuit, Mass.

NEW YORK CITY, 348 Madison Avenue.

MISS JAUDON'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen Oct. 1. Number of boarding pupils limited. Class for little children. Preparation for Harvard Examinations and Barnard College.

NEW YORK CITY, 624 Madison Ave., near 59th St.

THE BENTLEY SCHOOL FOR BOYS. —Principal, William Jones, A.B., Harvard. July and August, Far Rockaway, L. I.

NEW YORK CITY, 1061 Madison Avenue.

CLASSICAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.— Unusual advantages for boarding pupils. Certificate admits to Wellesley and other Colleges. Reopens Oct. 1. Miss NORTH and Miss BARNES, Principals.

NEW YORK CITY, 525 Park Ave., cor. of 61st St.

ACADEMIC CLASSES FOR GIRLS.— Preparation for the Harvard Examinations. Barnard, and other colleges for women; number limited to fifteen; special attention to English, elocution, and physical culture; Delsarto system of gymnastics. For circulars and other information, address Miss LOIS A. BANGS, or Miss MARY B. WHITON, A.B.
References—The Hon. Seth Low, Pres. Columbia College; the Rev. L. Clark Seelye, D.D., Pres. Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; Truman J. Backus, LL.D., Principal of Packer Institute, Brooklyn; James G. Croswell, Head Master of the Irvarley School for Girls, N. Y.; Edward B. Bartlett, Brooklyn; Mrs. George F. Canfield, N. Y.; Frederic R. Coudert, LL.D., N. Y.; Edmund C. Stedman, N. Y.

NEW YORK CITY, 32 West 40th Street.

THE COMSTOCK SCHOOL.—ESTAB-lished 1862. Boarding and Day School for Girls. Reopens Oct. 1. Miss DAY, Principal.

NEW YORK CITY, 55 West 47th Street.

MISS GIBBONS'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen October 1. Three boarding pupils will be received into the family.

Schools.

NEW YORK CITY, 50 West 104th St

THE RIVERSIDE SCHOOL FOR Girls, removed to 50 West 104th street, corner Manhattan Avenue. Miss Emily A. Ward, principal. College preparation. Spacious quarters for resident pupils. Reopens September 17.

NEW YORK, Claverack.

CLAVERACK COLLEGE AND HUDSON RIVER INSTITUTE.—Healthfully and beautifully located in the Hudson River Valley. Affords superior advantages for thorough and systematic education to young men and women. Careful attention given by a strong faculty of experienced professors and teachers to intellectual, social, moral, and physical culture. A Conservatory of Music and Art of high grade. 87th year opens Sept. 15. Send for illustrated Catalogue. Rev. A. H. FLACK, A.M., President.

NEW YORK, Clinton.

KIRKLAND HALL.—A Home School for Younger Boys. College Preparatory Course, Business Course. Terms, $350. Address KIRKLAND HALL.

NEW YORK, Fort Edward.

FORT EDWARD COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE for Young Women. Superior buildings, appointments, and advantages. $220. Send for illustrated Catalogue. Jos. E. KING, D.D., Pres.

NEW YORK, Geneva.

HOBART COLLEGE.—COMPETITIVE entrance examination for the "President's Scholarships" (values $280, $175, $150), and general entrance examinations Sept. 16 and 17. For information, address Prof. W. P. DURFEE, Dean.

NEW YORK, Glen Cove.

DOSORIS SCHOOL—A HIGH CLASS school for boys; $600 to $750 per year. Summer session June 16 to September 15. Terms, $75 per month. B. F. O'CONNOR, B.L., Ph.D. Director.

NEW YORK, Kingston-on-Hudson.

GOLDEN HILL PREPARATORY School for Boys. Sixth year begins September 24. JOHN M. CROSS, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Long Island, Garden City.

THE CATHEDRAL SCHOOL OF ST. Paul.—Endowed school for boys. Seventeen miles from New York. Ten resident masters; seven visiting instructors. Prepares for any college or scientific school. Has graduates in the leading colleges. Military drill under a U. S. Army officer. Through the munificence of the late A. T. Stewart the building is one of the finest school buildings in the U. S., and every department is thoroughly equipped. Excellent laboratories for individual work in Chemistry and Physics. English required throughout the course. Location unsurpassed in healthfulness. CHAS. STURTEVANT MOORE, A.B. (Harvard), Head Master.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.

RIVERVIEW ACADEMY,—55TH Year. Prepares thoroughly for College, the Government Academies, and Business. Military drill. BISBEE & AMEN, Principals.

NEW YORK, Saratoga Springs.

TEMPLE GROVE LADIES' SEMINARY.—Superior facilities for the higher Sciences, Philosophy, Languages, Music, Painting, æsthetic and social culture. 36th year begins Sept. 17. C. F. DOWD, Ph.D., Pres.

NEW YORK, Syracuse.

MRS. ALFRED WILKINSON'S School for Girls. Reopens September 17, 1890. Refers to Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, George Wm. Curtis, Hon. Wayne McVeagh, Rev. Edward Everett Hale, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Hon. Andrew D. White.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown.

HOME INSTITUTE.—A BOARDING and day school for young ladies and little girls. Will reopen Sept. 17. Miss M. W. METCALF, Principal.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown-on-Hudson.

MISS BULKLEY'S BOARDING AND Day School for Girls will reopen Wednesday, September 17.

NORTH CAROLINA, Asheville.

RAVENSCROFT SCHOOL.—PREPARATORY Boarding and Day School for Boys. Head Master, Ronald MacDonald, B.A., Oxford.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

BARTHOLOMEW ENGLISH AND Classical Home and Day School for Girls. Board and tuition $600 school year. G. K. BARTHOLOMEW, Ph.D.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

EDEN PARK SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—Tenth year. This school is remarkable for its beautiful location, high patronage, home life, unsurpassed advantages for modern languages, music, etc., etc. For circulars, address Mme. FREDIN, as above.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

MISS ARMSTRONG'S SCHOOL FOR Girls, Liddesdale Place, Avondale. Family limited to eighteen. Circulars sent on application.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, Academic Department.—Coeducational. Eight complete courses, four years each: Classical, one course; Letters, two; Science, four (Chemistry, Physics, Biology, and Astronomy); Civil Engineering, one course. The laboratories are well equipped. Tuition is free to residents of the State, and $90 per year to non-residents. Academic year begins September 18, 1890. For catalogues and other information, address the Dean, H. T. EDDY, Cincinnati.

OHIO, Cincinnati, Walnut Hills.

MISS NOURSE WILL REOPEN HER English and French Family and Day School September 30, 1890. Pupils take special work, or the full course for college examinations.

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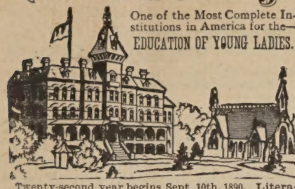

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 21, 1890.

The Week.

THE mixed Republican situation at Washington does not leave much of the campaign boast that the Republican party is the only one that has brains enough to rule the country. Congress has been in session nearly nine months, and, aside from splitting the Republican party into several factions, absolutely nothing has been accomplished. One stock argument against putting the Democratic party in power was that it would unsettle the business of the country by revising the tariff. The Republican party, we were assured, would legislate in regard to the tariff in such a way as to make business more stable than ever. What is the situation today? The House, by revolutionizing its procedure, has "railroaded" through a tariff bill which greatly increases tariff duties, and does several other things which nobody really comprehends. The business interests of the country, expecting to see the same bill pass the Senate, adjusted themselves to meet the new conditions which it would bring about. Having done this, they are confronted with a grave doubt whether the bill will ever become a law. The result is greater commercial uncertainty than the country has seen for many years, with no prospect of relief for a considerable time to come.

The New York *Tribune* and its weak echo, the Philadelphia *Press*, vehemently denounce Senator Quay for his proposition to drop the Force Bill, and loudly call upon the Republican Senators to defeat it. But other Republican newspapers take a very different view of the matter. The Philadelphia *Inquirer*, for example, declares that "it is a timely measure, and will be adopted." In the same line is the leading editorial article in the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, entitled "Wise and Timely," which declares that "the resolution offered by Mr. Quay in the Senate Wednesday ought to receive the prompt approval of every Republican Senator," and says that "it is evident from this resolution that Senator Quay has been observing the temper and disposition of the Republican party. His programme," it adds, "is exactly in line with the wishes of the prudent and moderate Republicans all over the country who are anxious that the party shall not be allowed to drift on the rocks, and that it shall go into the coming campaign without being dragged down by the heavy loads which some of the leaders in Congress have been endeavoring to place upon it." Referring to the attitude of the *Tribune* and its Philadelphia echo, the *Bulletin* says that "they have certainly failed on this occasion to gauge the prevailing sentiment in the party," and concludes that Quay's "resolution, far from being cowardly, is a most timely exhibition of political sagacity."

We suggest to our distressed Republican contemporaries that they can get even with Senator Quay by giving free expression to their real opinions concerning the charges against him as a public thief. They have hitherto given him the benefit of their silence on the subject, but he is clearly so deficient in a proper sense of gratitude for it that he deserves it no longer. What is the use of allowing a thief to stay in the party and escape all censure by its organs if he is going to desert the party in a crisis and turn a deaf ear to their exhortations? A few plain words about Quay's real character, as both the *Tribune* and the *Press* understand it, would not only make him more docile, but would serve as a useful warning to future leaders of his character who get the pernicious notion into their heads that they are bigger than the party. We should imagine, also, that truthful speech on this subject would be a great relief even to a Harrison editor.

It was a significant feature of the Republican caucus on Thursday that the strongest opposition to the passage of the Force Bill came from those Senators, like Mr. Washburn of Minnesota, who have recently been to their homes, and thus had a chance to learn how little support the policy has among their constituents. As in Minnesota, so in Wisconsin, the leading Republican organ of the State is against the passage of the bill. The Milwaukee *Sentinel* of August 13 thus defines its position: "The *Sentinel* has not changed its views in regard to that measure. It never doubted the right of Congress to pass such an enactment, nor the existence of abuses it is designed to abate; but it did and does question the expediency of attempting to enact it. This doubt as to its expediency is based on the opinion that it will not be effective to assure honest elections where the great frauds upon the ballot-box are practised, while it will be used, as it is already used, by political demagogues to perpetuate unjust animosities against the Republican party, and open still wider the fountains of sectional distrust and hatred in the South."

Other Republican newspapers in the West are equally emphatic in calling for an abandonment of the Force Bill. The St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, in its latest article upon the subject, talks in this way: "We have to ask, once more, what is the object of passing it? It will not do away in the slightest particular with the frauds upon the ballot practised at the South. It will not secure to the negro voter a single right now refused to him. It will not accomplish any practical result not attained by the law as it stands." As for the modifications of the bill made by the Senate Committee, the St. Paul newspaper holds that "there is, as far as we can see, less reason for the passage of the Senate bill than for that of the bill passed by the House." It finds an added argument against the policy in the fact, so thoroughly established by the correspondent whom the Philadelphia *Press* sent through the South, that "the Southern Republicans do not want a Federal Election Law at all," and in view of all the considerations involved, it declares that "the advocates of Federal control of elections, though their motives are good and the crimes that arouse them are real, attempt the impossible. The objections to any practical application of the principle so far suggested are sustained both by public opinion and by the report of the Senate Bill."

Ex-Chairman Jones of Pittsburgh has furnished a rational explanation of Senator Quay's movement to shelve the Force Bill. The object, he says, is to get the Tariff Bill through. Naturally Jones endorses this project. "Mr. Quay is perfectly right," says Jones in the interview telegraphed from Pittsburgh. "If something of the sort was not done, the Democrats could compel the session to continue for an indefinite period. These resolutions will also allow the passage of the Tariff Bill. That is just now of more importance than the Election Bill. The Senate hasn't any one to force matters as Reed did in the House, because it is a much more conservative body and has got to act in a more serious way." Independently of Mr. Jones's rational explanation we might be sure that if there were any money in sight, Quay's line of march would be in that direction. The only money in sight in the present Republican *débâcle* is in the Tariff Bill. When he moves to postpone the Force Bill till next session and to commence voting on the Tariff Bill on the 30th of August, we can easily see that Quay's creditors—the contributors to the Harrison campaign fund—are pressing their claims. That they began to be alarmed some weeks ago was made plain by the outcry of the organ of the Protective Tariff League. Quay was undoubtedly called on to make good his promises, and he has devised the plan of unloading the Force Bill in order to save the subscription list.

The organ of the Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia has quite outdone Senator Quay and ex-Chairman Jones in its attitude towards the Federal Election Bill. The *Manufacturer* says that the Election Bill ought not to be passed at all, even if there were abundance of time for it. Moreover, "the sentiment of the Republican party, *outside the circle of professional politicians*, is against the adoption of the Federal Elections Bill." The reasons why the bill ought not to pass are stated with considerable force, and we especially commend them to Senator Hoar, who appears to be classed by the *Manufacturer* with "the circle of professional politicians," while Quay occupies the more lofty position of statesmanship. The reasons are (1) that this is no time to be stirring up sectional animosities; (2) that the bill

if passed will fail of its purpose; (3) that instead of breaking the solid South, it will make it more solid than ever; (4) that it will play the mischief in the North by giving an opportunity for every discontented faction that can muster one hundred cranks, to have their Congressional election put under Federal supervision; (5) that the Republican party is now in good health and needs no medicine. All of these reasons except the last have been so often repeated in our columns that it would be superfluous to dwell upon them. As to the last reason we have our doubts.

The *Tribune* of Friday morning "gave away" its party again almost as badly as it did in confessing to the manner of Harrison's election. In stating reasons why the Election Bill should be passed by the Senate it says: "*The Election Bill carries within itself the assurance of future tariff bills by the hundred.*" That is to say, while every business interest demands a settlement of the tariff question, and while many a promise has been made (some of them, we think, in the *Tribune*) that the passage of the McKinley Bill would afford a settlement for ten years or more, the *Tribune* now lets out the secret that if this Force Bill, by means of which it is expected to perpetuate the Republican majority in Congress, goes through, it will mean the passage of future "tariff bills by the hundred." In other words, the Republican leaders will stand ready to pass a tariff bill to suit any manufacturer who will submit with sufficient grace to the fat-frying process. There is no doubt that this is the actual programme which the Republican bosses in the present House of Representatives have in view; but how do these bosses like to have the *Tribune* betray it, and how do the business interests of the country enjoy the prospect?

The most important word said on the subject of the national finances in either branch of Congress was said by Senator Edmunds on Saturday while the River and Harbor Bill was under consideration. We quote from the *Congressional Record*:

"The state of the Treasury, Mr. President, I am very much afraid—I am almost afraid to say it; it may not be Republicanism or whatever—may turn out, as we now stand on the appropriations proposed in this bill and in the other bills that have passed both houses and that have passed one or the other, and which, in the round effect, will come to be the law that is passed, will turn out on the 30th of June, 1891, to be, I fear, $50,000,000 in round numbers short of the estimated income, assuming that we do not take the duty off sugar."

The Senator said also that he had intended to offer an amendment that one-half of the money in the bill be appropriated to be expended by the Secretary of War for rivers and harbors at his discretion, being satisfied that the Secretary would expend it for really national works, and not for neighborhood purposes. This would have been equivalent to cutting down the total appropriation one-half and eliminating all the special appropriations in the bill. "But," he added, "I have become convinced that I shall only weary the patience of the Senate and enter upon a perfectly useless and hopeless enterprise to do it; but I think it right to say what I have said." Senator Frye replied at considerable length, defending what Mr. Edmunds called the neighborhood appropriation, but made no kind of reference to the threatened deficit in the Treasury. Nor did any other Senator do so. The most important inference to be drawn from Mr. Edmunds's remarks is, that he intends to vote against any lessening of the sugar duties. A letter from him containing the same intimation is published in the Burlington *Free Press*.

The debate in the Senate on tin plate has lasted a whole week and is not yet ended. The earnestness of the opposition in the Senate to the increased duty is only a reflex of the popular opposition. There is, perhaps, no article in the whole bill about which such intense feeling exists. The motion made by Senator Plumb that the people be allowed to have tin plate at the former price, and that Mr. Cronemeyer of Pittsburgh be allowed a bounty of one cent per pound on all the tin plate he produces, would be acceptable as a compromise, but it will probably be defeated because it will not serve the purposes of the galvanized-iron-roofing interest. These people want tin plate kept out of reach as much as possible. They have somehow got hold of the Republican Machine—probably by contributions to the campaign fund—so that Senator Morrill of Vermont, who opposed any increase of the duty on tin plate when the tariff of 1883 was enacted, now indulges in sneers at his own constituents who venture to send him petitions against such increase. When the tariff of 1883 was under discussion, he treated similar petitions with much greater respect, saying:

"Before the Committee on Finance we had ever so many memorials from those using this article in the manufacture of cans for the purpose of canning fruit, vegetables, etc., asking that the duty should remain as it is; and instead of following the Tariff Commission, we put the duty precisely at what it now is, 1.1 cent a pound. I trust, notwithstanding the possibility that we might at some time hereafter manufacture tin, that we shall not raise the duty to two cents a pound, *for I somewhat doubt whether we can get children to dip this article* for a great many years yet, at the wages that are paid for dipping tagger's iron into melted tin."

Apparently Senator Morrill has become convinced that American children can now be had for this repulsive employment.

In his debate with Senator Gray last week Senator Aldrich laid himself open to a charge of unfair dealing, to put it mildly. The subject under discussion was the decline in the price of tin plates during a period of about ten years. Senator Gray had stated that this decline was about 50 per cent., and quoted from Mr. D. A. Wells's 'Recent Economic Changes' to show the fact and the causes of it. Mr. Aldrich challenged the statement in these words:

"Mr. Aldrich—For the purpose of showing not only the inaccuracy of Mr. Wells's statement, but the very gross inaccuracy of it, I desire to call the attention of the Senator from Delaware, and ask his examination of a series of charts which I have before me, issued by Henry Nash & Co. of Liverpool, who are the largest exporters of tin plates in Great Britain, showing the price from 1878 to the present time, by years and by months, of tin plate and of pig-tin. This table shows that the price of charcoal IC tin in January, 1878, was 20s. a box, and in December, 1887, was 19s., 6d. a box, and in December, 1889, 20s. and 6d. a box, and that the price of Straits tin——

"Mr. Gray—In December, 1889?

"Mr. Aldrich—Yes; and the price of Straits tin in 1878, the average price for the year, was £61 4s. 2d., and in 1887 it was £111 10s."

Thereupon Senator Plumb took the floor and read a telegram from J. M. Molloy's Sons of Philadelphia, manufacturers of tinware, giving the average yearly prices of tin plate from 1880 to 1890, fully confirming Senator Gray and Mr. Wells. The telegram added: "Any proof required can be furnished." To this Mr. Aldrich had the hardihood to reply that it was very evident that the quotation of the price must be a mistake. Finally, Mr. Gray produced a copy of the Pittsburgh *American Manufacturer* containing a table of the yearly prices of tin plate from 1874 to 1889, fully confirming Mr. Wells and J. M. Molloy's Sons. It turned out that Aldrich had taken three dates only, which happened to show very nearly the same prices, and had offered them as illustrative of the whole situation, whereas the year 1887 was exceptional altogether, being the year in which the speculators in metallic tin engineered a corner simultaneously with the operations of the copper syndicate in Paris, nearly doubling the normal price of the article. When all the facts came out, Mr. Gray said dryly: "I wish the Senator from Rhode Island would be a little more fair in his discussion of this question."

The *Dry Goods Economist* occasionally lets a cat out of the McKinley tariff bag. The pending bill makes a large increase in the duties on hosiery, with the ostensible object of protecting our dear work-people against paupers in England, or Germany, or somewhere. The *Dry Goods Economist* tells us that what ails the hosiery mills is not pauper labor, but obsolete machinery. It says:

"The trouble with many mills is that they are full of obsolete machinery, incapable of producing the merchandise which the trade demands, and *it is significant that these establishments are among the loudest in their clamor for a higher tariff.* But mills that are handicapped with obsolete machinery should know that no tariff that can be framed would be high enough to save *them* from impending disaster. Even should the schedules become prohibitory, and importations of foreign hosiery cease altogether, the domestic competition would be sufficient to ultimately crush them out of existence."

Senator Aldrich may not be able to tell within 200 per cent. what is the value of licorice paste when he asks his brother Senators to vote for a tax on it, but he ought to know all about cotton hosiery, because one of the most successful mills in the country, owned by English capitalists and run by Nottingham operatives, is situated in his own State. Therefore, when the hosiery schedule is reached, we shall expect him to tell us just how much of the proposed tax is for labor and how much for bad machinery. This is a problem in pure mathematics. The present rate of duty on cotton hosiery is 40 per cent. all

around. The proposed rates are 40 cents per dozen pairs and 40 per cent. ad valorem if valued at more than $2 per dozen pairs, and at lower rates for lower values. The change in the mode of assessing the duty would seem to have been skilfully arranged for some unknown purpose. What purpose would be more rational than to provide a definite rate of protection for the owners of obsolete machinery? If we suppose that the 40 per cent. ad valorem is for the benefit of contract labor imported from Nottingham—that being the tax at present—probably the added rate of forty cents per dozen pairs (which is equal to 20 per cent.) is intended to offset the improved machinery used at Nottingham.

The Republican Convention in the Ninth Congressional District of Iowa last week furnished further evidence of the way that the leaven of tariff reform is working in that State. The platform adopted said not one word in favor of the McKinley Tariff Bill, while it contained a "demand that the farmers shall have the same rights and privileges under the tariff law that are accorded to the products of the manufacturers." The real feeling of the delegates regarding the pending Tariff Bill found expression in the speech of the chairman of the Convention, who said: "I believe our tariff system should be scaled down to the lowest point consistent with the best interests of our State and nation. *I am not in favor of the McKinley Bill; I think, in many respects, it is an outrage.*"

The speculation in silver, backed by the increased Treasury purchases, has carried the price up to $1.20 per ounce. It may go to $1.29. If it should go beyond that figure, it would do so on its own merits, since the Secretary is not allowed to pay a higher price. If he cannot obtain bullion at that price or less, the law requires him to stop buying at anything above that figure. Gold and silver are then on a parity at our legal ratio. It looks now as though the price would go up to $1.29 and stop there until the production overtakes the new demand of our Government. This new demand, although entirely artificial, serves all the purposes of a true commercial demand for the time being. There is this difference, however, between the two kinds of demand: the whole world will look forward with apprehension to a withdrawal of the artificial demand. Everybody who has any silver on hand will try to get rid of it while the artificial price continues. France and Belgium may try to unload a portion of their stock, but they could not get rid of much of it without putting down the price materially. But they cannot do this secretly. Even an intimation of their intention would have a disastrous effect on the price. The proposition to send a discreet person abroad in an official capacity to sound the governments of Europe on the subject of another monetary conference is attractive on the surface; but discreet persons on this side of the water can see that those governments look with amazement and contempt on this "engineering" of the price of silver, and that they want no part or lot in it.

There are no longer any pretences in Tammany Hall circles of hilarious emotions regarding the citizens' movement. Almost the first question which a Tammany man asks now when he meets any one who is suspected of political knowledge is: "What do you think of this citizens' movement?" The more Tammany thinks of it, the less it likes it, and between it and the awful possibilities of the new ballot law, there is abundant food for serious thought. It is very plain now that instead of being started too soon, as its opponents believed, the citizens' movement was extremely well timed. It has steadily gained in force, and is to-day, though we are in the dull season of midsummer, a most important element in the local political situation. It enters into all calculations, and, unless appearances are very deceptive, it will be the controlling force in the next election. The "straight" Republicans have helped it greatly by showing their weakness so far in advance of the campaign, thus making it practically impossible for them to work much mischief at a later period.

It is very evident that the conditions of the local political atmosphere are unfavorable to the successful development of a "straight Republican ticket" this year. A fortnight has elapsed since the Republican Club, under the inspiring guidance of Elder Shepard, put forth its disjointed "address" warning all true Republicans to "keep aloof from citizens' movements and combinations" of all kinds, and adjuring them to "build up the Republican party" by standing by its principles and candidates on all occasions. With the exception of a glowing eulogy in the Elder's own paper, and a resolution of approval by the Harlem Republican Club, the address has been very coldly received. The *Tribune* pronounced it more or less able, but premature, and the only Republican district association, the Twenty-third, which considered it at all, refused to endorse it. The People's Municipal League has now put forth a circular in response, but, strong and useful as it is, we are bound to say that the whole subject in hand was more effectively disposed of by the Postmaster, Mr. Van Cott, in an interesting interview. Mr. Van Cott, as everybody knows, is a Republican politician of large experience, whose intimate association with city politics for many years makes him one of the best possible authorities upon a question like this. When, therefore, he says that the "impossibility of electing a Republican to the Mayoralty on a straight Republican ticket is so palpable" that he is unable to "see how any one could regard the nomination of such a ticket as anything but the purest folly," there is nothing more to be said.

The impression that the negroes of Mississippi are entirely unrepresented in the Constitutional Convention now in session is incorrect. There is one colored member, Isaiah T. Montgomery, who was once a slave of Jefferson Davis. He is described as "a most intelligent man," and the Jackson correspondent of the Memphis *Commercial* thinks that he will "prove to be one of the most valuable members of the Convention." It is noted that the other members "treat him with respectful consideration," and he has been placed upon the very important Committee on Suffrage. It is interesting to learn that he openly declares in favor of the Australian ballot system. The *Commercial's* correspondent says that it is already plain that the widest liberality is to be extended to the Republican members of the Convention, who include, besides this representative of the negroes, three whites, among them ex-Gov. Alcorn and ex-Chief Justice Simrall.

One of those appointments that are always to be regretted in the interest of the public service as a triumph of political skill over personal merit has just been made by the President. Dr. Jedediah H. Baxter, the Chief Medical Purveyor of the Army, has been appointed its Surgeon-General. Dr. Baxter entered the military service in 1861 as a regimental surgeon from Massachusetts, and in the spring of 1862 he was recommissioned as a staff surgeon of volunteers, a position giving him greater latitude of movement. After a short service on the Peninsula, and before the heavy fighting on the Chickahominy, he returned to Washington, where he has remained. At first on hospital duty, he was appointed by the Secretary of War the chief medical officer of the Provost Marshal's Bureau at its organization in 1863. Upon the dissolution of that special organization at the close of the war, he was retained by Congressional resolution to compile the vital statistics it had collected, upon which he was engaged until 1875. Meantime he had been appointed in 1867 to the newly created office of Assistant Medical Purveyor, ranking as lieutenant-colonel, in the regular establishment; he was then advanced by selection and by special legislative sanction over the heads of other officers of excellent and much longer service, and finally was given additional rank as colonel, again specially created, in 1874, before he had discharged any duty in the Purveying Department. In his appointment the fundamental law of the Medical Department, that examination is a prerequisite to admission and promotion, was violated in spirit—although, according to the wording of the enactment, the appointment itself was technically legal. He has resided continuously in Washington since 1862; he has seen no service with troops; his unprecedented promotion in all its stages has followed from his close adherence to political methods at the capital rather than the impersonal and zealous discharge of public duty. This appointment is the worst possible, saying, as it does, to a scientific corps, admission to which, with this single exception, has been confined to merit, that political strength and not hard service is the real passport to place, if not to honor. The rejection of this nomination would be creditable to the Senate.

THE REPUBLICAN FIASCO.

THE caucus of Republican Senators on Thursday night settled the fate of the Force Bill. The question before it was whether Mr. Quay's resolution providing for an early adjournment should be amended, as Mr. Hoar and the other bloody-shirt Senators desired, by including the Force Bill among the measures to be passed; and the *Tribune's* correspondent announces that Mr. Hoar's amendment to this effect "was rejected by a round majority." For some time past it has been growing more and more clear that the Force Bill could not be passed, and the "round majority" against it in the Republican caucus is the end of the scheme.

The New York *Tribune* and its meek follower, the Philadelphia *Press*, still keep up their attempt to bulldoze the independent Republican Senators into a surrender of their convictions, but it is an utter waste of words. The recalcitrants know that there are plenty of good Republican newspapers which sustain and applaud their course, and they rate at its true value the parroting of two organs which have been muzzled by the gift of offices to their editors. How far the *Tribune* and *Press* choose to go in making themselves ridiculous may be a matter of importance to those papers, but it is a matter of indifference to Republican Senators.

The rejection of the Force Bill is the collapse of the new programme of government devised by "Tom" Reed and adopted at his orders by the Republicans of the House. The present Congress is the fifty-first in our history, and opens the second century of our Government. During the first hundred years of our history Congress had been a deliberative body, as the framers of the Constitution intended it to be; and when the centennial of Washington's inauguration was celebrated, in the spring of 1889, the wisdom of those framers was deduced from the excellent manner in which the system they devised had worked. In the following December "Tom" Reed was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, and announced that this judgment was entirely unfounded; that, in point of fact, the system of legislation constructed by the founders of the Government and followed by three generations of their descendants was a ridiculous failure; and that a new system must be substituted, under which deliberation should be abolished in the House, and a dictator in the Speaker's chair should force through such bills as a party caucus decreed—these bills to be concurred in without delay by the Senate, whose concurrence was unfortunately necessary under the Constitution, but should be reduced to a mere formality.

This policy was to result, first, in the prompt passage of the regular legislation of the session, like the annual appropriation bills; secondly, in the no less prompt enactment of two great party measures—the McKinley Tariff Bill and the Force Bill; and, thirdly, in the demonstration to the business community that the Republican party was the only party which could carry on the work of legislation "with neatness and despatch," so that Congress might adjourn early in the summer with a record to which the majority could "point with pride" during the fall campaign.

The first breakdown in this programme was the failure to dispose of the ordinary and perfunctory work of the session with promptness. It is now the middle of the ninth month since Congress met, and two of the regular appropriation bills for the support of the Government have not yet become laws. This is the fault of the House of Representatives under the Reed régime. Senator Allison, Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, in explaining last week the necessity for passing a resolution to provide temporarily for the expenses of the Government, made this important statement: "Owing to the fact that the Sundry Civil Bill did not reach the Senate until within a very few days of the expiration of the fiscal year [June 30], it was impossible for us to consider that bill in this body and pass it until nearly one month after the fiscal year for which the appropriations were made had begun. It is because of the delay in getting this bill into the Senate Chamber that these extensions have become necessary. What is true of the Sundry Civil Bill is also true of the Indian Appropriation Bill."

The second breakdown has occurred with the two great measures of partisan legislation proposed. A tariff bill was driven through the House, but what a tariff bill!—a measure which the most prominent Republican newspapers in such great Republican States as Minnesota, Kansas, and Nebraska pronounce utterly indefensible, and call upon their Republican Senators to defeat; a bill which even the New York *Tribune* confesses to be full of abominable features. In its attempt to bulldoze the independent Republican Senators, the *Tribune* warns Senator Quay that "he will find an amount of opposition which will seem curious to him to *certain features of the Tariff Bill that particularly interest his friends* if he persist in his motion," and uses this further significant language: "The reason is, that Republican Senators have been disposed to yield much, as respects the details of the Tariff Bill, in order to carry through the legislation which was deemed essential to the welfare of the country and the success of the Republican party. But if a part of that legislation which they regard as of more importance than any other is to be sacrificed, they will begin to consider what reason they have for refraining from action in accordance with their opinions respecting details of the tariff. *Sundry Pennsylvania interests will have no right to complain if in that state of affairs they suffer severely.*" Here is a frank confession that "sundry Pennsylvania interests" have been granted outrageous and indefensible privileges under the McKinley Bill.

The simultaneous exposure of the enormities of the Tariff Bill by the chief organs of the high tariff in the East and by the representative Republican newspapers in the West is now followed by the rejection of the other great partisan measure, the Force Bill. This was rushed through the House under whip and spur, a number of Republican Representatives who opposed the policy being coerced into acquiescence by the Speaker's open use of his power over other measures in which they were interested. Deliberation would have been fatal to it in the House if it had been allowed; it has been allowed in the Senate, and the measure is dead.

The breakdown of the third part of the programme has been even more complete. The one hope of success for the Reed policy was a brilliant dash which might capture the fancy of the country. If the appropriation bills had been passed during the winter, and the other measures which had been slated during the spring, and if Congress had adjourned in June with a taking record as "a business Congress," a hopeful appeal might have been made to the country for a fresh lease of power. But with the ordinary appropriation bills still lagging along in midsummer, with the Tariff Bill in August undergoing exposure both by the New York *Tribune* in the East and by Republican newspapers of the first standing in the West, as full of abominations; with the Force Bill rejected, after the prestige of the party had been involved in its passage, the outlook is as gloomy as any party in the country has confronted for many years.

All friends of good government will rejoice over the situation. The success of "Tom" Reed's scheme to abolish deliberation in legislation would have been full of peril to the future of the country.

OUR RELATIONS WITH FRANCE.

MINISTER REID'S communication to M. Ribot on the subject of the French prohibition of American pork contains one or two slips which illustrate the need of some kind of training in diplomacy if we are to have diplomatic relations with foreign countries. The object of diplomacy is to gain something for one's country at the hands of the foreign country. It has no other end or aim. To make the other man angry by your correspondence with him is wholly inadmissible, because it tends to defeat the purpose in view. The larger part of Mr. Reid's note is well considered and unobjectionable in point of taste, although the political economy of it may be open to question. But there is another part which is not diplomacy at all. It is an arraignment of the French Government before its own people, accusing the former of oppressing the latter, and especially the poorer classes. As though this were not enough to put M. Ribot in bad temper, the note ends with a threat that if France does not do so and so, we will make it hot for her by prohibiting her wines. Fancy Sir Julian Pauncefote addressing a note to Mr. Blaine saying:

> And above all you are depriving your people, particularly the poor laboring classes, of a cheap and highly prized article of household use, namely, tinware, for which you have been able to furnish no adequate substitute. Statistics of your importations and the regular quotations of your domestic prices show that what you are shutting out from us you have not supplied from other sources. Surely an abundant and cheap supply of household utensils for the laboring classes is one of the most important essentials for the happiness of a people, etc.

Such a lecture might appropriately wind up with a threat that if the new duty on tin plate becomes a law, Great Britain will curtail her importation of American cereals. If Mr. Blaine should decline to receive such a note at all, he would be justified even in the eyes of those who are opposed to an increased duty on tin plate.

Mr. Reid's lecture may be a very good pronunciamiento for pork-packers, but even they will be puzzled to read immediately after it an array of statistics to show that the prohibition of American pork has not caused any advance in the price of the article in France, either fresh or salted, and that the French laborer is paying no more now than he did before. On this point he says:

"In June, 1880, before prohibition, and when, according to theories now advanced in some quarters, the French pork-grower suffered from the American competition, French swine sold, live weight, Paris, at 138.61 francs per 100 kilos. The same quality is currently quoted now at 114 francs per hundred kilos. The average price of French swine for 1880 was from 25 to 30 per cent. higher than in 1889.

"In 1880 the French laborer, if he bought French salted pork at all, paid for it the retailers' varying profits over the wholesale price of from 160 francs to 200 francs per 100 kilos, for sides and hams. Now, if he buys French salted pork, he pays for the same qualities the retailers' profits over the current wholesale price, substantially the same as in 1880, of from 160 francs to 200 francs per 100 kilos."

In what way the laboring classes of France have been oppressed is not made clear by Mr. Reid, although undoubtedly they have been injured in common with others by the general curtailment of trade which it is the present aim of both countries to bring about, and which Mr. Reid himself seems to approve of.

Mr. Reid also gives M. Ribot some hints about raising revenue. You want to raise more revenue, he says; we Americans want to raise less (he had not heard the latest news from home on this subject). In our varied experience we have found that low duties sometimes yield more revenue than high ones. We are now engaged in raising duties in order to check importations and revenue. Let us suggest the opposite course to you for opposite reasons. This friendly suggestion is thrown in to meet the high French duties on pork in case the prohibition should be removed but the same end be reached in the other way, that is, in *our* way. Mr. Reid distinctly maintains that it is not exclusion of our pork that we object to, but the manner of it. It is unfriendly to give our pork a bad name, but it would not be unfriendly to put a prohibitory duty on it and keep it out in that way. From which it would appear that if the French Government should admit our pork duty free but caution people against buying it, we should consider that an unfriendly act, while it would be friendly, or, at any rate, not unfriendly, to put a duty of 300 per cent. on it, but not defame its character. Our pork-packers will hardly endorse this proposition.

The French position is indefensible—this Mr. Reid has made entirely clear. The trouble is that his own is indefensible also. Every Frenchman is smart enough to see through it. We have only a technical case against France as long as we maintain duties that are avowedly not for revenue, but for prohibition or for checking importation. Just now the situation is complicated by the McKinley Administrative Bill, a measure as brutal as the French prohibition of our pork, and quite as dishonest. The object of this bill, as we showed at the time, was to prevent importation. It was an attempt to accomplish by indirection what the French prohibition of our pork accomplishes directly. There has been so great a stir about this matter in France that our consuls have held a conference on the subject, and have decided that they can do nothing. What the outcome may be, no man can tell. The only things tolerably certain are that American pork will not find any easier entrance into France, and that our Republican party is knocking its brains out against its own Chinese wall.

POLITICAL PARTIES IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, July, 1890.

IN approaching the subject of political parties in this country, one needs to familiarize one's self with two or three general truths of Japanese politics before attempting to gather the significance of individual political sections.

The first is, that their existence is a matter of the last ten years only. No one of the so-called parties (*to*—a word meaning rather "society," the German *Bund*), whatever the ante-natal influences that moulded it, has yet reached its tenth birthday. The second truth is, that the Government is, in fact, not conducted personally by the Emperor, but according to the combined will of a small number of men in official position—a number yearly growing larger, however, and daily more and more restricted in their action to the path marked out by public opinion. These fill the leading governmental posts, and their assumption or resignation of office is determined solely by the exigencies of preserving harmony among themselves and at the same time recognizing each other's relative influence. There can be no doubt, let me hasten to say, that a fair number are entitled to be called statesmen, that they use their power, on the whole, to the best of their knowledge and ability, and that the Government could not as yet be properly carried on by any other mechanism. Like the war-horses of the Republican party in the United States, they rose to their present influence in the revolutionary times of 1860-70, and until within recent years their compact ranks have, with a very few exceptions, held all of the most capable patriots in the nation.

The third truth follows easily from the second, and is this: A political party in Japan is, and under hitherto existing conditions could only be, the personal following of a member of this circle who has chanced to become one of the "outs." Given the politically apathetic *heimin* (commoners), the intelligent but inexperienced and unorganized *shizoku* (*samurai*), the wielding of power by an absolutely irresponsible cabinet having a monopoly of the able men of the country, and the existence of a political party is impossible. Until, as a result of dissension, some leading member of that select circle should be obliged to leave it, should thus be placed in opposition, and should seek popular support, political controversy would be carried on only within the Government itself, not in the arena of popular discussion. This is precisely what has happened. When it has come to pass that one of the more influential members has been forced out of the circle (although a remarkable power of cohesion has made this a rare occurrence), he has become the nucleus of a party. Conversely, no political party has arisen except in this way.

There are a few apparent exceptions to this rule which are easily explained. When Eto Shimpei (of the Hizen clan), in 1874, and Mayebara (of the Choshiu clan), in 1876, withdrew in anger, they resorted to arms instead of to peaceable agitation, and were executed as traitors. Kido, one of the greatest statesmen of the nation, retired in 1873, but soon after returned. Saigo met his end on the battlefield in armed opposition. Soyejima (of Hizen), who also went out with Itagaki in 1873, returned soon after as the Emperor's tutor, and still holds an office. Itagaki's large following (the creation of which in 1875-81 I have already described), was national in its spirit, was a party and something more. But when 1882 came, and other parties arose, this body, too, crystallized into a partisan organization, the *Jiyu-to* (Radicals). Goto, one of the earliest and most influential of the plotters for the Restoration, went out with Itagaki in 1873, and for many years preserved an unaccountable self-control; but some two years ago he, too (then a Count), appeared in the field with a party which finally adopted the name of *Daido Danketsu* (United party). The resignations of Inouye, in 1887, and of Ito, in 1888, were not followed by the formation of parties; but the truth is that they never really went into the outer darkness. Their retirement was a piece of temporary policy. They are far too strong to be obliged to bend before any other members of the oligarchy, and to-day they represent a dominant, if externally invisible, governmental influence.

Such are the general truths from which depends the existence of parties to-day in this country. So far as concerns the chronicles of their history, the tale may be made a short one. The period since 1881 divides itself into two parts. In that year the national ferment which resulted in the constitutional decree of October 12 furnished abundant material for the formation of parties. Upon Okuma's resignation, in 1881, he formed immediately the *Kaishin-to* (Progressist party), based on the principle of the immediate enfranchisement of the people. One might have expected a body of men professing such a principle to join the standard of Itagaki's party, the *Jiyu* (Radicals). But the two sections have ever remained apart, and at one time even found themselves in bitter antagonism on the topic of treaty revision. The same period of ferment (1881-82) saw also the formation of the *Teisei-to* (Imperialists), the *Rikkensei-to* (Constitutional Imperialists), and numberless minor organizations; but, with the Constitution solemnly promised for 1890, the excitement rapidly subsided, and by 1884 these parties had all disbanded except the *Kaishin-to*, and even from this its leader, Okuma, had nominally withdrawn. Itagaki's own explanation of the *Jiyu-to's* dissolution, as a personal friend of his informs me, is that the restrictions of speech imposed by the Government made it impossible to conduct constitutionally such an agitation as he wished, and therefore, to rid the party of hotter heads who, for lack of lawful methods, inclined towards violent ones, he thought it best to disband the party, delaying the reunion of its best elements until the time should be ripe.

Thus ended the first period. From that time until within the last three years, there was almost no partisan activity. The question of

treaty revision, however, bringing back Okuma (now Count) to office in 1887, galvanized the *Kaishin-to* once more into life. Count Goto, coming out of his retirement two years ago, took the stump, made a tour of the northeastern provinces, and formed the *Daido Danketsu* (United party). This party rapidly grew, and to it were attracted so many from the old *Jiyu-to* that Goto, men said, began to reap where Itagaki had sowed the seed. The latter leader now bestirred himself once more. After a year or so of negotiation, the details of which would be tedious, nearly all the fragments of his old party were united in the *Aikoku-to* (Patriotic party). More than this has in effect happened, for an agreement has been reached according to which August next is to see the *Aikoku*, the *Daido*, and the *Jiyu* parties amalgamated, with much ceremony, into an organization to be called the *Ko-in* (United) Club.

But, other than these, are there any parties of note? If the generalization already made is correct, one may answer this by asking, Are there any men of influence who are now to be counted among the "outs" in active opposition? Of such there are notably two—General Viscount Torio and Viscount Tani. The former owns (one cannot help using the term) a little party called the *Hoshu-chiusei-ha* (Conservative Independents). There is far less conservatism than independence, or let us say idiosyncrasy, in its make-up, and no one seems to pay it much respect. The latter's name has been associated with an organization of real importance, known as the *Kokusui Hozon-to* (Nationalist party). Its motive is a conservative and laudable desire to preserve the national individuality by refusing to adopt indiscriminately the ideas of the West, while keeping pace with its progress. "To adapt, not adopt," might be described as its motto. The real strength of this section, however, is not Viscount Tani, but the influence of leading members who are not partisan politicians, but represent the "Mugwumpism" of Japan.

One will naturally expect to hear something of the principles professed by the three leading parties, the *Jiyu* (or *Aikoku*), *Daido*, and *Kaishin*. Here, however, there is a striking and somewhat amusing failure to disagree. One must resort to the platforms of the Republican and Democratic parties from 1876 to 1880 to find a parallel. The *Kaishin-to* (but within a few months only) has issued a platform of sixteen articles, including reduction of land-tax, retrenchment in expenses, cabinet by party, treaty revision, educational reform, extension of the franchise, greater freedom of speech, and other praiseworthy proposals. Not to be outdone, the *Jiyu-to* thereupon promulgated a creed of thirty-two articles, including, be it observed, all those of the *Kaishin-to*, with others of a somewhat more radical tendency, such as trial by jury, popular election of the governors of *ken* (counties), limitation of the number of nobles, etc. Within a month the *Daido* has published a platform of thirty articles; but of these, again, none strays far from those already in the field.

There are, however, certain distinctive marks to be seen, chiefly in the manner of men composing the parties. The *Jiyu-to* has from the first been preëminently the party, not of the proletariat, for there is as yet no such class here, but of the common people, of those on whom the taxes fall, of the poor man, of the democrats, of the radical political thinkers. The *Daido* party has to some extent poached on the same preserves; but it has drawn also from the men of the northeast (Aidzu and the vicinity), the old partisans of the Shogunate, who have accepted with pleasure the opportunity to attack their old antagonists now in power, the men of the southwest. The *Kaishin* party represents the rich and the influential, but contains also a large number of the younger educated men not in official position. It is credited with moderate feelings, and at the same time with aristocratic proclivities. The *Kokusui-to* includes a number of the best thinkers and educators, of the younger generation principally, and represents the more thoughtful tendencies of the day. Perhaps it will in its present form never actively enter politics as an organization.

The interesting question, of course, is, What general tendency, explicitly recognized or not by one or another of these sections, is to furnish the principle which will divide parties under the approaching parliamentary régime? The measures which the various sections advocate show a striking similarity of aim; it remains to discover whether their existence points to any real issues.

As between any two of the *Daido*, *Jiyu*, and *Kaishin* parties, it seems hardly possible that any issue can be formed. All began as oppositionist parties, and the only pregnant distinction at present is that between the personnel of the *Kaishin to* and that of the other two. The latter have now practically united, and it seems not improbable that by November the *Kaishin-to* also may have given up its separate existence. The *Kokusui* represents a principle which is of more consequence at present in art, manners, and education than in ordinary political matters, and perhaps not for a decade or so will an issue of broad importance and popular interest arise in which this principle will be at stake. Economic issues, too (I do not say economic problems), at present there are virtually none, if we omit the demand for taxation reform. There is no rent question, no labor question, no tariff question. What, then, can be prophesied as to the parliamentary parties?

There is one motive which seems to have supplied the very vitality of the three great parties, and it is not unlikely that this will furnish the dominant note in the formation of parliamentary sections. This motive is a simple one—the desire, on the part of a large portion of the *shizoku*, to share in the Government, and not alone in the deliberative functions of the National Assembly, but in the more real power of the Ministry. This is today the theme which quickest finds a popular response. When Count Goto made his tour of the northeast, he proclaimed himself in favor of government by party, and raised a strong following by attacking the principle of exclusiveness on which the present Cabinet is founded. When Count Okuma was recalled in 1887 to a place among his old comrades, and began to dictate a successful policy of treaty revision, the *Kaishin-to* ceased to be oppositionists, and loudly supported the Government policy of their leader, for they, too, shared in his success, and therein were tasting the power for which they had sighed. In short, the time seems to be coming when there must be, in part at least, a surrender of that power so well held in trust by the heroes of the Restoration—a surrender resulting not merely in a popular Assembly invested with deliberative powers, but in a Ministry more or less responsible to that Assembly. It is this irresponsibility of the Ministry (or, to take the point of view of the "outs," this monopoly of power by a close corporation of the Restoration leaders and their friends), which seems to stick in the throats of the politicians. One cannot help feeling that this question must be solved by the nation in some way before it will be in a mood to take up any other great issue. The sooner it is solved the better. Until parliamentary government by party arrives (even if in a modified shape only), there cannot but be more or less indecision on current questions, more or less fluidity and lack of cohesion in the party materials. Until then there will be only one real party—the Opposition. The journals have already declared from time to time in favor of "*seito naikaku*" (a party cabinet), mildly depreciating the present system of "*hanbatsu naikaku*" (a coalition cabinet, holding power *ad libitum*).

Perhaps neither the first nor the second year of the National Assembly will see the issue precipitated. At present it is obscured by the cumbersome party platforms recently put forth. But I have endeavored to give you some idea of the larger influences and their trend, rather than of the countless minor issues, which are but temporary and superficial.

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

SOREL'S MME. DE STAËL.

PARIS, August 7, 1890.

IT seems to be the destiny of Mme. de Staël to be always before the public. Whenever you see her name, your curiosity is at once excited. She remains, even now, an enigma. There are some traits in her character which cannot easily be explained. She seems to have gone through life as if it were a constant field of experiment. She lived in the most extraordinary time, and she was extraordinary herself—always out of balance; acting seemingly under an impulse stronger than herself; led by her passions as much as by her intellect, though her intellect was a wonderful force and at times approached even genius; always on the stage, always playing a part, and nevertheless the most sincere of women.

From time to time we become acquainted with some inedited portions of her voluminous correspondence. I spoke lately in your columns of a book in which many letters from her to Benjamin Constant were published. I have now before me a little volume, by M. Sorel, belonging to the series which the Hachettes have undertaken, "Les Grands Écrivains Français."[1] The best volume of this series that has yet appeared is 'Madame de Sévigné,' by M. Gaston Boissier of the French Academy. The volume on Victor Cousin, by M. Jules Simon, is amusing, but it is only a satire on a philosopher who hardly deserves to be ranged among the great French writers, and who will only be remembered as an historian. I prefer not to speak of the other volumes of the series, as I should not have much to say in their praise.

Why did M. Sorel choose Mme. de Staël as one of the "grands écrivains français"? It is merely because he is occupied with the study of the French Revolution, because he has found Necker one of the great figures of the Revolution, and because the most important of Mme. de Staël's works is the book entitled 'Considérations sur la Révolution Française.' Mme. de Staël certainly had a good style—there is a terseness in her manner which sometimes approaches originality; but, on the whole, she cannot be cited as one of the great models of French literature. I pick up this phrase in 'Corinne' at haphazard: "La gloire elle-même ne saurait être pour une femme qu'un deuil éclatant du bonheur." This phrase is not a bad specimen of her style; a good judge would probably tell you that a *deuil* cannot be *éclatant*, that the two words are not in harmony, and that their union is an affectation.

When she paints herself as a Muse, the favorite of Apollo—"Her great black eyes are brilliant with genius; her hair, as black as ebony, falls on her shoulders in undulating locks; her features are more pronounced than delicate, one feels in them something above the destiny of her sex"—we are not quite pleased with the picture. We find everywhere this note of masculinity in Corinne; and who can much like a woman who looks like a man? The descriptions given by M. Sorel from the pictures of Mme. de Stael are not agreeable. "Ambition is with her at the service of sentiment, but sentiment borrows something of the inquietude and the asperity of ambition. Her love is such as man conceives it, dominating love; but she cannot be happy if she is not dominated by the man whom she loves. In life, she ought to have a guide, in love, a master; and she will be, in life, the most disobedient, in love, the most despotic, of creatures."

Germaine Necker was born on April 22, 1766. She was a precocious child, the pet of her father and mother: at the age of eleven she knew Raynal, Thomas, Grimm, Buffon, Marmontel, La Harpe; at fifteen, she made an abstract of Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois.' She read everything—'Clarissa Harlowe,' 'Werther'; at seventeen, she asked one day the old Maréchale de Mouchy, "Madame, what do you think of love?" She fell ill, and Tronchin remarked, "Perhaps she will become mad, but she will certainly be very unhappy." She had no method, felt no restraint, and entered life with an ardent imagination and an insatiable curiosity. She wrote tragedies, political essays, novels, sentimental compositions, letters on the character of J.-J. Rousseau; these last were published in 1789, when Germaine was already married.

Mme. Necker wished her daughter to make a brilliant marriage; she thought a moment of Pitt, who came to Paris in 1783; she chose a diplomat, Baron de Staël-Holstein, who was a Protestant, and was seventeen years older than her daughter. Germaine became on January 14, 1786, Baroness de Staël. Catherine the Great wrote: "Everybody says that the daughter of M. Necker makes a very poor marriage." Madame de Staël was received at Court, she had a salon, she became a queen of society, she frightened all women and many of the men; she became intimate with M. de Narbonne, Talleyrand, and Mathieu de Montmorency. Gouverneur Morris gives interesting details on their relations which M. Sorel probably overlooked, and which, at any rate, are not found in his book.

Mme. de Staël had a great triumph when her father was recalled on July 14, 1789. She accompanied him amidst the applause of the people. She became, however, the butt of the Royalists as well as of the friends of the Revolution. Her enemies treated her as they did Marie Antoinette. "She is the *bacchante* of the Revolution, the only person in France whose sex can be an object of doubt." She placed herself among the men who were called the *Constitutionnels*—Lally, Talleyrand, the Prince de Broglie, admirers of the English Constitution. This moderate party was soon lost between the pure Royalists and the Republicans. Mme. de Staël was obliged to leave Paris in 1792, and found a refuge at Coppet, on Lake Geneva, in her father's house. She tried, as well as she could, to save Marie Antoinette, and made an appeal to all women in her 'Reflections on the Queen's Trial.' Mme. Necker died in 1794, and about that time Mme. de Staël had the misfortune to meet Benjamin Constant, who was then twenty-seven years old, and who had more vices and more brilliant faculties than are generally found in one man. He made the conquest of Mme. de Staël. She became his slave and he became her slave. Their mutual passion was a mixture of love and of hatred, and recalls the famous distich of Catullus, "Odi et amo," etc.

Love and politics were always filling the head and the heart of Mme. de Staël. In 1794 she wrote some 'Reflections on Peace,' addressed to Mr. Pitt and to the French. This pamphlet reopened for her the door of France. She returned to France, found M. de Staël there reestablished as Ambassador, and she reopened her salon in the Rue de Bac for her old friends and for the rising men of the Revolution. She dreams of a republic, on the American pattern, with Lafayette for President. Benjamin Constant, who inspired her and was inspired by her, wrote a pamphlet 'On the Strength of the Present Government of France and of the Necessity of Rallying to It,' and Talleyrand, who had returned from America and was biding his time in Hamburg, wrote to Mme. de Staël: "Who is this M. Constant who has just written a remarkable book?" He probably knew very well.

The relations of Gen. Bonaparte and Mme. de Staël began after the war in Italy. They almost immediately disliked each other, and Mme. de Staël threw herself into the opposition, after the 18th Brumaire. On that day she had invited some people to dinner who belonged to the Government. Two hours before the dinner came ten letters of excuses; one was from Talleyrand. Mme. de Staël never pardoned him. She had dragged him out of misery, presented him to Barras, and made him Minister of Foreign Affairs. From that time their old friendship was broken for ever. M. de Staël died in 1802; his wife was free, but she did not wish to marry Benjamin Constant. He did not desire the marriage more than she did. Things remained as they were before. She travelled from 1804 to 1807 in Germany and Italy; she collected in Weimar, where she was received with open arms, the materials of her great work, 'De l'Allemagne'; she saw Schiller and Goethe. Goethe had read her novel 'Delphine' and her treatise on 'The Influence of the Passions,' and merely said: "Mme. de Staël has no notion of duty." She talked philosophy with Fichte. At Coppet, she worked at 'Corinne,' a descriptive novel, in which the study of sentiment is mixed with meditations on history, emphatic, not devoid of a certain sort of elevation. 'Corinne' was the result of her journey in Italy.

In 1810 she met at Geneva a young officer, only twenty-three years old, who belonged to the Swiss aristocracy, Albert de Rocca. He was come from Spain, where he had been wounded. He was handsome. Mme. de Staël fell in love with him, though she was nearly double his age. She wished to keep her name, and married him secretly in the beginning of 1811. We see her afterwards, persecuted by Napoleon, going as far as Russia, where she was treated with much distinction by the Emperor Alexander. She has a few pages on the Russian people which are truly prophetic, quite as fine as anything she wrote on Germany and the Germans. Her enthusiastic nature was singularly sympathetic; she understood the German genius and the Russian genius, and her loving disposition always inclined her towards the bright side of human character. She confided in man, in humanity, and this probably explains the great influence she exercised on all who approached her.

Her work on Germany was a revelation; she discovered, as it were, Germany in the German literature. Her great work on the French Revolution had equal influence on several generations of Frenchmen. The fall of Napoleon was her triumph. She came back to Paris after Waterloo, and wrote to the Duke of Richelieu: "The problem consists in the integrity of France, the departure of the allies, and the English Constitution frankly and sincerely established." In 1817 she was struck with paralysis, in the midst of a ball, at the house of the Duke Decazes; she lingered some time and died on July 17. Her children rendered to her a last homage in making public her marriage with M. de Rocca, and in treating as a brother a child which had been the fruit of this union. Her daughter Albertine, who was one of the most perfect, accomplished, and virtuous persons of her time, was married to the Duc de Broglie, the father of the present Duke. The marriage was celebrated at Pisa in February, 1816, and this union was the pride and the consolation of her last days.

Correspondence.

THE LATE EUGENE SCHUYLER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* of July 24 has reached us with the sympathetic notice concerning the death of Mr. Eugene Schuyler. He was for years one of your most frequent contributors, and with many of your writers had friendly relations which date from the early days of your journal. To you, and probably to them also, it may be interesting to know some particulars of Mr. Schuyler's last hours.

During the past winter and spring he had suffered from a succession and complication of ills, and was, by advice of his physician, on his way to Marienbad when, on the passage from Alexandria, he was taken for a second time with an intermittent fever which kept him at Venice, unable to go further. He did not think the attack of sufficient importance to ask his wife to come to him: on the contrary, he was hoping from day to day to be able to join her, and when I dropped in upon him on the morning of the last day of his life, he was feeling much better than he had been, so that we arranged the details of the journey to Alassio, where he was to recover strength for going on later to Marienbad. Meanwhile, though the weather had suddenly become very hot and the air of Venice was anything but bracing, he was in comfortable quarters which, in previous visits, he had much enjoyed. The view across the Grand Canal to the Salute and down past the Dogana di Mare to San Giorgio Maggiore, the public gardens, and the sea towards the Lido, was lovely, and one enjoyed there such air as there was. Moreover, the members of an embassy from Morocco—the wonder and delight of the city for the moment—were staying in the same house. There was always a crowd of gondolas with gay liveries under the windows, and stately figures in turbans and white burnouses were continually passing in and out. What a feast for the eyes it would all once have been for us both!

The doctor's visit was encouraging. The fever was taking its course, but not unfavorably—it was complicated with one or two other ills that gave no present cause for apprehension; the journey might, very probably, be begun in two or three days. Still, I think that somehow the shadow of what was coming was upon us all. We agreed that things were going on well, but my suggestion that Mrs.

Schuyler should be sent for was listened and assented to—alas! too late. An hour after, a change had set in—chill and difficulty of breathing—which was alarming, but passed away after a short time and left the patient quiet. We had begun to think that there was no more cause for uneasiness when at eight o'clock—just as the Grand Canal outside was full of lights and music, the beginning of an evening of festivity—my friend gasped faintly, and then, without a struggle, passed for ever away from earth. It was a fainting fit, such as he had been subject to all his life, such as his friends had come to look upon as almost without consequence. We know now, by the testimony of the physician who attended him during his various illnesses at Cairo, that the real danger all along was from weakness of the heart—a fact of which Mr. Schuyler was himself aware.

Thirty-six hours later we followed him to his last resting-place in the Protestant cemetery, at the east end of the island of San Michele. There were the United States Consul, the physician, an English clergyman on a pleasure trip, whom I had induced to perform the office of the chaplain at Venice, away for the summer, and two friends from Alassio summoned in haste. On the lagoons the hot July morning was tempered by a quiver of air rather than a breeze. The sea was as glass, the distance was silvery gray, and through the scene the funeral gondolas, with their hangings and costumes, passing, made a wonderful picture. It was impossible not to be reminded how such a spectacle would have touched the friend who was its present cause; and reaching San Michele, with its exquisite campanile and beautiful cloisters, we felt that the destiny was indeed kind which had assigned him his rest in a spot so in accordance with his every taste and sentiment. F.

ALASSIO, August 6, 1890.

TRANSLITERATION FROM THE RUSSIAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Perhaps you will allow me a few words in reply to the remarks of the by no means unfriendly critic who lately reviewed my book on Russia in your journal. I should have written before had I not been prevented from doing so by my absence in Russia. Some of the misspellings to which he calls attention are slips of the pen and misprints, and nothing more, and I must crave the reader's indulgence for them. My reviewer himself has not wholly escaped: the printer has accredited him with *Koloshikhin*. The name Duchinski I allowed naturally to stand in its original Polish form as being that of a Pole; there is no question of transliteration. "Sovin" is so spelled throughout Yuri Tolstoi's book, 'The First Fifty Years of Intercourse between England and Russia (St. Petersburg. 1875). Mindog or Mendog is the Polish form of the Lithuanian Mindovg, ordinarily used in histories. I leaned to it as rather less uncouth.

As regards the inconsistencies sometimes found in my spellings, many of these may be explained by the fact that I have been unwilling to disturb some geographical and historical names which had assumed a stereotyped form, *e. g.*, Irtysh. I may be allowed to quote the example of Grote, who followed the same plan in his 'History of Greece,' leaving many names which had become universally familiar unaffected by the new spelling he had adopted. Of course, to be thoroughly consistent, I ought to have spoken of Aleksander I., Yekaterina II., Nikolai, etc. This is "the head and front of my offending." I certainly prefer the spelling Diebitsch and Herzen. As regards "aprakos," this is the form given in Buslaev's 'Russian Chrestomathy' (Moscow, 1877, p. 1). I omit some other explanations for fear of obtruding too much upon your space.—Yours very truly, W. R. MORFILL

(Author of 'The Story of Russia').

OXFORD, July 28, 1890.

[We freely yield to Mr. Morfill two points: the name "Duchinski" should unquestionably retain the Polish form; there is, indeed, "no question of transliteration," it is only one of nationality—was Duchinski more Pole than Russian? Mr. Morfill himself, notwithstanding his remark about "Diebitsch" and "Herzen," gives the Russian form to numerous Polish names long ago naturalized in the Russian language. We offer no excuse—only apologies to Mr. Morfill—for taking Duchinski as found in the Russian authorities consulted. We would remark, however, that Estreicher, in his 'Bibliografia polska,' gives no work of Duchinski as published in Poland; the most were issued from Paris in the French language.

The second point is this: Mr. Morfill has very aptly matched the reviewer's "*Kolo*shikhin" against his own "*Koti*shikhin."

In regard to the retention of "stereotyped" forms, it may be said that there are many cases where new and improved editions are desirable, and the sooner the better. "*Se*bastopol," for instance, was for a long time the only form seen, but has at last nearly disappeared.—ED. NATION.]

THE SHADOW AND THE SUBSTANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The streets of our comparatively quiet city have this week been literally submerged with the tide of visitors from Dan to Beersheba, the dwellers in Mesopotamia and those beyond Jordan. They seem to have had a good time; the weather has been delightful, and we have treated them to our most peculiarly local product, a Boston east wind in August, the luxury of which is hardly known anywhere beyond fifty miles west of this city. My experience may be singular, but I am proud to say that I have not seen a drunken man during the week. On Monday afternoon the harbor presented a wonderful appearance. Besides several war ships, there was a swarm of yachts and steamers of every description, and as the *Baltimore* steamed up the harbor and came to anchor in the bright light of a five-o'clock sun, everything which had gunpowder and everything which had a steam whistle joined in an infernal din, which may have been gratifying to the President, but made the ordinary observer anxious about the drums of his ears.

In a square at the head of the wharf stood a handsome carriage with four spirited horses and two men in livery, and surrounded by the gay uniforms of a squadron of mounted militia. A few minutes later there sat in it the President of the United States and the Governor of Massachusetts—or, as seen from under the moralizing cap, two nominal chief magistrates, one representing a nation of sixty millions, and the other perhaps the most historic State in the Union. The offices are second to none in the world. The swarms in the street and on the housetops, and the echoing cry, "I have seen the President," bear witness that the people fully appreciate that fact. But who and what are the men? Harrison and Brackett! What enthusiasm or emotion do the names awaken? They are not even the choice of the people. They are only the nominees of a party committee, accepted by the people as a little, if anything, preferable to the nominees of another party committee. So completely are they the creatures of their creators that the one does not dare to veto a general pension bill dictated by the managers of the G. A. R., nor the other a West End Railroad bill, declared by a committee of the Legislature to have been passed through that body by the power of the lobby. They have little more power over, and are little more identified with, any positive policy than any member of the swarming crowd around them. And so, while Congress wrangles through the summer months over a tariff bill so absurd, and a silver bill so defiant of all laws of finance, that the whole world looks on in amazement, and while the Massachusetts Legislature passes six months in evolving a mass of special legislation under the guidance of the lobby, these officials, placed in power at such a vast expenditure of popular effort, find their highest function in adorning such pageants as this.

Is it right or is it safe? Will the people always consent to be amused with baubles while all real power lies with the fighting factions of the lobby? Is it not wiser to appeal to the popular will to insist upon some real and responsible executive power which shall by constitutional means enforce order and protect the public interest, instead of waiting till the factions come to blows, and the people, reluctantly and in sheer disgust, allow some strong man to suppress them by violence all round, at the expense of establishing despotic power of his own? G. B.

BOSTON, August 16, 1890.

BROWN'S BEGINNINGS OF KENTUCKY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the closing paragraph of the review of Col. John Mason Brown's book, 'The Political Beginnings of Kentucky,' in your issue of the 31st of July, 1890, there is the following statement: "But surely the Printers to the Filson Club should have taken enough care of the curious French original published in the Appendix to prevent it from reading in spots like a piece of typographical 'pi,' or like some uncouth variety of the Welsh tongue mitigated by a few stray vowels." The criticism is justified by the appearance of the letter; but in justice to the "Printers to the Filson Club," and for the sake of the book itself, which may suffer in public estimation from such a criticism, I desire to say that the letter in the Appendix is a verbatim copy of the document which was sent to Col. Brown from Canada. That document purported to be an exact reproduction of the original manuscript in the Canadian archives. This may be true, or the mutilation of the letter may be due to the ignorance of the clerk by whom it was copied.

After the death of the distinguished author of this volume it was discovered that he had not prepared even a rough draft of the Appendix, and as he constantly refers to it in the body of the work, it had to be supplied by others. It then became a question whether the document under consideration should be published as it was, or whether it should be rewritten and put into correct French. It was decided that it would be better to reproduce it as it was.—Very truly yours,

MARY JOHNSTON.

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 11, 1890.

A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recent announcement of a proposed "National Baptist University" leads to certain questions. If *National*, why Baptist? If *Baptist*, how National? Whatever may be said in defence of denominational schools and colleges, how is it conceivable that any really national institution should be under the control of a single religious body? With no disparagement to the Baptist denomination, how can it claim the right to call itself National? Will the Roman Catholics and the Methodists, who outrank the Baptists in numbers, follow with a National Roman Catholic or Methodist Episcopal University?

But what denominational bias can be given to courses of graduate study, except to the work of a theological seminary? All honor to those who seek to advance the cause of true education; but if we are to have a National Baptist University, why not have a Presbyterian Post-office (with Mr. Wanamaker at the head), a Reformed Dutch Express Company, an Episcopalian Railroad system, a Free-Will Baptist Oil Trust, and a United Brethren syndicate of telegraph lines?—Truly yours,

F. L. P.

Litchfield, Conn., August 16, 1890.

Notes.

Messrs. Longman announce that they have in press a new 'Student's History of England,' by Mr. S. R. Gardiner. It is intended to be a plain and easy book for upper classes in schools, free from puzzling allusions and details that burden the memory out of proportion to their usefulness. The volume will be of about the size of the 'Student's Hume,' and will be illustrated with cuts in which archæological correctness has been studied, and accompanied by an accurate atlas.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Metal Working,' by Prof. Alfred Compton of the College of the City of New York.

'Poor's Manual of Railroads' for 1889 (H. V. & H. W. Poor) swells this indispensable series to twenty-three volumes. It now embraces with its statistics upwards of 161,000 miles of road, nearly 6,000 of which were built in the past year. The significant item for the general public is the persistence of the low average freight rate. In 1888 it fell below one cent a ton a mile; in 1889 it was still .97 cent. The average passenger rate fell in 1888 to 2.246 cents, in 1889 to 2.17, the lowest on record. Nevertheless, 1889 was a more prosperous year than the preceding for the railroads themselves. The passengers carried amounted to all but 12,000,000,000. Besides the group State maps showing railroad lines, the new volume has a new assortment exhibiting the extent and connections of the principal roads. This is a feature which might naturally have formed part of the original idea of the Manual, and we have no doubt that these maps will be multiplied in future editions. A very striking folding-map is borrowed from the *Engineering News*, which shows in color the track-laying of the four years 1886-1889. Kansas was the great focus of activity in this period.

The two latest volumes of "The Great Artists" series (Scribner & Welford) are devoted to the so-called "Barbizon School," one volume being given to Millet, Rousseau, and Diaz, and the other to Corot, Daubigny, and Dupré. The books are almost unapproachable models of what such short lives ought not to be, and the author is remarkable for the variety of his incompetence. The three most necessary qualifications for the writer of such artistic biographies are: first, a knowledge of art; second, a knowledge (preferably at first hand) of the life of his hero; third, a knowledge of at least two languages. Mr. John W. Mollett, B.A., as the title-page announces him, seems to know nothing of art; next to nothing, even at second-hand, of the lives he writes about; and no language whatever, not even his own. His books are made up almost entirely of contradictory and ill-arranged quotations from all sorts of sources, partly in extraordinary French or Italian, and partly in more extraordinary translation, liberally sprinkled with fantastic italics, and occasionally interlarded with amazing original opinions. They have neither head nor tail, beginning nor end, and to read what Mr. Mollett calls the life of Rousseau or of Diaz is to be invaded by a doubt whether such a man can ever have existed. In short, the books are incredibly bad.

Macmillan & Co. have done well to reprint from W. Aldis Wright's 'Letters and Literary Remains of Edward Fitzgerald' the portion devoted to the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. We observe no change except in the position of an editorial note on the freedom which Fitzgerald used in dealing with the original of his "translations." Typographical errors have naturally been corrected, and we have noticed a few places where the punctuation might have been bettered. The print is handsome and the binding in white and gold. The first and the last versions are given entire, and every variant in the intervening editions is noted. In short, the admirers of Fitzgerald as the poet of the Rutáiyát can desire nothing more unless it be to see his name on the title-page—a singular omission.

The eccentric author of 'Alice in Wonderland,' dissatisfied with the several classes of readers to whom that classic appeals, has worked it over or down to the abecedarians. Hence a charming small quarto, 'Nursery Alice' (Macmillan), composed of detached episodes, with Tenniel's illustrations colored capitally. Lewis Carroll comments in each section on the absurdity of his imaginings, and does not omit his now regular moral tag, placed by itself at the end of the book. With all this there are few children who will not be pleased, but if they are to read these pages for themselves, there are far too many hard words in them; and if they are to be read to, why then the full-blown 'Alice' is not above them. It is noticeable, as a matter of judgment, that these chapters are pure description, without conversation, and that the nonsense verses are wholly omitted. The reason of this last is not clear to us, unless, as in the case of the parody, "You are old, Father William," the author shrunk from prepossessing infant minds against serious doctrine.

Horace Mann's lecture, 'A Few Thoughts for a Young Man' (New York: John B. Alden), though now more than forty years old, has still its saving lesson for the class to which it is addressed. Time has made some of the illustrations and examples old-fashioned or obsolete, but it is still a widely held opinion that, "in the woes of Ireland, God is proclaiming the wickedness of England," and that "the millionaire is as dangerous to the welfare of the community in our day as was the baronial lord of the Middle Ages"—albeit there is a vast difference between the millionaire of 1849 and him of 1890. So where Horace Mann asserts that "Gall, Spurzheim, and Combe have done for Metaphysics, or the science of mind, as great a work as Bacon did for Physics, or the laws of matter," we should now substitute Darwin and Theology. Contrary to the command of Greeley, "Go West, young man!" Mann concluded his discourse with "Orient yourself!"—borrowing from the French this "beautiful phrase, which would enrich any language that should adopt it."

The industrious ex-editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* has made a book, 'The Passion Play as It Is Played To-day' (New York: Charles E. Merrill & Co.), which carries out the promise of its title as none other does, Mr. Stead being his own witness. He had to compile it laboriously from the performance, and from other and antiquated books of the play. To facilitate following the action, he has cast his English version (parallel with the German) into the form of a Biblical narrative, embodying the movements of the stage. Finally, he has studded the volume with portraits and scenic representations after photographs. In these the likeness of the *Christus* to Count Leo Tolstoi is rather striking. Mr. Stead's introduction and reflections are characteristic of his sensational temperament.

Hinrichs (Leipzig) has published a new edition of the Mishnic tract, 'Sabbath,' edited by Prof. Herman L. Strack. Like its predecessors in the series, 'Idolatry,' 'Day of Atonement,' and 'Ethics of the Fathers,' it is carefully edited from the manuscripts, and furnished with notes and a vocabulary. Unlike the texts heretofore edited by Prof. Strack, 'Sabbath' is not vocalized. These editions are doing much to promote the study of post-Biblical literature, and will no doubt clear the way for a new dictionary of the 'Mishna.'

A German series of reprints analogous to the English "Libraries" edited by Prof. Henry Morley is the "Deutsche Litteraturdenkmale des 18. und 19. Jahrhunderts," presided over by Bernhard Seuffert, and henceforth to be published in Stuttgart by the house of G. J. Göschen. This is a more thorough and scholarly enterprise than Morley's, as must needs result from a wide collaboration. The introduction is sometimes as bulky as the reprint. Invariably care is taken to denote the pagination of the original; notes are added where necessary, and these, in the case of the complete poetic works of J. P. Uz (No. 33), record the variants of the several editions most minutely. Four other numbers are before us: (Nos. 29 and 30) Gerstenberg's 'Briefe über Merkwürdigkeiten der Litteratur,' a notable landmark in the pursuit of English studies on the Continent; (No. 31) Karl Philipp Moritz's 'Ueber die bildende Nachahmung des Schönen,' and (No. 32) Johann Anton Leisewitz's 'Julius von Tarent' and dramatic fragments. The print of these handy volumes is excellent, and the introductions are in Roman type.

The first *fascicule* of the long-expected French Dictionary of Prof. Adolphe Hatzfeld and the late Arsène Darmesteter has just been issued in Paris by M. Charles Delagrave. The work had been some seventeen years in preparation when it was interrupted by M. Darmesteter's too early death. His place in it has been taken by a pupil of his, M. Antoine Thomas, lecturer in Romance philology at the Sorbonne. The full title of the work is 'Dictionnaire Générale de la Langue Française du Commencement du XVIIe. Siècle jusqu'à nos Jours, précédé d'un Traité de la Formation de la Langue.' It will follow out both the logical and historical development of the French tongue on substantially the lines indicated by Darmesteter in his 'La Vie des Mots.' Fascicules of eighty pages will appear every other month, and will be sold at a franc each. About thirty fascicules will complete the work. The first goes from A to "Ajournement."

A new quarterly, the *Economic Review*, is announced, and its first number will appear in October. It will be carried on by the Oxford University branch of the Christian Social Union, and will be devoted to the consideration of economical and social questions, both in their wider aspect as theories, and also practically and technically. That is, it will consider such questions not only as they bear upon social life as a whole, but also as they relate to special classes of men, or special industries, at one period or another. The price of subscription will probably be ten shillings, and subscribers or contributors are invited to apply to the Rev. J. Carter, Pusey House, Oxford.

Too little known to the art world is the *Archivio Storico dell' Arte*, published by Loescher (Rome, Florence, Turin), and edited by the accomplished librarian of the Victor Emmanuel Library of Rome, Domenico Gnoli, with the assistance of the entire staff of the Department of Fine Arts of the Ministry of Public Instruction and of most of the leading German writers on Italian art. It is especially directed to the investigation of the archives of the libraries, convents, and other public institutions of the peninsula which have come under the supervision of the Government by the measures of secularization or reform which the Government has had to effect since the unity of Italy became a fact; but it is not limited to those. The number for May-June has, for instance, some exceedingly interesting researches in the vaults of the Vatican, where are works of Donatello and Mino da Fiesole which have been long lost to the world. Numerous illustrations from photographic negatives give sufficiently the character of the works, and the text by Gnoli is exhaustively descriptive. One of the contemporary copies of the "Cenacolo" of Da Vinci forms the subject of another paper, and the photograph is of especial interest, for it probably represents the original better than any of the known copies, as it was evidently by a pupil of Da Vinci, whom Frizzoni in the text recognizes as Gian Pietrino, exiled from Milan and in refuge in Lugano. It is in the village of Ponte Capriasca, near Lugano, Italian Switzerland. A most important branch of the studies of the editorial staff is the collation of documents relating to the history of art or artists, and the number before us has letters of Titian which had escaped his biographers and are of curious interest. As a storehouse of material for the historian of art, the *Archivio* will be invaluable, and it should be in every public library. It is now in its third year, with a circulation which by no means defrays the expenses of printing.

A rather amusing attack upon the English Astronomer Royal seems to be implied by Col. Maurice, R.A., in his article on the Battle of Waterloo in the June number of the *United Service Magazine*. He says: "Twice during the Nile campaign [of 1882] Lord Wolseley made arrangements for movements by moonlight, and found darkness instead of light attend them, because the almanac prepared in the office of the Astronomer Royal at home had omitted to record total eclipses of the moon on the nights in question." To this weighty charge it is replied that the Astronomer Royal can hardly be considered in the capacity of almanac-maker, although, at the request of the War Office, he did contribute the times of the rising and setting of the moon for Egypt from July 1, 1882, to June 30, 1883. Another similar request was made in 1884, in response to which these times were again computed, from July 1, 1884, to June 30, 1885; but upon the ultimate shape of the almanac the Astronomer Royal was never consulted, nor was any information as to lunar eclipses requested at these times. Later, however, in 1884, he was asked for more computations, including eclipses, which were, as usual, promptly supplied. There is also some evident confusion of dates, for the only eclipse of the moon occurring in Egypt during the first period mentioned was of so insignificant a nature that its interference with military night-movements is most improbable.

—We analyzed, not long since, three books about American authors, with the result of discovering that the headquarters of our authorship still remains, very much as of old, in Massachusetts, New York, and Connecticut. Another way of following up the same inquiry is by analyzing the so-called "American Academy," devised by the New York *Critic*, and consisting originally of "forty immortals"—to adopt the ambitious French phrase—selected by a constituency of about 130 voters from among the readers of that weekly. This balloting took place in 1884, and the result certainly showed a rather miscellaneous and haphazard selection, the eminent historian, Francis Parkman, standing at the bottom of the list of forty, with nominees like Charles A. Dana and D. G. Mitchell far above him. This was not altogether strange, for of course every such ballot must vary with the personal equation of the newspaper calling for it. If the call had proceeded from the New York *Independent*, for instance, it is quite certain that the Rev. Dr. Storrs would have found a place among the "immortals"; the readers of the Boston *Literary World* would have been very likely to substitute the present editor of the *Atlantic Monthly* for the editor of the New York *Sun*; while the constituency of the Chicago *American* would have been pretty sure to claim places for Gen. Lew Wallace and Maurice Thompson, neither of whom seems to have received a single vote from the electors commissioned by the *Critic*. Nevertheless, the out come was, after all, a more reasonable list than might have been predicted, and probably better than would have been brought together by Presidential nomination, Congressional committee, or popular election. In creating the National Academy of Science, it will be remembered, there was a good deal of miscellaneousness in the original membership; and it has required a gradual elimination through years, by death or otherwise, of the less desirable material, to produce the present picked body. This was a difficult process to carry on even in pure science, but it is obviously harder in literature, where the standards of merit are less easily determined. It is a noticeable fact that a similar process of substitution has already begun in the *Critic*'s "Academy"; and the choice by the "immortals" themselves of nine new members shows on the whole more maturity of selection than was seen in the original list. The men thus chosen are the following, in the order given: R. W. Gilder, Phillips Brooks, C. E. Norton, F. J. Child, F. R. Stockton, H. C. Lea, A. D. White, H. H. Furness, and Joel Chandler Harris.

—All this may seem to the public, as it very likely does to the participants, to be rather in the nature of a joke. Yet it has a certain interest, as had the three books of biography just mentioned, in the light it throws on the geographical distribution of those who are, or purport to be, our leading authors. An analysis of the final list of forty, viewed in respect to habitat, shows the following results: *Massachusetts:* Aldrich, Brooks, Cable, Child, Fiske, Frothingham, Hale, Higginson, Holmes, Howells, Lowell, Norton, Parkman, Whittier (14). *New York:* Burroughs, Curtis, Dana, Gilder, Hawthorne, Stedman, Stoddard, Tyler, White (9). *Connecticut:* Clemens, Fisher, Lathrop, Mitchell, Porter, Warner, Whitney (7). *New Jersey:* Stockton, Whitman (2). *Pennsylvania:* Furness, Lea (2). *England:* Harte, James (2). *District of Columbia:* Bancroft (1). *Michigan:* Winchell (1). *Georgia:* Harris (1). *Italy:* Story (1). If, now, we make inquiry as to the birthplaces of these forty selected authors, we find the same result established—New England having a very marked majority, and Massachusetts alone affording nearly half. The analysis is as follows: *Massachusetts:* Bancroft, Brooks, Child, Fisher, Frothingham, Hale, Hawthorne, Higginson, Holmes, Lowell, Norton, Parkman, Stoddard, Story, Warner, Whittier, Whitney (17). *New York:* Burroughs, Harte, James, Whitman, Winchell, White (6). *Connecticut:* Fiske, Mitchell, Porter, Stedman, Tyler (5). *Pennsylvania:* Furness, Lea, Stockton (3). *New Hampshire:* Aldrich, Dana (2). *Rhode Island:* Curtis (1). *New Jersey:* Gilder (1). *Georgia:* Harris (1). *Louisiana:* Cable (1). *Ohio:* Howells (1). *Missouri:* Clemens (1). *Hawaiian Islands:* Lathrop (1). How far this precedence extends also to weight of metal must be left to the judgment of each reader. New England and New York, it seems, still furnish the bulk of the recognized authors of the nation, although Dr. Eggleston, in his 'History of the United States and its People' (p. 381), mentions it as the leading characteristic of the "present school of writers" in this country that they "are not chiefly a group of men about New York or Boston." As a matter of fact, this group predominates as distinctly as ever, so far as is indicated by these forty so-called "immortals." It is, indeed, rather remarkable to see how well even Harvard University holds its own; ten of the fourteen Massachusetts residents being Harvard graduates, together with four others (Messrs. Bancroft, Story, Dana, and Furness), making in all fourteen out of the forty. In one respect at least this American imitation has the advantage of its French prototype, inasmuch as its candidates are not expected to go about, hat in hand, and beg for ballots. It seems a pity that another innovation should not be introduced, and that women as well as men should not be admitted to so much of literary immortality as can be guaranteed by a vote taken through the post-office.

—The first volume of the 'Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay' has appeared, and in type and general make-up is uniform with the sets of Hamilton, Franklin, and Washington, issued by the same publishers (Putnams). The editor, Prof. Henry P. Johnston, is known as a painstaking student of American history, and an authority in certain branches, and he has had free use of the Jay papers. This first volume covers Jay's life to 1781, and includes his services in the Provincial Convention, the Continental Congress, and in Spain, and the editor has followed closely what has been printed in the Life of Jay and in the Diplomatic Correspondence. The interest of the volume lies chiefly in letters written to Jay, many of which are new. There are two from Hamilton, one, a remarkable production for a youth of nineteen, announcing that he "has thrown out a handbill or two" to defeat the schemes of the Tories; one from John Morin Scott on the Battle of Long Island; one from Schuyler on the retreat from Ticonderoga, with others bearing upon the intrigues

against the General that threatened to deprive him of his usefulness to the cause; and some throwing much light on the Vermont claims, which exercised Jay a good deal. After his arrival in Spain a few new letters to Franklin and Adams are printed, but they add little to what was known before. In all his letters to America the burden of Jay's advice was, "Depend on yourselves." "I believe there is no man of your age in Europe so much a favorite with the ladies," was one of his first greetings to Franklin. Mr. Johnston has done wisely to include some letters from the ladies, and the glimpses given by the few that are printed make us regret that he did not omit such of Adams's or Washington's letters as are included in the collections of their writings, to make room for more from Kitty Livingston, Mrs. Jay, and Mrs. Montgomery.

—The editor has been too sparing in his notes, assuming in his readers too much acquaintance with American history. He prints Jay's letter to the Committee of Tryon County, but neither inserts nor refers to Jay's letter to Gouverneur Morris, which could alone explain the occasion for the first. So when Jay was chosen to the Spanish mission, there should have been some reference to the contest in Congress that led up to it, by which Jay was virtually used as a club to knock out that arch mischief-maker, Arthur Lee, while John Adams was chosen a minister to make a peace. Prof. Johnston prints the first instructions of Congress to Jay from the original among Jay's papers, which shows some differences from that printed by Sparks, who used the report of the Committee to draft the instructions. That is a distinct improvement; but in printing the subsequent instructions (Oct. 4, 1780) to insist on the right to navigate the Mississippi, something should have been said to direct attention to the able letter of Congress, drawn up by Madison, explanatory of these instructions. Still more necessary was it to direct attention to the fact that the subsequent recession from their claim to this right, communicated to Jay in instructions of February 15, 1781, was a temporary measure, extorted by the success of the enemy in the South, and revoked as soon as the danger was past. Nor is it necessary to be squeamish in the printing of names in place of the asterisks. In one letter Prof. Johnston has supplied the name, Wooster, who has had very few compliments paid to his merit; but in a letter from Rutledge on the Conway Cabal, the asterisks are retained, although one familiar with the episode has little difficulty in supplying the names, the *Lees* and *Mifflin*. Still, these defects are small in comparison with the general excellence of the collection. We note some typographical errors: "Dickenson" for Dickinson (p. 32) and probably "attacked" for attached, for surely candor, generosity, confidence, and good offices are odd weapons with which to attack America. The omission of dates of letters and papers from the table of contents makes reference awkward.

—The sixth annual report of the Universities Settlement in East London records the best year, both inwardly and outwardly, of the five years' life of Toynbee Hall. This institution, which bears the name of a much loved and much lamented young Oxford man, is, as is generally known, an attempt to reach and help the misery of some of the worst parts of the East of London by means of personal contact and influence. It is partly a club whose members devote themselves to the exercise of the duties of citizenship in East London, and partly an educational institution. Men of education settle down in it, and take up the duties that come to them naturally from their surroundings. "Some of the residents of Toynbee Hall have been keenly interested in labor movements, others in the management of schools, others in the administration of relief, and others in higher education." Still, the main development of the settlement has been educational. This was not what was contemplated at first, though it is what might have been looked for. The young university men gave most easily and naturally of what they had in store to give, and were sought by those who lacked and desired what they could impart. Their list of good works includes lectures, conferences, conversazioni, student and workmen's clubs, halls for resident students, a library, and many other beneficent agencies. These are all now in full and successful working, and are likely to increase and multiply. The only thing needed is more money and more men. It is almost incredible that all of the public work of Toynbee Hall last year was carried on and directed, all the education and entertainment given, all the thousands of visitors welcomed, for an expenditure of less than £900 per annum. The special expenditure of the Educational and Entertainment Funds increases this only to about £1,225. Toynbee Hall is by no means the only or the largest work that is going on in the East of London, but it has one or two characteristics that make it specially interesting. One of these is the size of the settlement. It is intended that there shall never be less than twelve residents in the house. For exterior work twelve men are worth far more than six times two, while within doors there is far less danger of losing heart in the presence of difficulties, or of narrowing so as to run in a rut. Another characteristic of Toynbee Hall is an entire absence of sectarianism. Among its residents have been found Churchmen, Nonconformists, Roman Catholics, Jews, as well as those who would not accept the name of any sect. "No man can say that Toynbee Hall has any narrow aim; it does not exist to increase any party or to bring honor to anybody." It is a work which possesses all the nobility, and deserves all the honor, which comes from singleness of purpose and disinterestedness.

— News comes from Switzerland of the death of Mr. Charles Loring Brace, a well-known author of several books of travel, sociology, and theology, and for the last forty years conspicuous in this city as an efficient missionary among the poor. Mr. Brace was the founder and the soul of the Children's Aid Society, which has rescued thousands of young lives from the perdition of this metropolis, and sought for them homes and a fair start anew in all parts of the country. He also founded the first newsboys' lodging house in this country. Mr. Brace was born in Litchfield, Conn., in 1826, his father being a teacher and journalist of very varied accomplishments. He graduated from Yale College in 1846, and pursued theological studies, but was drawn aside from the pulpit career to engage in practical philanthropy. His first journey abroad, following his studies at Berlin, was used as a preparation for his life work, and he visited a great number of reformatory institutions in Great Britain and on the Continent. In Hungary (it was just after the collapse of the revolution), he suffered a political arrest on suspicion, and was with difficulty released. Some of his earlier writings are entitled 'Hungary in 1851,' 'Home Life in Germany,' 'Norse Folk,' 'Races of the Old World,' 'The New West,' 'The Dangerous Classes of New York.' His latest, which seemed to recall his clerical predilections, were 'Gesta Christi' and 'The Unknown God.' Mr. Brace was also one of the first contributors to the *Nation*. Personally, he had a very genial temperament, and kept an ever hospitable home, where he lived surrounded by his books, on the banks of the Hudson. In spite of his years, his death has the appearance of suddenness, in the plenitude of his intellectual powers and in the midst of his disinterested labors.

FROTHINGHAM'S BOSTON UNITARIANISM.

Boston Unitarianism 1820–1850: A Study of the Life and Work of Nathaniel Langdon Frothingham. By Octavius Brooks Frothingham. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890.

In a prefatory note Mr. Frothingham explains that many years ago he proposed writing a sketch of his father's life, but abandoned the project on account of the meagreness of the biographical material. Recently, having been urged to the duty by an admiring friend of his father, he resolved to interweave his reminiscences and impressions of his father's life and character with some account of his time. Boston Unitarians whose days have fallen into the sere and yellow leaf will be especially grateful for this account of men and things whom once they knew and of which they were a part, but no local element will exhaust the interest of a study to which Mr. Frothingham has brought the amplest preparation and of which his own personality and antecedents are a great enhancement. That the mid-period of Boston Unitarianism should have found its historian and critic in the most distinguished representative of the later and most radical development of the Unitarian movement, is not so remarkable as that it has found in him an historian and critic so appreciative and so sympathetic that no one of its own set could have done it fuller justice than is done it here.

Nothing was more characteristic of Mr. Frothingham as a preacher than his ability to put himself in an opponent's place and state his case as fairly and more eloquently than he could state it for himself. Sometimes his statement—so his friends complained—was stronger than his refutation, and left the enemy in possession of the field. This quality was never more apparent in his preaching than it is throughout the present work. Especially in the earlier chapters his self-effacement is to a remarkable degree. He is more the advocate than the historian; so much so that, though he does ample justice to Channing and Parker, both variations from the type that he has set himself to describe particularly, his treatment of the latter tends to disparagement, and contrasts sharply with his former treatment of him in his biography of him and in his history of New England Transcendentalism. It will be remembered that some years ago, after Mr. Frothingham had concluded his brilliant career as a preacher in New York and had been to Europe for a long time and returned, a reporter of the *Evening Post* came upon him in a mood of general exhaustion and depression, and elicited from him something that had very much the appearance of a melancholy recantation of his radical opinions. Those who remember that will be very apt to think, as they read the earlier chapters of this book, that Mr. Frothingham has made that mood the permanent habit of his mind, or that he has returned to it almost with violence. Only the most careful readers will note a sentence here or there, a turn of phrase, in which the mask is for a moment twitched aside, and the wise

smile which it conceals admits us to the author's private thought. As the book goes on, either he wearies of the mask or it is deliberately thrown aside, and the conservatives and reactionists who have imagined him as coming back to them will find themselves without excuse for such a hope, if they do not feel that Mr. Frothingham has victimized them cruelly, to such a flattering promise bringing such a contradictory term. Certain it is that never in his most radical preaching was Mr. Frothingham's break with the traditional theology of the sects more definite and uncompromising than we find it here as we draw near the end.

In his first chapter he describes three types of Unitarianism, and makes Channing representative of one—the spiritual; Parker of another—the practical; the third—the cultivated, the scholarly, the elegant, the refined, the safely conservative and cautiously progressive—had no better representative of its virtues and defects than Dr. Frothingham, minister of the First Church in Boston. Mr. Frothingham's account of Channing is very generous, and shows a disposition to exalt his worth which is strongly marked among the more radical Unitarians of the present time. When Mr. Frothingham calls him "the father of Spiritual Christianity," we wonder if he is not forcing the note, and even if he did not mean to write Unitarianism. Why he should set Parker over against Channing's spiritual aspiration is not clear, for Parker had not less of this than Channing. The word spiritual is one of the vaguest of all words, but if it describes a morality that is "touched with emotion," that is inseparable from the thought of God, Parker would seem to have been the more spiritual of the two. What is most valuable in Mr. Frothingham's discrimination is his perception that for all Parker's liking for speculation he had little aptitude for it. Consequently, his hold on the intuitive philosophy, of which he was the avowed protagonist against all comers, was slight and artificial. He and Channing presented the interesting spectacle of two men each in fundamental sympathy with the system of philosophy which he formally disowned.

The Boston type, to which Channing and Parker were about equally exceptional, is nowhere better described by Mr. Frothingham himself than in a quotation from his father's tribute to Dr. William P. Lunt:

> "He loved to hold fast, so far as he could, to the language of Scripture, and to the doctrine, liberally interpreted, which had come down from the fathers. He was more anxious to accept than to define hallowed phrases. While he was open to new light, he was jealous of innovations. He shrank from all approach to the subversive speculations of the newest criticism. . . . The political and reformatory movements of the day he was slow to admit into his pulpit. Controversial religion was not to his liking."

In these phrases Dr. Frothingham described himself as accurately as his friend, except that his own closet opinions were probably remoter from his public utterance than those of Dr. Lunt. Dr. Frothingham was born July 23, 1793. When his son speaks of the little Boston of that time—a Boston of 30,000 inhabitants—as fuller of intellectual life than any other city of the time, does he not make its twittering self-consciousness the measure of its actual attainment? In 1815 the father was ordained to the ministry and entered on his life-long charge. There is an interesting account of the famous Thursday Lecture, the rock on which Theodore Parker and his clerical brethren most obviously split. The present version of that catastrophe is hardly that given in Mr. Frothingham's Life of Parker. There we are invited to sympathize with Parker; here with Dr. Frothingham. In both versions the young Octavius blows the bellows of the church organ. Parker's objectionable preaching was not so absolutely the end of the venerable institution as is commonly supposed. It flamed up under his mighty breath, but it smouldered for some time after the trick by which he was debarred from further use of it, hardly more dubiously than for some time before.

If a chapter on "The Dogmatical Position" is not clear-cut, it is because the position of the men described was not so, from deliberate choice. The chapter contains much interesting matter to which its title lays no claim. "It must be confessed," says Mr. Frothingham, "that there was not much *moral earnestness*, as that term is usually apprehended, among these men." Channing's central idea of the dignity of human nature had for them small attraction. His own society was little after his own heart. It went with him in none of his projects for reform. He could not have his church for Dr. Follen's funeral sermon. "James Walker, it was said, would not *vote* lest he should be associated in the public mind with political opinions." Another minister said of the Abolitionists: "These men have brutalized the spirit of the community." Leaving the name of this "excellent minister" unwritten, Mr. Frothingham passes his virtue to the credit of the whole company, which is hardly fair. But it was Dr. Chandler Robbins, who, during the period of civil war, boasted that "neither sermon, prayer, nor hymn had, in his church, reminded people of the strife." Yet this man was not incapable of generous emotions and courageous acts. He called the outcry against Emerson's Divinity School address a "vulgar clamor" and a "popular roar," and at the most critical juncture of the Parker trouble Mr. Parker found in him a tender, if opposing, friend. Dr. Frothingham's preference was "for people who don't get into jail"—this with a small donation in response to a solicitor for the *Prisoner's Friend*. He could not understand "the sympathy of well-meaning persons with those who have outraged every feeling of humanity"—an astonishing sentiment from one looking to Jesus as the author and finisher of his faith.

We breathe more freely and the prospect widens as we come to the fifth chapter, which is entitled "Literature and Religion." In the allowances of these men in critical and scientific matters there were the fruitful germs of the most daring radicalisms of the present time. They thought they could go a certain distance—as far as Andrews Norton—and then stop. Their openness on the literary side was a delightful feature of their individual and common life. The Unitarian clergymen, Edward Everett and others, who passed out of the ministry into literature and politics, were hardly more literary in their habits and their aspirations than many who remained behind. Frothingham, Clarke, and Hedge were deep in German studies, and Mr. Frothingham might easily have made much more of his father's 'Metrical Translations' and other poems. But it is not as if these were not easily accessible. The concluding stanzas of the poem "Homeward from Foreign Lands" touch, perhaps, the height of a talent which was singularly fine and pure.

A chapter on the father's foreign travel is mainly interesting as showing how much has been lost as well as gained by changing methods of travel, but also as a revelation of Dr. Frothingham's personal tastes. Best of all is a chapter, "The Freedom of Friendship," in which brief sketches are given of a number of Dr. Frothingham's clerical friends, Francis Parkman, Alexander Young, William P. Lunt, for whose ordination Dr. Frothingham's most celebrated hymn was written; Chandler Robbins, Samuel K. Lothrop. To find JOHN PIERPONT in small capitals with this circle seems an utter incongruity; but in the "freedom of friendship" there were tolerations of which the pulpit did not admit. Dr. Convers Francis, brother of Lydia Maria Child, seems almost equally incongruous. There was a mild infusion of worldliness in the Boston set of which he had no taint. Nathaniel Hall of Dorchester, "not distinguished as a preacher or writer, or for other shining gifts," seems also out of place. Neither he nor Francis nor Pierpont was an illustration of the type of which Dr. Frothingham was a bright example. Mr. Frothingham's spontaneous enthusiasm when he speaks of Mr. Hall is his most damaging reflection on the temper of his Boston type. Mr. Hall was an anti-slavery preacher, and the most eloquent page in Mr. Frothingham's book is an extract from one of his sermons asserting his intention to use, as he had used, his office for the advocacy of the anti-slavery cause. With several of these clergymen there were connected traits and incidents that Mr. Frothingham's exacting taste has not allowed him to rehearse. Of Dr. Parkman's humor he gives some good examples, but there are many others which, after a thousand repetitions, have not lost their charm in Unitarian gatherings of the more private sort.

Such names as those of Hall and Francis and Pierpont suggest a caveat which cannot be too studiously heeded in the reading of this book. There was such a type of Unitarianism as Mr. Frothingham has described—scholarly, elegant, urbane, conservative, cautious, cowardly—but it was less exhaustive of even Boston Unitarianism as a whole than would be gathered from this representation, even allowing for such exceptions as the above named and Channing and Parker. Another exception was Dr. Gannett, politically as conservative as any, but nevertheless a flame of ethical passion and of spiritual earnestness; not scholarly, or literary, or dainty, or urbane; who could, as Emerson once said, "pour a stream of lava over their sea of ice." Clarke, as literary as any, was with Parker in his political fidelity; and Bartol, if he could be classified at all, certainly could not be with Lothrop and Parkman and Lunt and Robbins and the preëminent subject of Mr. Frothingham's sketch. In concluding the chapter under consideration, Mr. Frothingham gives a brief account of Unitarian periodicals, in which the most singular thing is his omission of any mention of the present *Unitarian Review*, the more singular as his praise of the *Christian Examiner* as conducted by the Rev. Joseph Henry Allen is as warm as possible, and the *Unitarian Review* is simply a revival of the *Examiner* in Mr. Allen's editorial charge.

One of the most elaborate chapters in the book is called "The Unitarian Layman." It is devoted, for the most part, to a characterization of Mr. Peter C. Brooks, one of whose daughters Dr. Frothingham married, Edward Everett marrying another, and Charles Francis Adams a third. Mr. Frothingham does his best to make a good show for his grandfather, but it is up-hill work. His limitations were such as Henry James would love to paint—infinitely depressing. He had, however, no suspicion that he had any. His self-satisfaction was entire. "He was not an anti-slavery man," says his biographer; "far from it. He would not have been if he had lived later when

the agitation had fairly begun"—as if it had not begun a score of years before his death. But in his minute journal there are no allusions to its increasing rage. There are some slips in this chapter. On page 101 we read: "Dr. Channing he took no interest in, and less than none in Theodore Parker." On page 125: "He believed in Dr. Channing," etc. On page 102 his liking for Dr. Gannett is offered in evidence of his liking for "power that did not run to enthusiasm," of which Dr. Gannett had as much as Parker.

In his closing chapter, wherein the blindness of Dr. Frothingham for many years is an affecting incident, his son indulges in some general reflections on the Unitarianism of the present and the past. While not denying to the former its right to the Unitarian name, here as elsewhere he seems too much inclined to appropriate it for his Boston set exclusively. He says, "Unitarians appealed to the Bible and went no further. They were shut up in its enclosure and will always be." But already they are not in one case in a hundred. Mr. Frothingham has even gone so far as to say that Channing was not a Unitarian. The same method of criticism would show that Luther was not a Protestant, George Fox a Quaker, Wesley a Methodist, or Garrison an Abolitionist. But the highest is the truest measure of alike the party and the sect.

HAIGH'S ATTIC THEATRE.

The Attic Theatre: A Description of the Stage and Theatre of the Athenians, and of the Dramatic Performances at Athens. By A. E. Haigh, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

It was high time for such a work as Mr. Haigh's to make its appearance in English, as our existing treatises have long been antiquated and incorrect in many details. This, indeed, is the case not only with Donaldson's 'Theatre of the Greeks,' but with all our handbooks on classical antiquities. Englishmen and Americans have been busy enough in research and exploration; but the results of investigation for the last fifty years have not been embodied in any comprehensive treatises, such as with the Germans are constantly encouraged and demanded. It is worth notice that out of the long list of authorities which Mr. Haigh refers to in his preface, the only English work mentioned is the learned and judicious essay on the Dionysiac Theatre by Mr. J. R. Wheeler, published in the Transactions of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens.

Mr. Haigh's purpose has been to collect and piece together all the available information concerning the outward features and surroundings of the old Athenian dramatic performances—in other words, to write a history of the Attic drama from the theatrical as opposed to the literary point of view. The result is a work which has the very decided merit of being at once learned and readable. The references, which are full and satisfactory, are carefully banished to the foot-notes; and, as a consequence, any reader of ordinary intelligence may peruse with pleasure almost every chapter and discussion in the book. Perhaps this ease of style lapses at times into diffuseness and a habit of repetition; but, on the whole, Mr. Haigh's work is as satisfactory to the scholar as to the general reader. He deals with a subject which admits of learning and good judgment rather than original research, so exhaustively has it been of late years investigated and discussed. He follows, for example, unavoidably in many particulars, the admirable work of Dr. Albert Müller, entitled 'Lehrbuch der Griechischen Bühnenalterthümer'; but he does so with an independent judgment and occupies a somewhat different field. He concerns himself almost exclusively with the representations at Athens, but he has collected everything that bears on this theme, not omitting the lately discovered inscriptions which confirm the date of the first performance of the "Agamemnon," with its associated plays.

The earlier chapters discuss the general characteristics of the Attic drama, the festivals at which it was exhibited, the various kinds of contests and prizes, and the mode of choosing the judges. Then follows a minute description of the Dionysiac Theatre, based on the latest investigations and measurements; while the succeeding chapters treat respectively of the scenery, the actors, the choruses, and the audience. Mr. Haigh concludes that the great Dionysiac festival lasted probably five or six days, and maintains, in opposition to the opinion of Lipsius, that in the fifth century B. C. a comedy was performed each day after the tragedies. He corrects the old-fashioned statement that the Choregus competed for his tribe, and, if successful, received a tripod from the State, which he erected on a monument in some public place, with an inscription recording his victory. This was true only of the dithyrambic choruses. The other competition was, in fact, purely personal, and the wealthy citizen who had spent thirty minæ, the equivalent perhaps of $2,500, on the costumes and salaries of a tragic chorus, was simply crowned with ivy in presence of the spectators, and had the privilege of erecting a tablet in commemoration of the event. Themistocles erected such a tablet four years after the battle of Salamis. Mr. Haigh mentions the earlier orchestra in the market-place, described by Dr. Dörpfeld, which is referred to, probably, in the 'Apology,' when Socrates says that any one could buy the works of Anaxagoras in the orchestra for a drachma. He accepts the view that, in the fifth century, the orchestra of the Dionysiac Theatre was a complete circle, like that of the theatre at Epidaurus, but controverts Dr. Dörpfeld's opinion that the stone seats of the auditorium and the first permanent stage-building date from the time of Lycurgus. He accepts, accordingly, the statement of Suidas that the stone theatre was begun 499 B. C., and holds that the expression "benches" (ἵκρια) used by Aristophanes and Cratinus is merely a relic of the days of the early wooden theatre. The work of Lycurgus was therefore an improvement or completion of a structure already existing. "It is impossible," he says, repeating substantially the remarks of K. O. Müller, "to believe that Athens, the city in which the drama was originally developed, and whose theatrical representations continued to be the admiration of all the rest of Greece, should have been later than Epidaurus and later than her own sea-port, the Peiræus, in providing herself with a permanent theatre."

It is an interesting question, much discussed in late years, whether, in the fifth century B. C., the Greek theatres had any elevated stage at all, or λογεῖον, from which the actors spoke. It was raised, we believe, first by Höpken in 1884 from an examination of certain passages in the drama; and more recently so high an authority as Dr. Dörpfeld has maintained, on architectural grounds, from an examination of the remains of the Dionysiac Theatre and that at Epidaurus, that the actors stood in the orchestra on the same level with the chorus, and that the elevated stage belongs to a much later date. This view seemed to be supported by the explorations at Thoricus (see correspondence of the *Nation*, No. 1120, December, 1886), where no remains were discovered of a stage-structure of any kind; and it has been adopted by some eminent American and English scholars, among the latter by Prof. Jebb. Dr. Dörpfeld's final and complete account of the researches on which he bases this opinion is, we believe, not yet published; but his reasons, so far as hitherto given, are the extreme shallowness of the stage and the scant room it affords for action—that at Epidaurus, for example, is only eight feet wide—its extravagant height of ten or twelve feet, and the absence of any extant connection between the orchestra and the stage.

Mr. Haigh maintains with a good deal of force the old-fashioned, conservative view of the question, following mostly the arguments of Dr. Müller, but rejecting his hypothesis of an intermediate platform which diminished the distance between the actors and the chorus. He appeals to the undoubted fact that in the Roman times the Greek plays were performed with a stage of the height given by Vitruvius; he assumes the use of a wooden flight of steps, removable at pleasure, to connect the stage with the orchestra, and he adduces the important evidence of vases found in lower Italy, which represent scenes from the Old Comedy as taking place on an elevated stage. One of these, indeed, dated as far back as the third century B. C., depicts a staircase such as he conjectures. It must be frankly said that each view leaves serious difficulties unexplained. If Dr. Dörpfeld's is accepted, what became of the ἐλεός, or elevated table, on which, according to Pollux, the prototype of the actor in early times used to mount? Is it the natural order of development that such a convenience as a slight elevation for the actors should disappear totally in one century, and should afterwards reappear in an exaggerated form? How, again, do we explain the reluctance of the chorus, its feigned or absurd excuses, when asked to take part in the action on the stage? How could the central throne of the front row be assigned to the priest of Dionysus as the choicest in the theatre, when the chorus must have stood directly between him and the actors? The cothurnus did not elevate the actor sufficiently to do away with this difficulty, and, besides, the cothurnus was not worn in comedy. On the other hand, Mr. Haigh, who accepts the shallow stage at Epidaurus, does not explain how Agamemnon could parade in a chariot and pair, along a shelf eight feet wide, leaving room for actors and projecting scenery. Neither does he account for the excessive and apparently inconvenient height of the stage. "There is no doubt some difficulty," he says, "in imagining a conversation between persons in the orchestra and persons on a stage twelve feet above them. Perhaps during the fifth century the stage was not so high as at a subsequent period, and this may be a solution of the difficulty."

Not the least merit of Mr. Haigh's work is the fulness and clearness with which he exhibits the points of contrast or resemblance between ancient and modern dramatic representations. He does not disdain to answer those questions which naturally occur to the layman, and which scholars, perhaps from familiarity, often ignore. The religious origin of the drama brought many consequences that are rather bewildering to the modern mind. Most prominent amid the rows of reserved seats for dignitaries and officials of various kinds was the armchair of the priest of Dionysus, and the places reserved for

other ministers of religion. To this class belonged no less than forty-five out of the fifty-four personages in the front row whose places have been ascertained by the remaining inscriptions. This "bench of bishops" often listened to choral odes as elevating as any of the Psalms, and more decorous than many of our Christian hymns, but they must also have witnessed performances that would try the modesty of a nautch-girl, and in which all notions of morality and reverence were turned topsy-turvy; and yet, as Mr. Haigh puts it, "the spectator who sat watching a tragedy or a comedy was not merely providing for his own amusement, but was also joining in an act of worship." Perhaps he puts this rather strongly, and perhaps he goes too far in saying that the attendance of women and boys at these spectacles was regarded as "a pious duty." He is perfectly right in urging that such customs must not be judged in accordance with preconceived opinions. The evidence seems indisputable that both sexes were present at the tragedies, and boys, strange as it may seem, at the comedies. It is by no means so clear that women attended the comedies. If Lipsius is right, they were acted on a single day before the tragedies, and attendance on the one did not, as Mr. Haigh asserts, involve attendance on both. The passages cited from Aristophanes, on close examination, are not conclusive, and the jest in the "Peace" (lines 966, 7) loses its point, in fact, if the women are present. Finally, we must allow for some independence and diversity of sentiment. In matters of decorum, the Rubicon is sometimes hard to trace; but some of the Athenians at least had their punctilio. The protest of Aristotle in the 'Politics' proves this, if it proves nothing more. The boy Autolycus, in the 'Symposium' of Xenophon, withdraws before the mimic representation of the marriage of Dionysus and Ariadne. The young wife of Ischomachus, like others of her social rank, "had been carefully brought up to see and hear as little as possible and to ask no questions." In whatever way these words are taken, whether they applied to affairs or to morals, no young woman who regularly saw and heard plays like the "Knights" and the "Lysistrata" could be said to be either very ignorant or very innocent. Participation in certain festivals or religious processions is really an entirely different matter.

Another curious consequence of the religious associations of the drama was that the actors were also regarded as sacred personages, and received accordingly certain important privileges. These "Artists of Dionysus," as they styled themselves, were the subject of special decrees by the Amphictyonic Council, granting to the members of the guild immunity from military service and personal security in time of war. They travelled about freely from place to place, and supplied small and distant towns with the entertainment which we call the "provincial theatre." Their reputation and character were much the same as those of our strolling players. The social position of a first-class actor was highly honorable; he was often the companion and intimate of kings and a trusted agent in delicate matters of diplomacy. In the fifth century, the poet was not only stage-manager and musician, but dancing-master, if we may use the expression—that is, he supervised the movements of the chorus and invented figures for them. It was Phrynichus who boasts of himself that he discovered more figures for the dance than there are waves in a stormy sea. This age of great poets was succeeded by an age of celebrated actors. Their whims were humored, and plays were written expressly for them. Their reward, too, was extravagant. Polus received a talent for two days' acting, a sum which Patti might despise, but to which Irving might condescend without loss of self-respect. The qualities of a great actor were, of course, somewhat different from what we demand. He must be a singer as well as an actor, and a loud, resonant voice was a primary qualification to fill the immense auditorium in the open air. Yet the acoustic properties of the theatre at Athens are even now satisfactory, and Aristotle praises Theodorus for his natural style of delivery. The splendid poetry of the choruses was not intended to be launched upon a sea of sound and submerged, as in our choirs and oratorios; the music was entirely accessory; there was no harmony, and every syllable could be heard with distinctness.

The sudden blossoming and maturity of the Athenian drama, comprised within the space of a lifetime, reminds us of the miracles of the Elizabethan age; but while Shakspere lived (one may say) incognito in his own generation, Æschylus and Aristophanes were instantly detected by that susceptible people who were ready often to postpone a battle for a festival, and who spent more, as Demosthenes complains, on their theatres and processions than on the army and navy together. Mr. Haigh suggests rather absurdly, forgetting the sunset beauty of Lord Tennyson's "Demeter" and the vigor of the epilogue of "Asolando," that the unabated force of such a poem as the "Œdipus at Colonus," written at ninety, is due to the life and energy inspired by the perpetual rivalry of the dramatic contests. However that may be, the popular enthusiasm must have been an immense encouragement to the dramatic poet. Where, except in Athens, could a play like the "Frogs," which hinges on literary criticism, have found the audience and the success it deserved? Where else would the popular excitement and the spirit of partisanship have gone so far that the most elaborate devices were needed and enacted to prevent foul play on the part of the judges and to preserve the purity of their critical ballot? It sounds like travesty to hear that a certain Pythodorus was wicked enough to "tamper with" the urns, or ballot-boxes, after they had been deposited in the Acropolis for safe-keeping; and it would strain the imagination to conceive a Mayor of New York or Chicago presiding, as did the Archon, at a Government theatre, and endeavoring, with extreme solemnity and delicacy, in the face of a dangerously enthusiastic audience, to see that the best poet and the best actor received a prize awarded at public expense. It speaks well for the taste of the Athenian audience and their judges that the great poets generally did win the prizes. The strangest exception to this was the defeat of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" by a third-rate poet. But, as Mr. Haigh explains, the mounting of a play must have had much to do with its success with the populace, and this kind of success depended entirely on the liberality of the Choregus. Nicias and Antisthenes, who spent unsparingly, were always successful with their choruses.

The illustrations include two views of the Theatre of Dionysus copied from recent photographs. One of the most novel is a copy of a vase-painting, of Athenian workmanship, belonging to the first half of the fifth century, which represents a chorus of men dressed as birds dancing to the accompaniment of the flute. A list of the arguments prefixed to the plays, and a selection from the inscriptions which confirm or supplement their evidence, conclude a work which may be pronounced as satisfactory as it is much needed—a work sometimes expressing views more positive than the evidence will warrant, but, in the main, sound, learned, well-arranged, and well-written.

VENN'S EMPIRICAL LOGIC.

The Principles of Empirical or Inductive Logic. By John Venn, Sc.D., F.R.S., Fellow, and Lecturer in the Moral Sciences, Gonville and Caius Colleges, Cambridge. London: Macmillan.

THE appearance of an elaborate and extensive work on inductive logic, by a writer of established reputation, is not an every-day event. The announcement that Mr. Venn was about to issue a book bearing the above title was calculated to excite lively interest and considerable expectation; and upon the first point to which this interest would, in a great proportion of cases, be directed, the author promptly gives us sufficiently explicit information in his brief preface. His attitude towards the great work which for three decades stood the unrivalled exponent and inspirer of clear thinking, is indicated as follows:

"As many readers will probably perceive, the main original guiding influence with me—as with most of those of the middle generation, and especially with most of those who approached logic with a previous mathematical or scientific training—was that of Mill. But, as they may also perceive, this influence has subsequently generated the relation of criticism and divergence quite as much as that of acceptance; though I still continue to regard the general attitude towards phenomena which Mill took up as a logician, to be the soundest and most useful for scientific study."

Nothing could be more satisfactory than this to any disciple of Mill; it at once assures us that we are to encounter nothing in the least resembling the attack by which Jevons only succeeded in staining his own memory and in exhibiting the narrow limits within which his ability, considerable as it was, was bounded; and at the same time it leads to the expectation that important corrections and additions to Mill's doctrines are to be found in the work before us.

We regret to say that in our judgment this expectation is entirely disappointed. Mr. Venn's criticisms and divergences are almost uniformly characterized by one quality—they lack substance. It is not so much that they are wrong, though in our opinion they sometimes are; it is that they are fine-spun, scholastic, unreal. And this character attaches not only to special criticisms—in which it is sometimes not out of place—but to the whole texture of the book in almost all its parts. It is a thousand pities that this should be so, for in clearness of style, in accuracy of statement, in closeness of reasoning, in abundance of well-chosen and illuminating metaphors and analogies—in all these qualities, so important in a work on Logic, Mr. Venn can hardly be surpassed. But he lacks one quality indispensable to a writer on the logic of truth, as distinguished from the logic of consistency, an abiding sense of the difference between the real and the unreal, between the important and the trivial.

The ways in which this deficiency of the author manifests itself are various. One of the most conspicuous, and not the least detrimental to the utility of the book, is the astonishing amount of space that is devoted to mere questions of language, in a work upon the principles of empirical logic; and, allied to this, the remarkable prolixity of explanations and discussions relating to points of more or

less interest, but which a bare mention would sufficiently dispose of, for an audience of the intelligence which Mr. Venn's work must presuppose. It would hardly be too much to say that the whole book is one continuous illustration of this prolixity; yet, in the nature of the case, it is hardly possible to cite an instance of it within the limits of a short review. One example which can be understood without quoting, is furnished on page 281, where the author devotes about two pages to justify his speaking of the technical terms in use among a particular class—for example, the slang of sporting men, or the special terms of the higher mathematics—as a distinct language; a proposition the solemn expounding of which is obviously thrown away upon any one so stupid as to need it.

Another way in which this character betrays itself is in the absence, almost throughout, of any reference to the actual importance, in the history of the progress of knowledge, of the considerations which the author discusses. Whether a given mental process is called into play when we see a cricketer and infer that the other ten are somewhere in the neighborhood, or whether it plays a great part in fathoming the problems of the physical universe or of human society, seems to make no difference to Mr. Venn. Of course, for mere purposes of illustration, it is not only permissible, but unfortunately almost always necessary, to use trivial examples, inasmuch as the real and great ones take us too far afield; but unless the applications to these real and great objects be kept in mind and at every opportunity actually referred to, the treatment not only loses in importance and interest, but is deprived of its chief safeguard against those incongruities and self-contradictions which are sure to be the punishment of mere subtlety and over-refinement.

Mr. Carveth Read, in a long and laudatory review in *Mind* of Mr. Venn's book, points out an error which seems to us a fair illustration of what we have been saying, though the reviewer himself does not cite it as indicative of any general trait. Mr. Venn introduces a class of Uniformities of Nature which do not, according to him, come under the law of Causation, and which are neglected by logicians, although they are one of the important "classes of considerations upon which sound and reasonable persons unhesitatingly rely every day of their lives in speculation and practice alike." The Uniformities in question are denominated by Mr. Venn Uniformities of Persistence, and he proceeds to "intimate their nature" by an example the discussion of which constitutes his definition and discussion of the general principle he wishes to establish. A woodman cuts down a tree one day in the forest; he feels sure that he will find the tree the next day in the same general condition in which he left it. On what does he base this confidence, or upon the basis of what general law—as distinguished from an "appeal to botanical or chemical considerations"—can the logician sustain him in it? It cannot, "without extreme violence," Mr. Venn says, be grounded on the Law of Causation, as understood by Mill, because this applies only to changes, while the phenomenon we are here concerned with is the absence of change. Mr. Carveth Read points out that in this contention Mr. Venn overlooks the contraposed form of the Law of Causation, namely, that where there is no cause of change there is no change. As to whether there has been a cause of change in the night or not, the woodman relies upon his past experience, and supposes the night just past to have been essentially similar to all the other nights he has known in this respect, and the tree similar to other trees. This obvious view of the case would, we believe, have been taken by Mr. Venn had he kept most prominent in his mind the great and leading ideas of scientific thought, and been less intent on filling up trifling crevices which his defective sense of proportion magnifies into great gaps. What he does do here is to advance a "Principle of Continuity" which he considers the nearest approach that can be made by any "law of real generality" (*i. e.*, law not appealing to considerations special to the case in hand) towards justifying the woodman's expectation. As to this law, "all that it denies is actual discontinuity; that is, instantaneous change." But such a law as this is plainly no more pertinent to the case practically than it is needed as an addition to the Law of Causation theoretically; it does not (as Mr. Venn plainly admits) enable us to bridge over the interval of a night or of any other stated time. Of course, the true answer to Mr. Venn's demand for a "general law" to cover the case is that there is none; the phenomenon does rest entirely upon special peculiarities, and it *is* a question of chemistry or botany how much change will take place in a given time in a felled oak or a plucked mushroom or a pint of yeast.

It is possible that we have been taking the book somewhat more seriously than the design of its author would justify; if it be looked upon less as a treatise on Logic than as a collection of acute observations upon Logic, the book becomes much more satisfactory. Even in this aspect there is too much light and clever saying of things merely because they can be said; ingenious defences of half-truths, and flippant criticisms of great principles—a kind of thing which the genius of the "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table" keeps within bounds, and which few others can be trusted with, and which, besides, is eminently out of place in philosophical discussion. But, after all, any one who goes to Mr. Venn's work not to have the foundations of his logical knowledge strengthened or rectified, but to get light upon any points which may chance to be fruitfully treated by the author, will find instruction on a great variety of topics and lucidity in the treatment of all, and will get the mental discipline involved in reading a writer who, however he may err by excess of words, is invariably clear and accurate in his language.

History and Pathology of Vaccination. By Edgar M. Crookshank, M.B. 2 vols., 8vo. Vol. I. A Critical Inquiry. Pp. xxiii., 466. 19 plates. Vol. II. Selected Essays. Pp. vi., 610. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.

PROF. CROOKSHANK is a bacteriologist of repute who has reached the astonishing conclusion that vaccination affords no protection against smallpox. In his own words, "Inoculation of cowpox does not have the least effect in affording immunity from the analogous disease in man, syphilis; and neither does cowpox, sheeppox, cattle-plague, or any other radically dissimilar disease, exercise any specific protective power against human smallpox" (i, p. 469).

Jenner held that what is known as cowpox is smallpox modified by its presence in the cow, and probably derived from "the grease" of horses, which was substantially the same disease. The grease hypothesis is now generally regarded as untenable. The author, however, quite disagrees with Jenner as to the vaccine disease having any connection with the variolous disease, and, partly on account of this disagreement, he denies the preventive efficacy of vaccination as against variolation. He goes further and sets up the theory that, after all, cowpox is practically a venereal disease (i, pp. 461–4). There is, as far as we can see, no logical reason and certainly no scientific evidence to connect cowpox with any form of lues. Whatever flaw there may be in Jenner's theory does not interfere with the substantial results derived from the practice. However desirable it is that fact and theory should coincide, fortunately in the natural world this is not necessary for the existence of the fact. Else how long would man have been in literal darkness from false theories of light, and cold with no true explanation of fire? Medicine in particular is an experimental science, not to say in a degree an empirical art. A part of its progress is along strictly logical lines, but many of its facts are as yet inexplicable except as facts. It is no reproach to Jenner that, believing as he did, from observation, that an affection of the cow when transplanted to man protected against smallpox, he should go further and regard it as a veritable although modified smallpox that was thus introduced. In view of the known value of direct inoculation with true smallpox virus (since supported by modern experience with attenuated animal-disease causes), it was a reasonable hypothesis. In our opinion it remains so. His fame justly rests upon his seizing the logical deduction, and particularly upon his conceiving and putting into practice the broad idea, that the protection he believed the vaccine disease to afford could be indefinitely extended directly from man to man, and upon his zeal in publishing his opinions and facts for the benefit of the world. His premise of the variolous nature of cowpox *may* be false; his conclusion that smallpox is prevented by vaccination is true.

Jenner certainly had been anticipated in the intentional inoculation from the cow — the most conspicuous and best authenticated instance being that of Benjamin Jesty, a farmer, who thus protected his family in 1774; and he probably was not the very first to communicate the disease from man to man. But his own action was original, and these isolated antecedent examples did not inure to the general good. Not satisfied, however, with depreciating any claims to priority that might be made for Jenner, with demolishing or at least writing down his theory, and with setting up quite new ones as to the nature of the vaccine disease or diseases, the anti-vaccinists (for Professor Crookshank, who is merely a late pervert, does not stand alone) deny his facts. It seems to us that it is just as distinctly true that a person properly vaccinated may be exposed to the contagion of smallpox with impunity as that a modern ironclad may defy the obsolete ordnance of earlier days. An accidental shot may enter an open port or strike a defective plate, and an occasional subject may receive the disease in a modified form. But the general principle of security to each remains undisturbed.

This seems so clearly a matter of daily as well as of historical experience, that there is no room for argument. The mortality, to say nothing of the morbidity, from this excessively contagious disease has been reduced in the mother country from 3,000 to about 100 per million; in the United States it is no longer a permanent resident of cities, and from broad country districts it is absent for years. In former times it was a standing menace to health and life, whose actual ravages can only be appreciated by study of contemporary records. The anti-vaccinists, however, claim that

smallpox, like the plague, is an exotic in northern latitudes; that it has cycles of recurrence, that it gradually fades away under improved general sanitation and by a mysterious law of self-limitation, and that vaccination on the whole does more harm than good. Their reasoning, using the term by courtesy, seems akin to Brother Jasper's when he contends that "the sun do move."

In the interest of truth and not of faction, it is, however, only fair to say that the stock of virus originated by Woodville in 1799 in the midst of a smallpox epidemic, which was the chief if not the only supply for the world for forty years, *may* have been modified by a case of intercurrent smallpox early in the series, and thus there may have been a substantial variolation instead of a vaccination. This is what the author contends (i, p. 163), but the evidence for it is much more speculative than a great deal that he tries to brush away as fictitious. It is, nevertheless, a fact that Badcock of Brighton, by the deliberate variolation of a cow in 1840, produced a benignant vaccine virus that is non-infectious and protective (ii, pp. 520 *et seq.*). The virus so generated has been in general use in that section to the present time. This extensive experiment gives support to Jenner's facts and color to his theory. It certainly demonstrates that variola is rendered milder by its transmission through the cow, whether "casually," as Jenner supposed, or directly, as Mr. Badcock induced.

Unfortunately, the author has in some curious way allowed his feelings to become involved in his argument. He seems to have conceived the most serious dislike to Jenner, and to believe that no good can come from that Nazarene. Whether this warping is due to his conviction that vaccination is a useless procedure, or the reverse, we cannot tell. It has left these volumes great magazines of information, from which students will not be apt to draw the same conclusions as their collector. They are admirably printed and made up, but the want of an index greatly diminishes their working value.

Rig Veda Americanus. Sacred Songs of the Ancient Mexicans, with a gloss in Nahuatl. Edited, with a paraphrase, notes, and vocabulary, by Daniel G. Brinton, A.M., M.D. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton. 1890. 8vo, pp. 95. Illustrated.

As a sequel or continuation of the 'Ancient Nahuatl Poetry,' containing twenty-seven Mexican poems and published in 1887, Dr. Brinton now presents to the scholarly student another series of twenty shorter poems, which originated among the same people. The editor discovered them in two manuscripts containing the works of one of the earliest missionaries among the Mexican natives, Bernardino de Sahagun, whose importance for the mythology and customs of the Nahua exceeds that of any of the contemporaneous or later writers on the same subject. Sahagun had mastered the Aztec language so thoroughly that he found no difficulty in composing his 'History of New Spain' in that language, from which he afterwards made the Spanish translation which now forms the base of our printed editions. These editions do not by any means contain the complete works of Sahagun; the Laurentio-Medicean Library in Florence, however, owns a complete copy of the Nahuatl original in three volumes, beautifully illustrated with 1,378 pictures, most of them colored. From this manuscript Brinton copied the twenty "hymns" in April, 1889, but in his preface he omits to tell what connection these songs hold to the text of Sahagun's work. These same songs he found in an older Nahuatl manuscript of Sahagun, preserved in the library of the King of Spain in Madrid. From this Dr. Brinton copied a continuous Nahuatl gloss or text explanatory of the songs, which is wanting in the Florentine manuscript, and also extracted a few *lectiones variæ* of the texts. The five illustrations of divinities or their symbols mentioned in the songs are taken from the Florentine codex and appear there in colors, being probably reproduced from hieroglyphic books in which the Nahua used to record their ancient lore.

The items belonging to each song are presented by the editor in the following order: Title in Nahuatl, as Tlalloc icuic ("of Tlaloc his song"); Ixcoçauhqui icuic ("of Ixcoçauhqui [the fire god] his song"); text of the song, divided into paragraphs, and followed by variants and the corresponding gloss; Brinton's attempted translation; notes explanatory of names, antiquities, etc. The deities are represented very characteristically in the pictures; we see among them the rabbit-gods Totochtin, regarded as the genii of the drunkards; the god of the silversmiths in his festive array; and the goddess of food and drink, Chicomecatl ("seven guests"). Colors in Mexican paintings are always significant, and hence Brinton's photographic reproductions of them lose considerably in value.

Most of the songs presented in this volume seem to be of a ceremonial character, and have little or nothing religious in them. There are also drinking, dancing, and travelling songs among them, and nothing can be more misleading than to call them "hymns" and to compare the collection with the contents of the Rig Veda, which is preëminently religious in its character. The "Rig Veda Americanus" of the title-page is grammatically correct as to its masculine gender, but on page 13 *Veda* suddenly appears as put in the feminine—"Rig Veda Americana"—and in large type too. This mistake of the Philadelphian "professor of linguistics" is fully equalled by another mistake of his. Of Centeotl, the deity of maize-crops of the earth, and of fertility, he makes a god, whereas all the ancient Mexicans, especially the Totonac people, worshipped this deity as a *goddess* and not as a male god.

The wording of some songs in the collection is extremely obscure, which is partly caused by the faulty condition of the text and gloss. Obscurity is also a characteristic of the songs of our Northern Indians, and many of these can, on account of their archaism, laconicism, and apcsiopesis, be understood only when the Indians who make or sing them give a full explanation of each term and sentence. The gloss of several poems in Brinton's collection is still more obscure than the text, and often manifestly incorrect. The English paraphrase furnished by the editor to every song does not, under these circumstances, pretend to be accurate in every word or verse, and we can reasonably suppose that it often strays far from the true meaning.

When texts so full of errors and inconsistencies as this have to be edited verbatim from the manuscript, the errors should at least be corrected throughout in foot-notes or commentaries; or the editor might publish the corrected text, and then add the readings of the original in foot-notes. Brinton simply prints the faulty text of the original verbatim, and then lets the studious reader shift for himself in unravelling the enigmas which such a text involves. Corrections are suggested in a few instances only in the notes and in the glossary appended.

To give a few instances, the editor prints: Quetzalcalla, house of the Quetzal, equivalent to 'place of joy,' and tetzaubpilla, 'master of fear,' not only in the text and the gloss, where he found these forms, but also in his glossary, although he ought to know that calli and pilli are the only correct forms for *house* and *master*. Tlaxotla, page 15, he declares to be the passive form of tlaça, 'to hurl,' 'to throw'; but the grammars of Nahuatl do not show any passive forms in -tla, for -lo and -ua are the principal passive endings. Carochi mentions, as the passive form of tlaça, tlaçalo *or* tlaço. Sometimes the pronoun ni, 'I,' is written separately from the verb to which it belongs; sometimes both are written as one word, as on page 36. The sentence vii., 6 (same page), should be made more intelligible to students by adding its correct orthography in a note: tlachtli ica paca aya, uel in cuica aya, quetzalcucux aya, quin nanquilia Çinteutl, a-aay. So, also, should the orthography toçiquemitla, yya be discussed in a note and the correct form given: toçiquemitl aya, the first word being the compound term to-çitl-quemitl, 'the vestment of our ancestress.' On page 18, "can" should be spelled çan, 'only.' In using the terms "metastasis" instead of metathesis and "sandles" for sandals Dr. Brinton enriches the English language in a way that is quite unexpected.

Those who are desirous of studying the historical, metrical, and artistic side of Mexican poetry will find ample material in Brinton's 'Ancient Nahuatl Poetry,' the most complete sketch on this subject heretofore published.

Natürliche Schöpfungs-Geschichte. Gemeinverständliche wissenschaftliche Vorträge über die Entwickelungs-Lehre im Allgemeinen und diejenige von Darwin, Goethe, und Lamarck im Besonderen. Von Ernst Haeckel, Professor an der Universität Jena. Achte umgearbeitete und vermehrte Auflage. Berlin: Georg Reimer; New York: Westermann. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xxx, 832.

Earlier editions of Prof. Haeckel's 'Natural History of Creation' have made it very well known. It has been translated into a dozen languages, a distinction based on real merit. Whatever the ultimate fate of some of his theories or of some of the hypothetical steps in his scale from spontaneous generation to the highest zoölogical developments, our author's work ranks with the most valuable at present on the shelves of the naturalist's library. The fact that it has already been reviewed and discussed so often renders extended comment on the matter in general unnecessary.

The twenty years or more that have passed since its first appearance have been those of most rapid scientific progress, and the changes made, on account of the advance, in successive editions of this book, give something of an idea of the character and extent of the impulses and movements effecting evolution in science. The present arrangement of the matter, though modified in some respects, is not essentially different from the former. "Allgemeine Entwickelungs-Lehre (Transformismus und Darwinismus)" is an explanatory title given to the first volume; the second bears that of "Allgemeine Stammes-Geschichte (Phylogenie und Anthropogenie)." Originally there were twenty chapters, the last previous edition had twenty-four, the present has thirty. From the first to the seventh, mainly of an historical character, including discussion of the views and theories of Linnæus, Lamarck, Kant, Goethe, Cuvier, and many others, the text has a familiar appearance; from the eighth to the fifteenth,

on transmission, adaptation, selection, divergence, etc., it has been so much extended and modified as practically to have been rewritten.

In the second volume (discourses sixteenth to thirtieth), in connection with the author's phylogenetic system, genealogical trees, and kindred topics, modifications and additions are numerous. The drift of radical Darwinians in the last decade towards the speculative and metaphysical has made demands upon Haeckel for space and discussion, but we do not see that he has been in the least carried away by it. His position agrees with that of the conservatives who look up to Herbert Spencer as chief among evolutionists; who consider Darwin's great work to have been the establishment of Lamarck's theory of descent by means of the theory of selection; who see in natural selection one of a number of factors in organic evolution; who firmly believe in the inheritance of acquired characters, etc., etc. Haeckel's bias is towards the monistic, the materialistic, and mechanical; he has no interest in the spiritualism of Wallace, and is really a much better exponent of the Darwinism of Darwin. The comprehensiveness of his plan, and the excellent manner in which it has been carried out, involved treatment of the views of many of the more important investigators; in the main the references are fair, to his favorites often complimentary. The most of the citations direct the reader to the 'Generelle Morphologie der Organismen' by Ernst Haeckel. While we may not subscribe to various theories and conclusions, or accept certain links in his chains (suppositions concerning derivation) as more than mere expedients and approximations finally to be swept away by the tide of investigation, there is, in our opinion, no equally comprehensive work the knowledge of the contents of which will be more beneficial to the student, or that will put him in possession of a better idea of general zoölogy, than the subject of this notice. Its popularity and usefulness in some circles might have been increased by omission of flings at thoughtless and ignorant opponents, sneers at religion, the clergy, "der unfehlbare Papst," and especially of a few somewhat bitter allusions to contemporary authors. Whether consequences of wounds inflicted by them or of injuries done his opponents by the author, a reader neither knows nor cares; he only gets from such expressions a glimpse of narrowness and spitefulness that detracts seriously from an otherwise flattering estimate.

The Theory of Credit. By Henry Dunning Macleod. Vol. II., Part I. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

WHAT Mr. Macleod has here to say about the exchanges is not without value, although there is little in it that is new. The remainder of this book, however, is almost entirely vitiated by several fundamental fallacies, and the whole of it is disfigured by the overweening conceit of the author. Mere vanity, even if as egregious as his, is not an unpardonable sin; but when accompanied with glaring misrepresentations of the views of others, expressed in very abusive language, it passes toleration. Mr. Macleod's mildest expression, when criticising a current opinion, is that it is a complete error, and some of Mill's conclusions—which, we may parenthetically observe, are as little affected by Mr. Macleod's vaporings as the pyramids by the winds that blow about them—are denounced as dogmas of "preposterous folly," which can meet with no acceptance from statesmen or practical men of business. In fact, Mill's reputation as an economist "is now utterly exploded among all intelligent persons."

A single illustration will suffice to show either the dishonesty of Mr. Macleod's practices or the confusion of his thought. He quotes Mill as saying, "The uses of Money are in no respect promoted by increasing the quantity which exists and circulates in a country; the service which it performs being as well rendered by a small as by a large aggregate amount." He then exclaims: "But is it not possible to develop new works and new industry by means of introducing new Capital? According to this dogma, the introduction of new Capital into a country can do it no service." It would be easy to fill all our space with instances of misrepresentation quite as disgraceful. He caps the climax of this absurdity by asking the question: "Has not the prodigious increase of the Wealth of Scotland during the last 150 years been due entirely to the Cash Credits of the Scotch Banks?"

As a rule Mr. Macleod's statements are as inaccurate as they are positive. Even in speaking on a subject of all others requiring preciseness, that of the exchanges, he declares in the first place that there is, as near as possible, one-fourth more pure gold in an English sovereign than in a Napoleon; then that if the English sovereign were taken as the standard, it would be equal to 1.25 Napoleons; and finally that the English sovereign is, after all, not exactly 1.25 Napoleons. We are told many times that the legal relation between Banker and Customer is *simply* that of debtor and creditor; but we are elsewhere informed that the customer constitutes his bank his agent, and again that there is another important distinction between an ordinary debtor and a banker debtor. After listening to numerous sneers at the "pure delusions" of other writers and many contemptuous references to their vagueness of thought, we are presented with the following specimen of exact definition, occurring in an account of what is done with notes and checks: "The customer himself, or the holder of the note or check, may demand payment of it: if they do so, the banker's liability is extinguished." If this be law, we need not wonder at the fortunes made in banking. It may be urged by the merciful reader that it is easy to see what the writer means. We are not so sure of that, having looked over his whole exposition; but even if it were true, it is to be remembered that we are dealing with an author whose pages are crowded with bitter reflections upon those who express themselves inaccurately concerning these subjects.

The greater part of Mr. Macleod's confusion is due to his disregard of the distinction between money and capital and to his misconception of the nature of credit. A bank is not a "manufactory of credit," as he supposes. Credit existed before banks, and banks are but the instruments through which the credit that already exists is utilized. Credit is the belief that a man will pay what he says he will, founded upon the fact or the belief that he has or will have sufficient property to enable him to pay. If this property consists of promises to pay, these must eventually have a material basis. A, who has known material possessions, endorses B's note, believing that B has or will have sufficient goods to meet it. C exchanges his wares for this note, believing that between A and B he is safe, and then passes the note to his banker, believing that his banker is able to pay all demands that will be made upon him. The banker, if he is accommodating, acknowledges his indebtedness on his books to C, or, if he is cautious, postpones this acknowledgment until he has collected the note, or stipulates that C shall add his guarantee to that of A. Then C's banker sends the note to B's banker, and gets money for it or cancels a debt with it, B having meanwhile paid his banker money or other paper having a like history, the process being interminable. Here is much credit and many debts, but the entire transaction is based upon the existence of material property somewhere to the amount of the note. It may not prove to be in A's possession or in B's possession, but in that case it will prove to be in possession of C or of the banker. If C, as we supposed, delivered wares for the note, there we find the material basis at once; if the note was accommodation paper, we may not be able to tell where it is, but it is somewhere—generally, when things go wrong, in the possession of the bank's stockholders.

Now, the debts created in transactions of this general character are considered by Mr. Macleod to be wealth: "The mere will of man has created vast masses of wealth out of nothing." The contemplation of the results arising from this proposition naturally throws him into paroxysms of amazement over the stupidity of those who are suspicious of the magical character of this wealth, and leads him to statements that remind an American reader of the fanatical appeals of our colonial advocates of paper money. Of course he holds that public debts are public wealth, and, as a corollary, that "every person's income is paid out of the income of some one else." It would seem that a tiller of the soil who satisfies his own wants would therefore have no income. After this it need occasion no surprise that Mr. Macleod should explain the fall in the rate of interest from 20 or 25 per cent. to 3 per cent. as due to the increase of banking credits.

A study of the following sentence throws the fallacy of this theory of credit into clear relief: "Now if it be admitted that Money expended in agricultural improvements is used as productive capital, how can it be denied that credit employed in exactly the same way, and which produces exactly the same effects in every way as Money, and produces exactly the same profits, is also equally productive capital?" Mr. Macleod deceives himself with words. It is not money that is expended in agricultural or other improvements. When they are completed, there is just as much money as there was before. What is expended is the labor of men and beasts, food and clothing, spades and ploughs, carts and harness, and many other tangible things. If the soil were upturned with ploughs made of gold coin, and pulverized with harrows made of bank-notes, Mr. Macleod's theory might be admissible. With the facts as they are, we can only say that it is the same old will-o'-the-wisp that has deluded so many ambitious financiers.

The Agamemnon of Aeschylus, with an Introduction, Commentary, and Translation, by A. W. Verrall, Litt.D., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. lxii, 272.

EDITIONS of the 'Agamemnon' appear so frequently—the present is the fourth one, each by a different editor, published within a few years by Macmillan—that one more would ordinarily call for nothing further than an announcement of its publication. Not so with Dr. Verrall's work. He had previously published an edition of the "Seven against Thebes," and he says: "This edition of the 'Agamemnon' is the second instalment of that edition of Aeschylus which I hope to com-

plete in course of time." He adds that the present volume "was commenced long before" the other and has been "frequently rewritten." The result of this long and patient study is an entirely new interpretation of the drama as a whole.

The plot of the "Agamemnon" has always been explained in accordance with an "hypothesis" prefixed to it by some Byzantine grammarian or scholiast of unknown name and date. This plot, Dr. Verrall asserts, and in our opinion proves, is full of glaring, gratuitous, and useless inconsistencies, absurdities, and impossibilities. It violates all the rules of dramatic art, more especially of Greek dramatic art, and is contrary to the practice of Aeschylus himself as exhibited in his other extant dramas. Two questions immediately present themselves: first, how came the author of the "hypothesis" to give an absurd explanation of the story of the play? and, secondly, why have all the modern editors acquiesced in this explanation? It is precisely in answering these two questions that Dr. Verrall makes his strongest point. He says that the Byzantine scholiasts "never read the play as literacure at all." They searched the text for strange words, archaic forms, obsolete meanings; but for the drama as a whole, as the fruit of constructive poetic genius, they cared nothing at all. They studied the play from a purely grammatical and lexicographical point of view. In regard to the point of view of an Athenian audience witnessing its performance, they knew nothing and cared nothing. Of the complete indifference of the Byzantine critics to the structure of the play, and of their utter want of artistic sense, there is a remarkable proof. That each of the *dramatis personæ* should speak the words which the poet intended he should, would seem to be of the very essence of a play. The Byzantine critics cared nothing for this. So careless were they that no modern editor has paid any attention to the manner in which they arranged the dialogue, whenever the sense seemed to demand a different distribution. An editor who should scrupulously reproduce their divisions of the MS. would be regarded by both critics and readers as a fool. Dr. Verrall thinks that their exposition of the plot should be treated with equal contempt.

Turning now to the second question, Why have modern editors acquiesced in the Byzantine interpretation? Dr. Verrall says that this acquiescence has been more apparent than real. The earlier editors were necessarily and rightly occupied with preliminary linguistic and grammatical difficulties. It is only within the memory of living men that the play has been studied as a whole and not piecemeal. Dr. Verrall thinks, and brings a mass of evidence to show, that most, if not all, the editors who have studied the play with reference to its structure as a dramatic whole to be explained according to the Byzantine "hypothesis," have been as well aware of its absurdities and impossibilities as he himself. He does not claim to be the first discoverer. But these editors failed to ask themselves whether the Byzantine interpretation was necessarily the true one. They have endeavored to make the best of it. In order to do this no one of them has ever dared to tell that story fully and frankly. Such of its absurdities as they could ignore without attracting the attention of their readers, they have ignored. Those that were too manifest to be passed over in silence, they have softened down and glozed over and then withdrawn from notice by calling attention to the "deep moral feeling" of the play, its "bold delineation of character," its "splendor of language," its "resounding rhythm." In a word, they have endeavored to hide the nonsense of the plot under the nobleness of the poetry.

Dr. Verrall then proceeds to do what no editor has yet ventured to do, to tell "fully and frankly" the story of the "Agamemnon" as it was conceived by the Byzantine critics, and as it has, with more or less suppression, been adopted and taught by modern editors and professors. Having thus exposed its absurdity and impossibility, or, rather, having allowed it to expose itself by telling it in full, Dr. Verrall throws it aside as unworthy of a third-rate modern playwright, and proceeds to give the story as he understands it, and as he believes the Athenian audience who listened to it and awarded it the highest prize understood it. In this process of interpretation, the history of the Greek drama, the place which Aeschylus occupies in that history, the story of Agamemnon after the fall of Troy as it is related by Homer in different places in the 'Odyssey,' the points of difference between the Greek and the modern drama, the great dissimilarity in the conditions under which an Athenian audience listened to the first presentation of a new play and those under which a modern audience listens, and many other matters which we have no space to allude to, are all brought to bear upon the interpretation of the story. And what is the result? The absurdities become logical sequences, the inconsistencies are all reconciled, the impossibilities vanish, and the drama as a whole stands before us a consistent and symmetrical creation of the highest dramatic genius, worthy to take a place beside the best historical plays of Shakspere.

It is worthy of notice that Dr. Verrall, in supporting his view of the play, has not, even in the smallest degree, tampered with the text. On the contrary, he prides himself on the fact that for a long time no editor has adhered so closely to the MS. reading as himself. He goes even further. Comparatively few and slight as are his deviations, yet, he says, if he were to go over it again he would adhere still more closely to the MSS.

His book has two appendices. The first contains minute examinations of twenty-six passages, which, from their length, could not conveniently be included in the commentary, although they form an essential part of it. They are remarkable specimens of wide reading, acute criticism, and keen insight into the subtleties of the Greek language. The second appendix treats of the metres of the play in accordance with the principles of J. H. H. Schmidt. Then follows an English prose translation of the entire play. Dr. Verrall has not prefixed the epithet "literal" to his translation; and while it fairly represents the text, in details it is very free. Any "bad boy" who should attempt to use it as a "pony" and to "crib" translations of difficult passages from it, would pretty surely come to grief. Two indexes, one Greek the other English, complete the volume.

Four Years in Rebel Capitals. By T. C. De Leon. Mobile: The Gossip Printing Co.

A PARTICIPANT'S account of stirring events has a quality of personal interest not belonging to more ambitious history. In this way these pages may attract more at the North than at the South. For four years the social and civil life of an enormous part of our country was hidden behind a more than Chinese wall. Northern society was only incidentally affected by the war for the Union, but at the South all was changed. The curious mental effort to imagine themselves foreigners first of all had its subjective effect on Southerners. Then their self-built barriers led to the usual consequences of inclusion and isolation, and very soon the pressure of want, doubt, and impending failure, combated by pride, did mould them into a peculiar if not an alien people.

The author disclaims writing history; but every now and then he brings into notice conditions generally ignored by those who looked upon the South as a nation spontaneously in arms. Against the judgment of Mr. Davis, the earlier troops were accepted for twelve months, instead of for three years or the war. But when the winter of 1861-'62 had passed, "fifteen months of quiet endurance of hardship, danger, and doubt . . . had done their work," and enlistments could not be stimulated. While "the soldiers of the South were more anxious than ever to meet the foe," "they had a vague feeling that they must fight nearer home," and "each yearned for the hour when he would be free to go and strike for the defence of his own hearthstone." So, with the wisdom of the serpent, the Conscription Act of April 16, 1862, was passed, Sumter one year old. As the writer naïvely remarks: "It retained, of course, every man already in the field, and its intent was to put in the army every man in the country between 18 and 35." He frankly adds: "Had the men whose time expired been once permitted to go home, they could never again have been collected"; and this before any really hard fighting had begun. With the Conscription Act was coupled a Bill of Exemptions that fully justified the cry that it was the rich man's war and the poor man's fight. In September, 1862, the conscription age was extended to 45; and later all exemptions were abolished (on paper), and, still later, lads from 16 to 18 and men from 45 to 60 were drafted as home-guards, and sometimes actively served as such. It does no harm to recall occasionally the kind of unanimity with which the South maintained its lines.

The most interesting of the serious chapters are those treating of the failure of the Confederate currency. The plan that Secretary Memminger did not adopt, but which the author puts forth as the true one pressed upon him by business men, namely, to buy up with Confederate bonds all the cotton in the country in 1861, to ship it to Liverpool, and to sell it there at rapidly increasing prices for gold, hardly recognizes the factor of transportation and entirely ignores free-will in the planter. The latter might have been dispensed with, but not the former.

The writer adds really little to our knowledge of men or measures, but he throws some side-lights upon the fashion and opinion of those days, upon the gayety of Richmond and upon its sorrows. The rage for speculation with a valueless currency, the influence of the gambling hells as the days grew darker, the innocent dissipation of the city where woman sought to lighten the hardships of the field—all have their place. The book does not all run in one vein, and much of it is fourth-rate. But the comments upon Davis, his Cabinet and Congress, upon the generals on both sides; the transcript of popular feeling in Richmond, as Big Bethel, Rich Mountain, Manassas, Hatteras Inlet, Fort Royal, Mill Springs, Roanoke Island, Newbern, Donelson, opened the way for the deadlier conflicts; the elation and the gloom of the populace, and the evident despair of the more intelligent long before the close of the war was in sight—are worth reading.

Newspaper Reporting in Olden Time and To-day. By John Pendleton. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1890.

THIS little volume appears in the "Book-Lover's Library," and, so far as material embodiment is concerned, it is not unworthy so to appear. But its substance is of the slightest. There are a few extracts from the "Acta Diurna," supplied originally by Dr. Johnson to the *Gentleman's Magazine*, and then we pass on to the seventeenth century, when the newspaper as we know it had its beginning. But of its development we are told nothing, and it is not until the subject of reporting in Parliament is reached that the author—who writes from personal experience—has anything to say. Even here we find nothing that has not been told before, except perhaps some of the incidents and traditions of "The Gallery," and the chapter on "Reporting To-day in the House," where we have a cut showing the allocation of the representatives of the various journals. Most of the stories are old, but we do not recollect seeing this rather striking anecdote of Peter Finnerty, the manufacturer of Wilberforce's famous "potato speech." For a libel upon Lord Castlereagh, Finnerty was imprisoned for eighteen months, and upon his release Lord Castlereagh, seeing him in the street, went up to him and bluntly asked him how he was. "Well enough," Finnerty replied, "to hope to live to see the day when you will cut your throat." Some years after, the hope was realized.

The chapters upon shorthand and the reporter's work amount to nothing, and that upon reporters' experiences is the lightest of gossip. The stories of reporters' errors and printers' blunders are entertaining enough, and might serve to fill the "funny column" of a newspaper, but need not be quoted here. The book evidently cost the author no great labor, and it should be reserved for the very idlest of half hours.

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A Dead Man's Diary, Written after his Decease. Ward, Lock & Co. $1.
Allen, W. F. Tacitus: The Annals. Books I–VI. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Andrews, Jessie A. Etecocles: A Tale of Antioch. Lew Vanderpoole Pub. Co. $1.
Barret, F. A. Smuggler's Secret. John W. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Briefe über Merkwürdigkeiten der Litteratur. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen.
Carrol, L. The Nursery "Alice." Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Craig, Mary A. The House by the Medlar Tree. Harper & Bros.
Deighton, K. Shakespeare: The Merchant of Venice. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Elementary Schools: How to Increase their Utility. London: Percival & Co.
Expatriation. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Hardy, A. S. Elements of Calculus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.65.
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Linton, E. L. Sowing the Wind. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Mann, H. A Few Thoughts for a Young Man. John B Alden.
Marshall, A. Principles of Economics. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Maupassant, F. de. The Two Brothers. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Memoirs of the Military Career of John Shipp. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Moles, E. Pure Saxon English. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Mollett, J. W. The Painters of Barbizon. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $1.25 each.
Montgomery, D. H. The Leading Facts of American History. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Moritz, K. P. Über die bildende Nachamung des Schönen. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen.
Müller, F. M. Three Lectures on the Science of Language. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Co.
Musset, A. de. Pierre et Camille. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Ohnet, G. Peter's Soul. Chicago: Sergel & Co. 50 cents.
Ohnet, G. The Soul of Pierre. Cassell Publishing Co.
Patterson, H. The Captain of the *Rajah*. Union Square Publishing Co.
Payn, J. Notes from the 'News.' John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Philips, F. C, Margaret Eyng. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
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MR. E. H. WILSON'S SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Thorough preparation, not merely for entrance to college, but for work in college.

CONNECTICUT, Pomfret Centre.

THE MISSES VINTON'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen Tuesday, October 7. Number limited.

CONNECTICUT, Wallingford.

ROSEMARY HALL.—*BOARDING* and Day School for Young Ladies. Academical and preparatory courses. Principals—Miss LANSING and Miss RUUTZ REES. Autumn Term begins October 2. For Catalogues address Rosemary Hall.

CONNECTICUT, Waterbury.

ST. MARGARET'S DIOCESAN School for Girls.—Sixteenth year. Advent Term begins (D. V.) Thursday, Sept. 18, 1890. The Rev. Francis T. Russell, M.A., Rector. The Rev. John H. McCracken, M.A., Junior Rector.

DELAWARE, Wilmington, Franklin Street.

THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1890.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

NORWOOD INSTITUTE.—*SELECT* School for Young Ladies. Elevated and beautiful location; large grounds; home training and privileges. Special advantages in Music and the Modern Languages. Pupils prepared for college or for the Harvard examination for women.
Ninth session opens September 29.
Mr. and Mrs. WM. D. CABELL, Principals.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

THE COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY—College, Medical School, Dental School, Law School, Scientific School. For catalogues, address DR. JAMES C. WELLING, President.

ILLINOIS, Chicago.

UNION COLLEGE OF LAW.—*FOR* catalogues or information address as above.

Schools.

ILLINOIS, Chicago.

CHICAGO ATHENÆUM—*TWENTY-*fifth year. Open to both sexes and all ages. All studies elective. It provides thorough instruction in Academic Course, Business and Shorthand College, in Drawing, Mathematics, Elocution, French, German, and Latin, Literature and Music. It maintains a choice Library and spacious Gymnasium. In January, 1891, it will occupy a large and beautiful building of its own in the heart of Chicago, next to the Art Institute. For Catalogue, address
E. I. GALVIN, Superintendent.

ILLINOIS, Highland Park.

NORTHWESTERN MILITARY ACADEMY.—Col. H. P. Davidson, Supt. Reopens Sept. 17; 23 miles from Chicago. Graduates commissioned in State Militia.

ILLINOIS, Rockford.

ROCKFORD SEMINARY FOR YOUNG Women.—42d year. Full College and Preparatory Courses. Special advantages for Music and Art. Resident physician. The Seminary has a fine gymnasium building, generously equipped for the Sargent system of work, and the official records show that delicate girls make a marked gain in strength while pursuing regular courses of study. Catalogue, with full particulars as to entrance requirements, furnished upon application. Correspondence with regard to admission in fall of '90 or later is invited. Address
SARAH F. ANDERSON, Principal, Lock Box 10.
Please mention the *Nation*.

ILLINOIS, Woodstock.

TODD SEMINARY FOR BOYS AND Youth.—42d year commences Sept. 17, 1890. Boys from 8 to 18 years preferred—prepared for college or business. A delightful home—manners, morals, and health carefully guarded. Address
Rev. R. K. TODD, A.M., Principal.

LOUISIANA, New Orleans, 247 Prytania Street.

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MAINE, Portland.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN A. BELLOWS School for Young Ladies reopens September 16, 1890. Address 91 Danforth St., Portland, Me.

MARYLAND, Annapolis.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—*102D SES-*sion commences September 17. Eight Departments and four courses of study. Buildings heated by steam. Terms moderate. For Catalogues, address the President. THOMAS FELL, LL.D., Ph.D.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 1214 Eutaw Place.

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MARYLAND, Baltimore, 915 and 917 N. Charles Street.

SOUTHERN HOME SCHOOL FOR Girls.—Mrs. W. M. Cary, Miss Cary. Established 1842. Summer address, Bar Harbor, Me.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122 and 124 West Franklin Street.

EDGEWORTH BOARDING AND DAY School for young ladies will reopen Thursday, September 18. Mrs. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal.

MARYLAND, Catonsville.

ST. TIMOTHY'S ENGLISH, FRENCH, and German Boarding School for Young Ladies reopens September 18, 1890. Principals—Miss M. C. and S. R. CARTER.

MARYLAND, Ellicott City.

MAUPIN'S UNIVERSITY SCHOOL. —Ninth session opens 18th September. For terms, address CHAPMAN MAUPIN, M.A., Principal.

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$225 *PER YEAR AT LUTHERVILLE* Seminary for Young Ladies. 38th year. Graduates in English, Classical, Scientific, and Music Schools. Modern conveniences. Full Faculty. Thorough training, and *home* comforts. Send for Catalogue.
Rev. J. H. TURNER, A.M.

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MARYLAND, St. George's, near Baltimore.

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Prof. J. C. KINEAR, Principal.

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1774-1890.—*CHARLOTTE HALL* SCHOOL.—Situation unsurpassed. English, Classical, Mathematical, Commercial, and Military Courses. Board and tuition, $160 for 10 months. Address R. W. SILVESTER.

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OAK GROVE, HOME SCHOOL FOR Young Ladies, reopens September 18, 1890. Building remodelled and enlarged. Pupils admitted to Smith and Wellesley on our certificate.
Miss VRYLING W. BUFFUM, A.B., Principal.

Schools.

MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

MRS. W. F. STEARNS'S HOME School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 18, 1890.

MASSACHUSETTS, Andover.

ABBOT ACADEMY FOR YOUNG Ladies will begin its 62d year Sept. 11, with enlarged facilities, in its new and improved buildings. Terms, $400 a year. PHILENA MCKEEN, Principal.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Boston.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY Law School, Address the Dean. EDMUND H. BENNETT, LL.D.

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Preparation also for college (with or without Greek) and for business. Special students received.

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Circulars on application.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, Kearsarge Avenue.

ROXBURY LATIN SCHOOL.—246TH year. Fall term opens Monday, Sept. 15. Examinations for admission will be held on Friday, Sept. 12, beginning at nine o'clock. Boys can be received into either the Classical or the Scientific Course, and will be placed as high as their present attainment warrants. Examinations for advanced standing Saturday, Sept. 13, at nine. GEORGE F. FORBES, Acting Head Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 76 Mariborough St.

MISS BROWN AND MISS OWEN reopen their Home and Day School for Girls Oct. 1. Certificate admits to Smith and Wellesley.

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MISS ABBY H. JOHNSON'S HOME and Day School for Young Ladies reopens October 1, 1890.

Superior opportunities for the study of Language, Literature, History, and Philosophy.

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THE CAMBRIDGE SCHOOL AND Margaret Winthrop Hall, English, Classical, and Elective Courses for Girls. Home comforts and social cultivation. Building and furniture new. No crowding. Applicants must be over fourteen. Address Mr. ARTHUR GILMAN.

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DAY AND FAMILY SCHOOL FOR Boys. Fits for college. Boys taken care of during the summer, with or without instruction, on the coast of Maine. Address for the Summer, Islesford, Me. Circulars, JOSHUA KENDALL, A. M.

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BROWNE & NICHOLS'S SCHOOL FOR Boys reopens Sept. 23. Entrance and Condition Examinations Sept. 23. Preparatory department full; a few vacancies in Classes I, II, and IV. Address the Principals at Rockport, Mass. GEORGE H. BROWNE. EDGAR H. NICHOLS.

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HOME FOR BOYS.—DR. ABBOT AD- mits not more than four boys into his family, to fit for college or educate privately. Separate tuition, with best of care in all respects. Charming location, with fine tennis-court. F. E. ABBOT, Ph.D.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Duxbury, Powder Point.

POWDER POINT SCHOOL.—PRE- pares for scientific school, college, or business. Laboratories. The boys are members of the family. FREDERICK B. KNAPP, S.B. (M.I.T.)

Schools.

MASSACHUSETTS, Greenfield.

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MASSACHUSETTS, Plymouth.

MR. KNAPP'S HOME SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Twenty-fourth year begins Oct. 1, 1890. Mrs. Knapp, Prin.; H. B. LEARNED (Harv.), H'd Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Quincy.

ADAMS ACADEMY, PREPARA- tory and Boarding School for Boys.—School Year begins September 17. For all information address WILLIAM EVERETT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, South Braintree.

THE THAYER ACADEMY.—FIRST Term, fourteenth year, begins September 17, 1890. For information address J. B. SEWALL.

MASSACHUSETTS, Springfield.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN McDUFFIE, Successors to Miss Catharine L. Howard in her School for Girls Address Mrs. JOHN MCDUFFIE, care of Miss Catharine L. Howard.

MASSACHUSETTS, West Newton.

WEST NEWTON ENGLISH AND Classical School.—Thirty-seventh year begins Wednesday, Sept. 17, 1890. A family school for lads and misses; prepares for college, scientific school, business life. For catalogue and particulars, address NATH'L T. ALLEN. At home first week in August and after Sept. 10.

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MICHIGAN MINING SCHOOL.—A State School of Surveying, Mining, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, Physics, Chemistry, Assaying, Ore Dressing, Mineralogy, Petrography, Geology, Drafting, Machine Design, etc. Tuition free. For catalogues and information, address M. E. WADSWORTH, A.M., Ph.D., Director.

MICHIGAN, Orchard Lake.

MICHIGAN MILITARY ACADEMY. —A College Preparatory School of the highest grade. Location thirty miles from Detroit, and unsurpassed for beauty and healthfulness. For catalogue, address Col. J. S. ROGERS, Supt.

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MRS. WESTCOTT'S BOARDING School for Young Ladies, in South Jersey, prepares for any college. Climate mild and dry. Gymnasium. Illustrated circular.

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.

ST. MARY'S HALL. THE OLDEST Church School in the country for Girls, will begin its 54th School Year on Sept. 29. For Catalogue apply to the Principal, Miss CHARLOTTE TITCOMB, or to the Bishop of New Jersey, the President.

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.

BURLINGTON COLLEGE.—A School for boys. Prepares for college or business. Opens Sept. 29. Address Rev. C. W. DUANE, Prin.

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Schools.

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NEW JERSEY, Lakewood.

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NEW JERSEY, Lakewood.

LAKEWOOD HEIGHTS SCHOOL.— A thorough and attractive school for boys. Opens Sept. 30. JAMES W. MOREY, A.M., Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Morristown.

MISS E. ELIZABETH DANA'S School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 23. Terms, board and tuition in English, Latin, and Greek, $600. Circulars on application.

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MOUNT HOLLY ACADEMY FOR Boys.—Near Philadelphia. Healthful, helpful, homelike. Education with formation of character. College Prep., English, and Business Courses. $350 per year. HENRY M. WALRADT, Yale, Prin.

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NEW JERSEY, Short Hills.

BAQUET INSTITUTE.—ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and children. Mlle. HARRIET S. BAQUET, Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Summit.

SUMMIT ACADEMY.—PREPARA- tory School for Boys. Six boarding pupils received. Military Drill. Reopens Sept. 18. For circular, address JAMES HEARD, A.M., Principal.

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2d Year. Address for Circular, Miss MALTBY, Prin.

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BROOKLYN HEIGHTS SEMINARY. —Boarding and Day School for Girls. 47th year opens Sept. 25. Address for circulars, 138–140 Montague St.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn, 140-142 Columbia Heights.

THE MISSES ELY'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen October 1, 1890.

NEW YORK, Buffalo, 284 Delaware Ave.

BUFFALO SEMINARY.—THE FOR- tieth year begins September 17. For circulars, address Mrs. C. F. HARTT.

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THE REED SCHOOL, Miss Julia G. McAllister, Principal (*succeeding Mrs. Sylvanus Reed, who continues as visitor*). 27th year begins Oct. 1.

NEW YORK CITY, 343 Madison Avenue.

BARNARD COLLEGE FOR WOMEN. —Degrees given by Columbia College. Fall entrance examinations begin Sept. 29. Free scholarship of $150 offered to the student that passes the best examinations for admission to Freshman Class. Botanical and Chemical Laboratories, admitting special students. Circulars upon application to Secretary.

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J. H. MORSE'S SCHOOL FOR BOYS reopens Oct. 1. Full Primary, Intermediate, and Academic Courses. Until Sept. 15 the Principal's address is Cotuit, Mass.

NEW YORK CITY, 348 Madison Avenue.

MISS JAUDON'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen Oct. 1. Number of boarding pupils limited. Class for little children. Preparation for Harvard Examinations and Barnard College.

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THE BENTLEY SCHOOL FOR BOYS. —Principal, William Jones, A.B., Harvard. July and August, Far Rockaway, L. I.

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CLASSICAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.— Unusual advantages for boarding pupils. Certificate admits to Wellesley and other Colleges. Reopens Oct. 1. Miss NORTH and Miss BARNES, Principals.

Schools.

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References—The Hon. Seth Low, Pres. Columbia College; the Rev. L. Clark Seelye, D.D., Pres. Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; Truman J. Backus LL.D., Principal of Packer Institute, Brooklyn; James G. Croswell, Head Master of the Brearley School for Girls, N. Y.; Edward B. Bartlett, Brooklyn; Mrs. George F. Canfield, N. Y.; Frederick R. Coudert, LL.D., N. Y.; Edmund C. Stanton, N. Y.

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THE COMSTOCK SCHOOL.—ESTABLISHED 1863. Boarding and Day School for Girls. Reopens Oct. 1. MISS DAY, Principal.

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MISS GIBBONS'S SCHOOL FOR GIRLS will reopen October 1. Three boarding pupils will be received into the family.

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THE RIVERSIDE SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, removed to 50 West 104th Street, corner Manhattan Avenue. Miss Emily A. Ward, Principal. College preparation. Spacious quarters for resident pupils. Reopens September 17.

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CLAVERACK COLLEGE AND HUDSON RIVER INSTITUTE.—Healthfully and beautifully located in the Hudson River Valley. Affords superior advantages for thorough and systematic education to young men and women. Careful attention given by a strong faculty of experienced professors and teachers to intellectual, social, moral, and physical culture. A Conservatory of Music and Art of high grade. 37th year opens Sept. 15. Send for illustrated Catalogue. Rev. A. H. FLACK, A.M., President.

NEW YORK, Clinton.

KIRKLAND HALL.—A Home School for Younger Boys. College Preparatory Course, Business Course. Terms, $350. Address KIRKLAND HALL.

NEW YORK, Fort Edward.

FORT EDWARD COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE for Young Women. Superior buildings, appointments, and advantages. $220. Send for illustrated Catalogue. Jos. E. KING, D.D., Pres.

NEW YORK, Geneva.

HOBART COLLEGE.—COMPETITIVE entrance examination for the "President's Scholarships" (values $30, $175 ×150), and general entrance examinations Sept. 16 and 17. For information, address Prof. W. P. DURFEE, Dean.

NEW YORK, Glen Cove.

DOSORIS SCHOOL—A HIGH CLASS school for boys; $600 to $750 per year. Summer session June 16 to September 15. Terms $75 per month. B. F. O'CONNOR, B.L., Ph.D. Director.

NEW YORK, Kingston-on-Hudson.

GOLDEN HILL PREPARATORY School for Boys. Sixth year begins September 24. JOHN M. CROSS, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Long Island, Garden City.

THE CATHEDRAL SCHOOL OF ST. PAUL.—Endowed school for boys. Seventeen miles from New York. Ten resident masters; seven visiting instructors. Prepares for any college or scientific school. Has graduates in the leading colleges. Mili ary drill under a U. S. Army officer. Through the munificence of the late Mrs. A. T. Stewart the building is one of the finest school buildings in the U. S., and every department thoroughly equipped. Excellent laboratories for individual work in Chemistry and Physics. English required throughout the course. Location unsurpassed in healthfulness. CHAS. STURTEVANT MOORE, A.B. (Harvard), Head Master.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.

RIVERVIEW ACADEMY.—55TH Year. Prepares thoroughly for College the Government Academies, and Business. Military drill. BISBEE & AMEN, Principals.

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MRS. ALFRED WILKINSON'S School for Girls. Reopens September 17, 1890. Refers to Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, George Wm. Curtis, Hon. Wayne McVeagh, Rev. Edward Everett Hale, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Hon. Andrew D. White.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown.

HOME INSTITUTE.—A BOARDING and day school for young ladies and little girls. Will reopen Sept. 17. Miss M. W. METCALF, Principal.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown-on-Hudson.

MISS BULKLEY'S BOARDING AND Day School for Girls will reopen Wednesday, September 17.

NORTH CAROLINA, Asheville.

RAVENSCROFT SCHOOL.—PREPARATORY Boarding and Day School for Boys. Head Master, Ronald MacDonald, B.A., Oxford.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

EDEN PARK SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—Tenth year. This school is remarkable for its beautiful location, high patronage, home life, unsurpassed advantages for modern languages, music, etc., etc. For circulars, address Mme. FREDIN, as above.

Schools.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

BARTHOLOMEW ENGLISH AND Classical Home and Day School for Girls. Board and tuition $600 school year. G. K. BARTHOLOMEW, Ph.D.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

MISS ARMSTRONG'S SCHOOL FOR Girls, Lliddesdale Place, Avondale. Family limited to eighteen. Circulars sent on application.

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UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, Academic Department.—Coeducational. Eight complete courses, four years each: Classical, one course; Letters, two; Science, four (Chemistry, Physics, Biology, and Astronomy); Civil Engineering, one course. The laboratories are well equipped. Tuition is free to residents of Cincinnati, and $60 per year to non-residents. Academic year begins September 18, 1890. For catalogues and other information, address H. T. EDDY, Cincinnati.

OHIO, Columbus, 151 East Broad Street.

MISS PHELPS'S ENGLISH AND Classical School for Young Ladies. Special advantages in Language, Literature, Music, Art, Home and Social Culture. Fall term begins September 25, 1890. New school building.

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OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY. Liberal endowment. 35 Professors and assistants. 9 well-equipped buildings. Tuition free. Information sent on application.

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BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, A COLLEGE for Women, ten miles from Philadelphia, offers graduate and undergraduate courses in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Mathematics, English, Anglo-Saxon, French, Old French, Italian, Spanish, German, including Gothic and Old High German, Celtic, History, Political Science, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and lectures on Philosophy. Gymnasium, with Dr. Sargent's apparatus complete. Fellowships (value $450) in Greek, English, Mathematics, History, and Biology. For Program address as above.

PENNSYLVANIA, Bryn Mawr.

MISS BALDWIN'S DAY, BOARDING, and College Preparatory School for Girls reopens Sept. 30. For circular address Miss F. BALDWIN.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chambersburg.

WILSON COLLEGE FOR YOUNG Women. For Catalogue or advice on preparation, address Rev. J. EDGAR, Ph.D., Prest.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chester.

PENNSYLVANIA MILITARY ACADEMY,—Twenty-ninth session opens Sept. 17. *A MILITARY COLLEGE.* Civil Engineering, Chemistry, Architecture, Arts. A Preparatory Course of one year. Circulars of Col. C. E. HYATT, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, North Wales.

NORTH WALES ACADEMY AND School of Business.—Twenty-first year September 10. Board of Trustees, either sex. Enter Freshman best colleges. Smith or Wellesley College graduate assistants. S. U. BRUNNER, P. O. BOX 41.

PENNSYLVANIA, Ogontz, Montgomery County.

OGONTZ SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LADIES, removed in 1883 from Chestnut St., Philadelphia, to Ogontz, the picturesque country seat of Jay Cooke, will begin its forty-first year Wednesday, September 24. For circulars apply to PRINCIPALS.

Principals—Miss Frances E. Bennett, Miss Sylvia J. Eastman. Principal Emerita—Miss H. A. Dillaye.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Germantown.

FRANKLIN SCHOOL, A CHARTERED institution for Boys and Young Men, offers advanced preparation for the best Colleges and Schools of Science, and extended courses in History, English Literature, French, German, Drawing, Elocution, and Vocal Music. An excellent system of physical culture (founded on Delsarte). Fine building and extensive grounds. Circulars and full information sent on application. GEORGE A. PERRY, A.M., Head Master.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Chestnut Hill.

MRS. COMEGYS AND MISS BELL'S English, French, and German Boarding School for young ladies reopens Sept. 30, 1890. Students prepared for College. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1350 Pine St.

MISS ANABLE'S BOARDING AND Day School for Young Ladies will reopen Sept. 26.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 4313 and 4315 Walnut St.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 28, 1890.

The Week.

WHILE sensible people understand that the Force Bill is really dead, the Republican party during the pending campaign must suffer all the odium of having it still on its hands. The Bourbon leaders in the Senate and the press of the George F. Hoar and New York *Tribune* type will, of course, insist that it is only in a comatose condition, from which it can and will be revived next December; and the Republican newspapers in the West which have denounced it and demanded its death, will find it hard to meet the claim of its friends that the breath of life is still in it. The consequence will be that the Republican party can get none of the advantage which always springs from having done something when one sets out to do it, while the Democrats can appeal to all independent voters for support, on the ground that only a sweeping Democratic victory in November will prevent the Radicals from still trying to make the bill a law. If one wishes to know how the mere agitation of this question has affected the party, he need only study the figures of the recent State election in Alabama. There are a number of cities in that State where many white men from the North have settled of late years, most of whom have voted the Republican ticket, and thereby sometimes carried the county for that party, as notably in Talladega, long a "Republican stronghold." There is no complaint of any unfairness in these places at the recent election, and yet there was nothing short of a political revolution in them. Here are the figures in 1888 and 1890 for three counties which contain such cities:

	1888.		1890.	
	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.
Jefferson (Birmingham)....	3,001	5,508	921	7,921
Lauderdale (Florence).....	1,120	1,637	435	1,473
Talladega (Talladega).....	2,179	1,983	937	2,472

The simple explanation of these changes is that hardly any white Republicans would vote the Republican ticket after the party had taken up the Force Bill—less than fifty out of several hundred in Birmingham, and only two of the large number in Talladega. What was true of Alabama will be true of the South generally, and the same cause will lose the party thousands of votes in every Northern State as well.

Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, who was sent the other day in haste to Maine to make speeches in Speaker Reed's district, is demonstrating his weakness as a stump orator. He made a speech in Portland the other evening which is reported pretty fully in the Boston *Advertiser*. It is in effect a defence of the Elections Bill which the House has passed, and which is so badly splitting up the Republican Senators. The whole tone of the speech shows that the Republican leaders of the House see that their course has put them on the defensive. Here is one of Mr. Lodge's "points":

> "The first cry that is raised against the bill is that it is a force bill, that it is bristling with bayonets in every line. Now Mr. R. Q. Mills, who is as accurate a statistician as he is calm in statement, has stated that there are 35,000 polling places in the United States. We know there are 25,000 United States troops. Then if you admit that it is a 'force bill,' it is easy to see you would have five-sevenths of a soldier at every polling place in the United States. When I think of the 65,000,000 people in this wide country groaning under the despotism of five-sevenths of a soldier at each polling place, the picture it conjures up is positively appalling."

If this silly talk is worth anything, the same "argument" can be applied to the use of the army for any purpose. There are, for instance, about 250,000 Indians in the United States. If any tribe should go on the war-path, all their chief would have to say to inspire them with courage would be: "Fear not! The Great Father has only one soldier to every ten Indians." Again, Mr. Lodge said:

> "There is no proposition of force in it. It is a law of the United States, and it is the duty of the President to enforce the law of the United States if it is opposed or defied, whether it be tariff law, election law, or any other kind of law. The laws of the United States are to be obeyed; and the same 'force' lies behind election law that lies behind tariff law, or internal-revenue law, and there is no other force to be considered."

This is, of course, an admission of the very thing the speaker sets out to deny. It is the introduction of Federal "force" at elections, to which Mr. Lodge so clearly points, that is so distasteful to the American people.

The condemnation of the Force Bill by the Wisconsin Republican State Convention, which, meeting on the day that Senator Hoar of Massachusetts was advocating its passage, refused to say a word in its favor, recalls the fact that fifteen years ago a Wisconsin Republican in the Senate opposed another measure of the same sort which was supported by the same Massachusetts Bourbon. When the Civil-Rights Bill was before the Forty-third Congress, George F. Hoar was one of its strongest advocates, while Matthew H. Carpenter, thorough-going Republican though he always was, did his best to prevent its passage. Senator Carpenter held that the measure was unconstitutional, as the Supreme Court declared the moment the question was submitted to it, but he also opposed it on the ground that the evils at which it was aimed could not be cured by Federal legislation. While deploring and condemning the prejudice against the negroes in the South which caused the discriminations against them that the Civil-Rights Bill was intended to stop, Mr. Carpenter declared that this was not the way to overcome it. "Haste is not always speed," he said in a speech in the Senate on the 27th of February, 1875; "and especially is this true of attempts to coerce sentiment or suppress prejudice. This can only be accomplished by time, kindly entreaty, reason, and argument. And all experience demonstrates that every unavailing attempt to force men into compliance with social, religious, or political dogmas has the effect to postpone the end desired." This unanswerable argument applies as well to the Force Bill of 1890 as to the Civil-Rights Bill of 1875, and it will not be long before every candid man will pronounce the pending measure as absurd as the one which Mr. Hoar championed fifteen years ago.

That was an interesting spectacle in the Mississippi Constitutional Convention last week when a negro who was once a slave of Jefferson Davis's, pleaded and maintained his right to a seat against the contesting claim of a white man. "He presented his case," says a Jackson despatch, "in a speech of thirty minutes' duration, and his earnest but modest and respectful manner and homely eloquence made a deep impression on the Convention." The majority of the Election Committee had reported in favor of the contestant, but an ex-Attorney-General of the State who was one of the minority advocated the other side, and the negro's right to his seat was sustained by a vote of 79 to 28. The result is not only interesting but important, as it retains an intelligent Republican representative of the colored voters upon the Committee on Suffrage, of which he was made a member.

In reply to Mr. W. L. Scarborough, a colored professor in Wilberforce University, Ohio, the Atlanta *Constitution* denies the story which appears to be going the rounds of the Western press, that there is a newsstand in Atlanta at which negroes are not permitted to buy papers. The *Constitution* adds:

> "Here in Atlanta we have negro lawyers, physicians, and dentists; negro merchants, tailors, undertakers, shoemakers, tinners, painters, carriage-makers, blacksmiths, and wheelwrights; negro contractors, who employ white as well as colored workmen; negro machinists, carpenters, cabinet-makers, bricklayers, plasterers, and plumbers; negro workers in shops, in every trade and business for which their ambition and their ability fit them; and opportunities open to them in every direction that their capabilities may suggest."

Where can anything like this be found in the East or in the West? We happen ourselves to know of the negro dentist in Atlanta. He resigned a good position in the Treasury Department a few months since in order to practise his profession in that city. But think of negro contractors who employ white workmen—and in the South, too! Can Senators Hoar and Chandler name many—or any—such instances at the North, or such a diversity of industries among the colored population as that shown by the *Constitution*?

Many years ago, on the score of economy,

long sessions of Congress were assailed in the House. No one suggested at that time limiting debate, though excessive speechifying was the great cause of the lengthening of the session. The plan proposed was to decrease the pay of the members as the length of the session increased. The report of the Committee making this suggestion is to be found in Document (H. R.) No. 922, first session of the Twentieth Congress. The majority of the Committee recommended that the *per-diem* allowance then granted to Congressmen be reduced to $2 after the first Monday in April if Congress should sit beyond that day. This plan was founded on the basis that (in the opinion of the majority of the Committee) four months would be ample time in which to transact public business. "If," they added, "Congress, either from procrastination, short daily sessions, *or an excessive indulgence in debate*, should remain in session longer than the first Monday in April, then a sum not more than sufficient to cover the absolute expense of subsistence should be allowed during such prolongation of the session." John Sergeant and Edward Everett submitted a minority report, in which they admitted that it was desirable to shorten the sessions of Congress, but great care, they thought, should be exercised in applying any suggestions which had been made on that point. "The public business *and the public information* are the chief end and aim of our doings," said they, and they added, "We ought not too readily to yield to any plan that would have the effect of defeating *either*." "The privileges of the members," they declared in language which Speaker Reed has often extorted from the Democratic Representatives of this Congress, "are the privileges of their constituents, and cannot be curtailed without infringing upon the rights of the people." So it is not alone our public business that concerns us, but also information concerning affairs, and it is to an untrammelled Senate, which Mr. Reed cannot control, that we owe much necessary light on the items of the Tariff Bill which was rushed through the House.

A number of causes have contributed to bring about the recent stringency in the money market, as, *e. g.*, the silver speculation and the rush of importations caused by the fear of the two McKinley bills. The latter is considered by the banking fraternity the more potent of the two; indeed, the most potent of all. Another cause is the drain from New York to the West for currency to move the crops. This, however, is an annual occurrence, as regular in its coming as the seasons, and would not be much noticed if it did not happen to coincide with other forces contributing to the same result. The operation of the McKinley bills is two fold. An abnormal importation of foreign goods calls for abnormal payments to the foreign producers. It calls also for excessive payments of duties—excessive in the sense that unusually large payments are made at one time, and in advance of the customary time. Thus it comes about that the Treasury has been draining the Street, and the Secretary has been at his wits' end to get the money back into business channels. It would be idle to predict what a day may bring forth, but the usual ingredients of a general panic do not exist. The prices of commodities are not inflated. Speculation is at a low ebb. Even stock speculation was at the minimum when the recent squall struck it. If the situation were the same that it was in the autumn of 1873, when everything was booming, we might expect a similar catastrophe. But it is widely different.

The Federation of Railway Employees at Terre Haute has given Mr. Powderly and the Knights of Labor a hearty endorsement, and poured out a deal of indignation on the head of Vice-President Webb, but for all practical ends and purposes has voted for Webb and against Powderly. The only object of holding the Terre Haute conference was to do something good for Powderly and something bad for Webb. The opposite course has been followed. It was almost inevitable that it should be so, since any strike ordered to assist Powderly would have been a sympathetic one, and a sympathetic strike must have extended over thousands of miles of railway and thrown out of employment tens of thousands of men who had no interest whatever in the dispute between Powderly and Webb. Who would support these men and their families through the coming winter, was a question of extreme gravity, no doubt. Having resolved not to incur this risk, the conference tackled the other problem, how to get out of the scrape and save appearances. This was accomplished by praising Powderly, condemning Webb, and adverting to the fact that the Knights of Labor are not members of the Federation of Railway Employees, and therefore have no claim upon the latter body. As for Powderly, or Lee, or whoever started the New York Central strike, he has, like *Falstaff*, led his men where they are all peppered. Powderly says that the strike is still "on." In like manner the strike on the Third Avenue Railroad is still on, nobody having declared it off. The Reading strike is still on. The only railroad strike we now recall that has been officially declared off is the Southwestern strike, one peculiarity of which was that, although Powderly declared if off very early in the fray, Martin Irons declared that it was still on. The Central strike is now wholly imaginary.

The full weakness of Powderly's cause stood revealed in the long and bombastic "address" which he issued "to the people" on Thursday last. There was absolutely nothing in it but wind. He has no grievance except that the Central Railway Company has discharged Knights of Labor from its service without the consent of Mr. Powderly, and has persistently denied all recognition of his right to inquire into the matter. There is nothing else in the controversy, yet this is one of the ways in which Powderly states it:

> "H. Walter Webb stands to-day the representative of over $200,000,000. He is new to the position, and the novelty of the situation has turned his head. The writer represents, directly and indirectly, over 20,000,000 of workingmen. Shall dollars alone be heard, and must humanity remain silent? Will dollars rule when flesh and blood is shot down in the streets of the capital city of the Empire State at the dictation of this wealth? Shall an aristocracy rule and ruin without giving an accounting why they did it? These questions can best be answered by the 20,000,000 of industrialists of the United States, and they can best answer them by holding up the hands of the men along the line of the New York Central Railroad who are strong for the principle of justice, men who, strong in the justice of their position, ask to be heard and care not who hears the story."

Mr. Powderly's statistics are as original and unfettered as his grammar and rhetoric. There were in the whole United States in 1880 less than 13,000,000 adult males, and the total number now cannot much exceed 15,000,000. When he speaks of himself, therefore, as the representative of over "20,000,000 of workingmen," he magnifies his own importance on the same generous scale as he misrepresents the other facts in the controversy.

Mr. Webb's statement in reply to Powderly removes the last shadow of an excuse for a strike or a tie-up of any kind. The only ground which Powderly had for his demand for arbitration was that the Central Railway Company had discharged the men whose case had been made the excuse for the first strike, simply because they were Knights of Labor. He has declared many times that the company's conduct showed a determination to "down the order," and that consequently the whole Vanderbilt system must be "tied up" in order to defend the right of Labor to organize for its own interest and protection. Now Mr. Webb says distinctly:

> "No man has been discharged from this company because he was a 'Knight of Labor,' or a member of any other labor organization. The company has discharged men, irrespective of their membership in the order of the Knights of Labor, for drunkenness, incapacity, breach of duty, insubordination, and for the lack of sufficient work to employ them; and it will continue to do so whenever proper occasion arises."

A national "tie-up" to compel a railway company to get Mr. Powderly's consent before discharging employees guilty of drunkenness, incapacity, neglect of duty, or insubordination, would be a spectacle poorly calculated to advance the cause of labor in the estimation of the people.

The Meat-Inspection Bill, which has passed both houses of Congress, provides that whenever the President shall be satisfied that unjust discriminations are made by or under the authority of any foreign State against the importation to or sale in such foreign State of any product of the United States, he may direct that such products of such foreign State so discriminating against any product of the United States as he may deem proper shall be excluded from importation to the United States. Another section provides for the exclusion by the President of any article of food or drink that he may find to be adulterated to an extent sufficient to be injurious to health. The measure is directed chiefly against France and Germany, on account of their exclusion of our pork

on the ground of unhealthfulness. Exclusion on the ground of "protection to home industry" would not be objected to provided the exclusion were general; that is, provided it were applied to all foreign pork. This is official notice to France and Germany that they had best frame a tariff sufficiently high to keep out our pork, and retract their slanderous accusations. It ought not to be difficult for Germany to do this. She has a new Emperor and a new Chancellor, neither of whom is responsible for the anti-pork decree. They might cancel it at once and adopt the other device without any trouble at all. As for France, she might rescind the decree and adopt the leading features of the McKinley Administrative Bill to keep our pork at a respectful distance. This bill, according to the Paris *Temps*, is interpreted by the American Consul at Lyons to require, in all invoices of merchandise, statements of all the separate items of cost of the articles, such as wages, raw materials, superintendence, and "each and every outlay of whatsoever nature incident to such production," and also that the manufacturer himself (not any agent appointed by him) shall come to the Consul's office and sign the invoice so made out; and if any part of the goods comes from another place (Zurich, for example), a similar statement from the Zurich manufacturer. Now it is suggested to M. Ribot that a similar requirement as to pork would accomplish all that the invidious decree accomplishes. Let it be required that the pork-packer furnish a statement of all of his costs of production, including wages, fuel, cooperage, etc., and a statement from the farmer who raised the pigs, *viséd*, of course, by a French consul, giving all of his costs of production. Then let the American system of compound duties be adopted—say five francs per kilogramme and 40 per cent. ad valorem—and the whole thing is done and nobody discriminated against.

The House of Representatives is now engaged in tickling the farmers with compound lard bills and option trading bills, and other measures adapted to an infantile state of mind. The Lard Bill has passed the House, and the Option Bill is, as we write, likely to pass Probably both will be killed in the Senate, or postponed till the next session. The Senate has already passed an option bill, and has shown what view it takes of such legislation. As originally introduced by Senator Ingalls, it prohibited trading in grain, cotton, etc., for future delivery, unless the person selling actually owned the property he agreed to deliver. After two days' hot discussion, it was amended, on the motion of Ingalls himself, so as to prohibit trading in futures unless the seller *intended* to deliver the property at the agreed time. Of course no option dealer could object to that, since his intentions could be known only to himself. That the Option Bill, if it could be passed and enforced (as it never could be), would greatly injure the farmer, has been shown over and over again. It would limit the farmer's market to hand-to-mouth purchases, and, since he is generally a non-capitalist, it would put him at the mercy of the miller, who generally is a capitalist. The man who can wait always has the advantage in a trade, and that man is seldom the farmer.

The decision of Judge Cullen that the receiver of the North River Sugar Refinery must be allowed a place as defendant in the Sugar Trust litigation, although the property and assets of the corporation have been taken out of the "combine," indicates that the suit instituted in Brooklyn as a preliminary of "reorganization" must embrace the whole question raised by the Attorney-General in his action against the Trust, and cannot be settled on any narrower issues. That action was brought to wind up the affairs of the North River Company because it had entered into a conspiracy to produce a monopoly. Each and every corporation of this State that joined the Trust is equally guilty and equally exposed to receivership and dissolution. It is not in the power of the Attorney-General to pardon them or any of them. Nothing that can be done in the Brooklyn suit can remove them from the net in which they were caught when the Court of Appeals rendered its decision. The presence of Receiver Gray as a party to the new litigation insures a rather more speedy liquidation than would have taken place if he had been excluded, but it can hardly be said that it changes the destiny of the Trust.

The new State of Washington may well "point with pride" to the figures of the census just taken, which show a total of 343,564 inhabitants, with two districts still lacking. As the population in 1880 was only 75,116, this shows a growth during the past ten years of more than 357 per cent. This is a larger proportional growth during a decade than has ever been recorded in any Territory or State of the Union which had as many as 75,000 people. Colorado's gain between 1870 and 1880 was at the rate of 387 per cent., and Dakota's during the same period 853 per cent.; but Colorado had less than 40,000 people, and Dakota only about 14,000, as the basis of these gains. The growth of Washington's population has been of the most normal character, and the outlook for the new State is most encouraging. The remarkable gain in Washington renders more incomprehensible the census showing for Oregon. It seems plain that the work of enumeration must have been badly botched in the latter State. Both Washington and Oregon have held State elections this year. Washington cast 58,443 votes, and Oregon 73,400. Washington's population exceeds 343,564, and, allowing the same ratio of inhabitants to voters, Oregon's should be above 430,000, while the census count shows only 284,242. The injustice is so palpable that even Washington confesses it, and the Seattle *Post-Intelligencer*, as a Republican newspaper, calls for a new count of Oregon, on the ground that the present figures will deprive the latter State of one of the Representatives in Congress to which she is entitled, and the Republican party of a vote in the Electoral College which it ought to have.

The abnormal growth of cities and towns as compared with that of the country is hardly less noticeable in the West than in the East. There are just 100 places in the State of Wisconsin which have 1,000 or more inhabitants, and their aggregate population is 656,706, or more than 39 per cent. of the entire population, whereas in 1880 such places contained only 29 per cent. of all the people. The gain of these 100 places during the ten years has been 263,000 out of a gain of 367,000 for the entire State—or about 70 per cent.—although, as has been said, in 1880 these cities and towns contained not quite 30 per cent. of the entire population. Such figures from a comparatively young State like Wisconsin are even more striking than the showing of urban growth in old commonwealths like Massachusetts and New York.

Mr. Bachelder, the New Hampshire Commissioner of Agriculture and Immigration, has made his first report under the Act of 1889 of efforts made to repeople the abandoned farms of the State. Mr. Bachelder's procedure, which was of a very intelligent and practical character, carried on with diligence, and even with enthusiasm, has issued in a very considerable success. Out of the whole number of abandoned farms in New Hampshire, almost a full one-fourth part have been reoccupied during the eleven months of his operations—22½ per cent. is the exact proportion, or, in numbers, 301 out of 1,342. "Gratifying as these facts may be," says the Commissioner, "they are doubly increased in significance when we consider that the class of people purchasing and renting these farms is generally such as appreciates the grand scenery, healthy climate, and association with an intelligent class of people, for all of which New Hampshire has become noted. . . . A large number of these farms have become occupied by city people to whom a home in the country has been a fond anticipation for many years, and it is needless to say that they will find in a New Hampshire farm all the opportunities for gratifying any worthy desire in establishing a home for comfort, health, or pleasure. They come, not to make money, but to spend it, and fortunate indeed will it be for the State when the unsold abandoned farms are utilized by this class of people." Such a result might be anticipated, perhaps, from an analysis of the Commissioner's wide correspondence, 60 per cent. of which proceeded from the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, communities in which seekers for summer homes would be likely to abound. A striking thing is that just 4 per cent. of the inquiries about abandoned farms in New Hampshire were from Vermont, and more than 10 per cent. came from the Western States, ranging from Ohio to Oregon. Mr. Bachelder acknowledges the "powerful agency" of the press in assisting his work.

THE LINE OF DIVISION.

THE only interesting feature of Senator Hoar's long speech in favor of the Force Bill last week was the interruption by Senator Paddock of Nebraska. The Massachusetts Senator was quoting a number of old Republican platforms, to show that "the Republican party was pledged to the policy of the bill by everything that could bind a party," when Mr. Paddock rose and pointed out that a Republican State Convention was held in Nebraska only a short time ago, which was attended by a thousand of the representative men of the party, and that not a word was said in either the speeches or the platform on the subject of the pending Election Bill.

Even more significant was the attitude of the Wisconsin Republican State Convention, which met in Milwaukee on the very day that the discussion opened in the Senate which was to decide the fate of the Force Bill. If the Republican party in Wisconsin favored the passage of such a measure, every possible consideration called for the insertion in the platform of a resolution heartily endorsing the pending bill. A long platform was adopted, but it contains not one word in favor of the Force Bill, or of Federal legislation of any sort regarding elections in the South. This significant silence is, of course, to all intents and purposes, the same thing as a condemnation of the policy, and it shows that the Republican party of Wisconsin sustains the position taken by the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, when it reaffirmed its opposition to the Force Bill on the ground that "it will not be effective to assure honest elections where the great frauds upon the ballot-box are practised, while it will be used, as it is already used, by political demagogues to perpetuate unjust animosities against the Republican party, and open still wider the fountains of sectional distrust and hatred in the South."

The recent Republican State Convention in Minnesota was equally silent on this question, and thus showed that the Republican party in that State endorses the course of the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, which has been from the first an earnest and effective opponent of any Federal election law. There is no way of arguing against such facts as these. When the representative Republican newspapers in such strongly Republican States as Nebraska, Minnesota, and Wisconsin condemn the Force Bill, and Republican conventions in all of these States decline to say a word in its favor, it is evident that the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* is right when it declares that "the masses of the party in the West are turning against it."

The platform adopted by the Wisconsin Republicans is also significant as to party sentiment in the West regarding the other great issue of the day—the pending Tariff Bill. Considering the way that the McKinley Bill is being hammered in the Senate, if the Republicans of any State favor the measure, there is no question but they will say so. Did the Wisconsin Republicans endorse the McKinley Bill, and express a hope that the Republicans of the Senate would follow the example of their brethren in the House by passing it? On the contrary, the platform contains not one word regarding the measure, while it "commends the efforts the Administration is making to establish reciprocal trade relations with the several nations of this continent upon such a basis as will be mutually advantageous." In this respect also the Wisconsin Republican platform agrees with those framed by the party conventions in Minnesota and Nebraska, and it all means that the Republican politicians of those States understand the condition of public sentiment. The St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* the other day noted the fact that "nearly every prominent Republican paper in the States west of Ohio is opposing that part of the McKinley Bill proposing to increase duties," and said: "The views thus expressed are not confined to the editors formulating them. They represent the sentiment of an overwhelming majority of the Republican party of the Mississippi Valley."

It is evident that a sharp line of division exists between the Republicans of the East and those of the West on the two great issues of the day. The Bourbon leaders of the bloody-shirt Republicans of New England and of the high-tariff Republicans of the Pennsylvania school are equally blind to one of the most important developments of recent politics. Senators like Hoar and Frye, and organs like the Boston *Journal*, New York *Tribune*, and Philadelphia *Press*, talk about reading out of the party Republicans who will not toe the mark on the McKinley Bill and the Force Bill, in apparent ignorance of the fact that the masses of their party in the great West are opposed to both those measures. The representatives of those masses in the press are beginning to tell these Bourbons the truth in tones loud enough, it would seem, to pierce even their deaf ears. Take, for example, this recent deliverance from the Omaha *Bee*:

> "Eastern Republican journals furiously denounce Western Republican Senators for working and voting for reduced tariff, and threaten to read them out of the party. By what right have the champions of the McKinley Bill become the keepers of the Republican conscience? When it comes to reading Republicans out of the party for opposing prohibitive duties, the yeomanry of the West will be on hand, and Eastern autocrats may discover that the party leaders are not in position to bid defiance to public sentiment in Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa, and Minnesota."

The Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Inquirer* concludes a review of the situation developed by the Quay resolution with the statement, that "there is great fear that the complications, if not promptly reconciled, will lead to the defeat of both the Tariff and Election Bills." Strange as it may seem to the fossils who edit many Republican newspapers at the East, nothing would give greater satisfaction to many Republicans in the West than this very result. "Drop Both Bills" was the earnest injunction used as a title to a leading article in the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* of Saturday week, which said: "If there is in Washington any due appreciation of the state of feeling of the country at large, the Senate will conclude to drop both bills and go home. There is no demand or necessity for either of them. There is, in the Republican ranks, a pronounced hostility to both which is not worth while to encounter."

THE VALUE OF DELIBERATION.

IT was considered an axiom among the founders of our Government, and was accepted as such during the first century of our history, that deliberation was the first essential to a successful administration of democracy. The system was intended to secure the execution of the will of the people, but only after it had been made perfectly clear that it was their well-considered purpose which was being carried out. Every precaution was therefore taken to prevent the danger of enacting a law which did not obviously represent the settled convictions of the people, but which might, instead, express only a sudden gust of passion among the populace, or a cunningly devised scheme of political tricksters.

This was the main reason for the creation of a Senate. The quickest and surest way of reflecting every ripple which sweeps over the pool of public opinion would, of course, be to have only one legislative assembly, whose will should be absolute. But every thoughtful mind in the Constitutional Convention of 1787 perceived the dangers of a system which should intrust legislation to the unchecked impulse of a body elected directly by the people, and the only question from the first was as to the manner in which the Senate should be constituted. The necessity of such a check was universally conceded. "Such an institution," said the *Federalist*, "may be sometimes necessary as a defence to the people against their own temporary errors and delusions. As the cool and deliberate sense of the community ought, in all governments, and actually will in all free governments, ultimately prevail over the views of its rulers; so there are particular moments in public affairs when the people, stimulated by some irregular passion or some illicit advantage, or misled by the artful misrepresentations of interested men, may call for measures which they themselves will afterwards be the most ready to lament and condemn. In these critical moments how salutary will be the interference of some temperate and respectable body of citizens, in order to check the misguided career, and to suspend the blow meditated by the people against themselves, until reason, justice, and truth can regain their authority over the public mind!"

After a half century's trial of this experiment, Justice Story, in his 'Exposition of the Constitution,' thus summarized the advantages of this division of the legislative power: "In the first place, it interposes a great check upon undue, hasty, and oppressive legislation. In the next place, it interposes a barrier against the strong propensity of all public bodies to accumulate all power, patronage, and influence in their own hands. In the next place, it operates indirectly to retard, if not wholly to prevent, the success of the efforts of a few popular leaders, by their combinations and intrigues in a single

body, to carry their own personal, private, or party objects into effect, unconnected with the public good. In the next place, it secures a deliberate review of the same measures by independent minds, in different branches of government, engaged in the same habits of legislation, but organized upon a different system of elections. And, in the last place, it affords great securities to public liberty, by requiring the coöperation of different bodies which can scarcely ever, if properly organized, embrace the same sectional or local interests or influences in exactly the same proportion as a single body."

The failure of the Force Bill is a striking proof of the value to the nation of the deliberation secured by the system of two legislative bodies with equal powers. If the House of Representatives had been supreme, this revolutionary departure, which violates the spirit of the Constitution and which teems with evils to the nation, would have become a law weeks ago. It may even be conceded that its passage would have reflected the will of the people, in the sense of meaning by that term the great mass of the Republican party. Grant that a few weeks ago, when the Speaker pushed the bill through the House, without fair opportunity for debate and for exposure of its real character, the bill did represent the controlling impulse among Republicans, so far as the question had stirred any impulse among them. The more fully one concedes every claim made by the Reed-Lodge managers as to the popular strength of the measure when they put it through the House, the more remarkable is the change wrought by these weeks of deliberation. During the interval it has been shown, through the commendable investigation made by the Philadelphia *Press*, and through a mass of confirmatory evidence from other sources, that the most intelligent Southern Republicans, both white and black, oppose the scheme, and believe that it will work only harm to their interests, both as citizens and as partisans. At the same time, discussion and reflection have convinced many Northern Republicans of its folly, until a number of the most influential party journals are now outspoken against the bill. The change is graphically portrayed in these comments by the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* upon the statement that the President favors the passage of the measure: "It is probably true that Gen. Harrison favors the passage of the Federal Election Bill. At least he desired legislation of this sort a few months ago. However, the situation has changed materially since then. Four out of five of the Republicans of the South, who, presumably, should be better judges of the effect of such action than residents of other parts of the country, oppose it. The masses of the party in the West are turning against it, and many of the Western Senators are anxious that the project be not pushed. The President, too, will probably soon realize that the matter should be dropped."

It thus appears that, but for deliberation, a bill would have been hastily enacted into law which, upon sober second thought, is condemned by the masses of the dominant party and rejected by enough of its Senators to secure its postponement if not its defeat. "A few popular leaders, by their combinations and intrigues in a single body, to carry their own personal, private, or party objects into effect, unconnected with the public good," succeeded in getting it through the House of Representatives; but reflection was fatal to their scheme. "Tom" Reed may still "thank heaven that the House is not a deliberative body," but the nation is profoundly grateful that the Senate still affords an opportunity for "the cool and deliberate sense of the community" to find expression.

FREDERICK HENRY HEDGE.

Dr. Hedge was born in Cambridge, Mass., December 12, 1805. His mother was a granddaughter of Edward Holyoke, who was summoned from his pastorate in Marblehead in 1737 to be President of Harvard College. His father, Levi Hedge, was a teacher of logic, ethics, and metaphysics in the College from 1810 to 1822, and his 'Elements of Logic' was a famous text-book in its day. His grandfather, Lemuel Hedge of Warwick, Mass., was a man of singular and striking character, a sturdy patriot in the Revolutionary struggle, and an intimate friend of Gen. Joseph Warren. Prof. Levi Hedge was ambitious for his son, and pushed him so hard that in his twelfth year he was fitted for Harvard in the manner of the time. Too young to enter, he was sent to Germany in the care of George Bancroft, who had just graduated, and was intending a course of study at Göttingen. In Germany he studied for five years in various gymnasia. It was his own opinion that his education would have made better progress if he had stayed at home. As a foreigner he was indulged and left too much to his own devices at a time when he should have had the benefit of wholesome regulation. But he acquired a thorough knowledge of the German language, and became deeply interested in German poetry and the idealism of German metaphysic. It is difficult to see how he could otherwise have qualified himself for one of the most important functions of his life—that of a pioneer of German poetry and metaphysic in the United States.

Returning to Cambridge in 1823, he entered the Junior Class, and was graduated in 1825. His dislike of mathematics prevented him from taking the highest honors, but his standing was respectable. His ambition while in college was to be a poet. Like Milton, he would sing "a song to generations." Nothing less than an epic would relieve the passion of his heart. What he actually attained to in his youth was the honor of being the poet of his class and the poet of the Phi Beta Kappa Society in 1828, when he composed his poem of several hundred lines entirely in his head before committing a line of it to paper. He always had this power of strong immediate memory. His early sermons were delivered memoriter, as were the ten or twelve orations which were the most brilliant points in his career. His oration in Boston on the four hundredth anniversary of Luther's birth, given when he was nearly seventy-nine years old, was delivered entirely memoriter and without a particle of hesitation. It was at the opposite extreme of epic largeness that Dr. Hedge's real success in poetry was to be secured. As a translator of German lyrics his equals have been few. His translation of Luther's famous hymn, "Ein' feste Burg ist unser Gott," is much stronger and better than Carlyle's. His original poetry has been mainly in the form of hymns, and that hymns can be poetry, Mr. Arnold to the contrary notwithstanding, he has fully proved; witness his hymn for Good Friday. A splendid and rescunding rhetoric is characteristic of his hymns as of his prose. Of lyrics that are not hymns, one called "The Morning Star" is his best work. This was not Wordsworth's "Emotion Recollected in Tranquillity." It was emotion economized at once; composed in bed, and afterwards written out from memory—a feat somewhat remarkable in view of the complicated character of the metrical arrangement.

Young Hedge's choice of a profession was medicine, but his father's wishes overbore his own, and he became a student of theology under the leadership of Dr. Andrews Norton. During the last year of his theological course he made the acquaintance of Emerson, with whom he soon became extremely intimate. They were ordained in the same year—Emerson in March, 1829, in Boston, and Hedge in West Cambridge in May. Their relation was one of mutual benefit, not merely one of mutual admiration. Emerson read his early poems to Hedge, and was encouraged by his liking for them to publish them and further cultivate his gift. When Emerson's 'Nature' appeared, Hedge asked him the next time they met, "And now why don't you write something about *nature?*" In 1834 we find Emerson recommending to Carlyle essays by Hedge, which had appeared in the *Christian Examiner*, on Swedenborg and Phrenology. These were the second and third of Hedge's printed essays. His first was an essay on Coleridge in the same periodical. The essay on Phrenology made a good deal of talk and writing. It prefigured the Transcendental Movement, which was developed largely in opposition to that form of sensationalism in philosophy represented by phrenology. In 1830 he married Lucy T. Pierce, daughter of the excellent Dr. John Pierce of Brookline, whose reputed exclamation on arriving in another world was, "Just fifteen minutes from earth! Walked all the way!" The good old man was very proud of his walking, and got his death from overdoing it at the Cochituate Water Celebration. The reputed saying was one of several imagined by Dr. Hedge as appropriate to the clergy of his time on their arrival in a higher sphere of being. Norton's was "Spinoza here!" or, "A very promiscuous assemblage!"

The plan for a periodical representing the new tendencies of thought, in harmony with Coleridge and the German idealists, was broached as early as 1835. Hedge was urgent for it and was to be its editor. His removal from West Cambridge caused the scheme to languish for a time; then it revived again, and the *Dial* was the result. Emerson, Hedge, and Ripley were at the bicentennial celebration at Harvard, in 1836, and, after the exercises, fell into conversation about the state of thought and religion in the churches. They resolved to form a club, and did so. The outside world called it "The Transcendental Club." Its members never called it so, but simply "The Club," and often "The Hedge Club," so important was his part in it, and because its meetings were held, after he went to Bangor, whenever he was in Boston. He went to Bangor upon Emerson's recommendation, who had himself been invited there and was much tempted to go. The settlement was a kind of exile, but on the whole was an advantage, favoring mental independence, and allowing a freer in-

tellectual development than could have been possible at the Unitarian centre. In a letter to Carlyle in 1847 Emerson gives this account of his friend:

"Henry Hedge is a recluse but catholic scholar in our remote Bangor, who reads German and smokes in his solitary study through nearly eight months of snow in the year, and deals out every Sunday his witty apothegms to the lumber-merchants and town ship-owners of Penobscot River, who have actually grown intelligent hearers of his riddles by long hearkening after them. They have shown themselves very loving and generous lately in making a quite munificent provision for his travelling. Hedge has a true and mellow heart, and I hope you will like him."

In due time Carlyle answered him:

"Hedge is one of the sturdiest little fellows I have come across for many a day. A face like a rock; a voice like a howitzer; only his honest gray eyes assure you a little. . . . Hedge came to me with tall, lank Chapman at his side—an innocent flail of a creature, with considerable impetus in him; the two, when they stood up together, looked like a circle and a tangent, in more senses than one."

One excellent result of Hedge's seclusion at Bangor was his 'Prose Writers of Germany.' It was a work of great labor, biographical and critical, with illustrative translations, generally his own. Hedge was, in fact, the American Carlyle, as respects introducing a better knowledge of German literature and philosophy to his fellow-countrymen. He had able coadjutors as time went on, but he was the pioneer in this direction and the most accomplished leader of the German party in the Transcendental Movement. It was from him that Margaret Fuller got her German impulse. It was his article upon Coleridge, which had warm praise in it for Kant, Fichte, and Schelling, that turned the attention of George Ripley to these men, to such good purpose that in 1839 he was able to take up the cudgels of debate for them with Andrews Norton, who had assailed them in the 'Latest Form of Infidelity,' a counter-blast to Emerson's Divinity School address of 1838.

Hedge's literary labors at Bangor were not, however, at the expense of his preaching and parochial duty. The Society was a thrifty one, containing an unusual number of highly intelligent men and women. The lawyers counted by the dozen, and active politicians by the score. At one time there were four candidates for the Governorship in the congregation. Dr. Hedge's (he was made a Dr. by Harvard in 1852) lively interest in politics dated from his Bangor settlement. He was an earnest anti-slavery man, but never in sympathy with the abolitionists. He honored Garrison, he said, but Channing more, and Wendell Phillips not at all. His likes and dislikes were strong and sometimes without sufficient basis.

His European travel in 1847, when Geo. Wm. Curtis was his young companion, was a needed respite from the exacting duties of a secluded parish, but in 1850 he felt obliged to avail himself of the opportunity for further change afforded him by a call from the Second Unitarian Society in Providence, R. I., to be its minister. He had been in Bangor fifteen years; he was six years in Providence, and then went to Brookline, Mass., where he remained till 1872, when he was appointed Professor of German Literature in Harvard College—a position not wholly congenial to him, as it involved instruction in the language, for which he had no liking and no special fitness, as well as lecturing, for which his fitness was remarkable. The quality of his lectures can be determined by the curious by an examination of his 'Hours with the German Classics,' published in 1886, and his most important publication with the exception of his 'Prose Writers of Germany.' While he was preaching in Providence he gave a course of Lowell Lectures on Mediæval History. Their ability and brilliancy secured for him the position of Instructor in Ecclesiastical History in the Cambridge Divinity School. This position he held in connection with his Brookline pastorate, but his appointment as German Professor in 1872 obliged him to give up his parish and take up his residence in Cambridge. He was still eagerly sought for by Unitarian societies for occasional services, and no preacher was listened to by his coreligionists with more respect and admiration; and it was always as a Unitarian preacher and scholar that he wished preëminently to be regarded. As a preacher he was unique among his fellows, exceptional in the dignity and gravity of his thought and manner. He was master of a very imposing style; of a rhetoric clear of "purple patches," yet rising appropriately with the subject. His voice, always at first harshly guttural and not inviting, could soften on occasion to the most winning cadences.

Dr. Hedge's standing in his denomination was peculiar. Conservatives and radicals admired him equally, and alike were often disappointed by his tone. Free in criticism, and daring in speculation, he was at the same time ecclesiastically conservative. At critical moments his influence was often thrown against the men who felt that they had a right to count on his support. In 1864 his sermon before the graduating class of the Divinity School on "Anti-Supernaturalism in the Pulpit" was hailed "with tumult of acclaim" by the conservatives, while it would not have been difficult to discover in his writings striking examples of the tendency he so earnestly deplored. He was fond of telling a story about a man who wished to run his ox at a horse-race, and was refused. "For how do I know," said the proprietor, "what your d—d ox will do?" The fable was for him as well as for some others. He could not be reckoned on. Men drew a long breath when he was through if they had come out of it unscathed. The old-school Unitarians never liked his insistence that in the old Arian controversy Athanasius was more nearly right than Arius.

In philosophy there was never any difficulty in determining Dr. Hedge's whereabouts. He was where the Spencerians, the sensationalists, the experimentalists were not. He was always with the idealists, the intuitionalists. His admiration for Kant was very great, and he regarded Schopenhauer as a much truer continuator of Kant than Hegel, who seemed to him something of a charlatan. His philosophical opinions are best expressed in his volume entitled 'Atheism in Philosophy.' His theological and religious opinions are elaborated in his volumes 'Reason in Religion,' 'Ways of the Spirit,' and 'The Primeval World of Hebrew Tradition.' As a preacher, he was not mainly theological or speculative. He was mainly ethical, and could search men's consciences as effectively as any preacher of his time. He seldom printed without others' urgency. He wrote articles for the *Dial*, *Putnam's Magazine*, and the *Atlantic*, but more for the *Christian Examiner*, of which he was at one time editor. His skill in biographical delineation was greater than in any other kind of work. He was not good at eulogy at the obsequies of distinguished persons. His frankness on such occasions was sometimes refreshing, and at other times alarming.

Though in his casual manner somewhat brusque, to know him well was to find him warm-hearted, generous, affectionate, and tender to a remarkable degree. A dinner offered him on his eightieth birthday anniversary, at which Dr. Holmes presided and read one of his most charming occasional poems, made evident in what great esteem and warm affection he was held by many friends. His own address was a modern *De Senectute*, worthy of choicest preservation. Among the Transcendentalists, where Emerson is easily first, he takes the second rank, but not alone. Theodore Parker stands beside him, differing from him very much as Luther differed from Erasmus—each great in his own way.

THE RUINS OF CASAS GRANDES.—I.

Santa Fé, August 11, 1890.

The name of Casas Grandes, or "Great Houses," has been applied for over two centuries to a group of fairly preserved Indian ruins in the canton of Galeana, State of Chihuahua, Mexico. These ruins are situated nearly due south of Deming, on the Southern Pacific Railroad, at a distance of one hundred miles from the United States boundary line. They lie within half a mile of the village of Casas Grandes, a thriftless agglomeration of decaying adobe houses inhabited by about twelve hundred people.

It is well to discriminate between the Casas Grandes of Chihuahua and the Casa Grande of Arizona, on the middle course of the Gila River, eighty-five miles northwest of Tucson. The latter means 'Great House,' because the only well-preserved ruin is a clumsy building, three stories of which still remain. At Casas Grandes none of the edifices are as intact as the one on the Gila, but the pueblo was more extensive, and in one instance four stories can be clearly discerned. The architecture of both places bears the same characteristics. They seem to have been reared by tribes occupying the same level of culture, having the same ideas of life, social organization, religion, and art. Of the Casa Grande it is positively known that the ancestors of the Pima Indians built and occupied it. Concerning the Casas Grandes no definite tradition is known. What was told me by an Opata Indian from Huachinera in the Sierra Madre, namely, that the Opatas built and held the pueblo, calling it Hue-hueri Kita (Great Houses), is not impossible, but far from certain, as yet.

The valley of Casas Grandes is one of the few fertile spots in northwestern Chihuahua, outside of the Sierra Madre. The little river affords permanent water for irrigation. Groves of tall cottonwood trees line its sandy banks. The soil is white and seems sterile. Nothing but low mezquite, ocotilla, catsclaws, and tasajo—all thorny shrubs—cover it with a dusty vegetation. But, wherever irrigated, this apparently arid ground is productive of rich yields. The climate is warm in summer. Snow not seldom falls in winter, for the altitude reaches 4,000 feet, and the latitude is slightly less than 30° 30'. High parching winds are felt along the whole valley more or less; at Corralitos and Janos more so than at Casas Grandes proper.

The main ruins cannot be separated, archæologically or geographically, from the remainder of the banks of the stream from its formation at San Diego to Ascension, full eighty miles below. There are, however, two breaks in the extent of fertile bottoms. One is between Corralitos and Janos; the other between Janos and Ascension. These intervals are due to abrupt and arid heights or chains of heights, outposts of the Sierra Madre, through which the stream has forced a passage. There no

extensive ruins can be looked for, whereas around Ascension (beginning at the north), Janos, and from Corralitos to a point above Casas Grandes, the remains of ancient habitations are frequent. They all bear the same general character. The material is a marly clay, and they indicate houses of one or more stories, usually in groups indicating small villages, the centre of each group being occupied by a building apparently higher than the rest. The edifices are not contiguous, and the distances separating them vary a good deal. Large structures, also isolated from all others, are not infrequent. This is chiefly the case at Ascension and along the rivers Palanganas and Piedras Verdes, by the junction of which at San Diego the Rio des Casas Grandes is formed. For miles away the mounds are seen to rise above the dusty levels. Excavations reveal walls of several feet in thickness, rooms completely filled with the pulverized material of which the upper stories and the roofs were made. Pottery, handsomely painted and with a thin, fine gloss, is frequently found entire, for, as no rocks were used in the construction of the houses, the fine rubbish has enveloped the fragile earthenware and protected instead of shattering it. Not infrequently the houses rest on terraces supporting the vestiges of parapets of clay.

The number of these groups of buildings is considerable. Between Casas Grandes and Corralitos, a distance of twenty-eight miles, I counted and surveyed not less than ten distinct clusters, not including the main ruins at the former place. It seems that the four vales or basins, so eminently fitted for the wants of an agricultural Indian stock, were inhabited by several branches of a tribe in the same manner as the Queres now inhabit the Rio Grande valley from Cochiti to San Felipe and the banks of the Jemez stream from Zia to Santa Ana, and the Tehuas the Rio Grande above San Ildefonso in three pueblos within a space of twelve miles. In times previous to the occupation of New Mexico by the Spaniards the pueblos were smaller, on an average, than they are now, but more numerous. From 300 actual surveys made by me of as many pueblo ruins, I gather that the average number of souls did not exceed 300. There were of course some pueblos which, like Pecos, the Pueblo Bonito, and others, sheltered a much larger number, but they were exceptions. The rule was a number of small villages not far apart from each other. So the Piros occupied on the Rio Grande sixteen pueblos on a line sixty miles long.

It is not certain that the inhabitants of the villages around Ascension, for instance, were of the same linguistic stock as those about Janos. In New Mexico the former village of the Queres of Santa Ana was only five miles from the most northerly pueblo of the Tiguas near Bernalillo. Jemez is eight miles from Zia, and each village speaks a distinct tongue. Neither is it certain that the towns were all coeval. As a rule, if we divide the total of ruined pueblos by fifteen, we obtain a still exaggerated figure for the number of those that were occupied at one and the same time, for traditions are abundant and sufficiently explicit to prove how easily the sedentary Indian removes from one site to another, and on what slight provocation. The great number of ruins dotting the course of the Casas Grandes River is not, therefore, positive evidence of a large population at any given time. Nor, with all the natural resources of the region, could a considerable Indian population support itself with the aid of stone implements and without beasts of burthen.

The cluster of buildings called Casas Grandes *par excellence* is remarkable for its good preservation and its size. It is difficult to examine all the structures, since modern houses have been constructed on and from several of the mounds. However, to any one familiar with the aborigines and their mode of life it will become clear at once that the place could not have harbored over four thousand people. The ruins show at least six huge mounds, each of which was a tall house three or four stories high, with walls as thick as five feet, made of what Mr. Cushing has quite appropriately termed "basket adobe-work." The wall is formed by rows of poles bound together by a trellis of branches (of ocotilla mostly), and the space between filled with soil firmly pounded. A plastering of the same material covered both outside and inside, and a wash of gypsum, sometimes painted red, was applied besides. This basket work enabled the Indian to make his walls very thick, and thus to rear tall edifices without the innumerable partitions of the northern pueblos. It was an architecture combining purposes of defence with that of abode, and allowing for the exigencies of a warmer climate by making the rooms larger and higher, with a corresponding increase in the size of the doorways and air-holes. In one place I noticed what may possibly have been a wooden staircase. The roofs are preserved in some places on smaller edifices, as well as the holes of the beams that supported ceilings. It was the so-called pueblo roof—round timbers fastened in the wall and covered with transverse poles, then with brush or grass, finally with earth well pounded and smoothed over.

The great structures at Casas Grandes are so close to each other as to seem contiguous, but it is evident that each stood by itself, narrow alleys separating them. There is no regularity, as in the northern pueblos; it was simply a cluster of tall, clumsy edifices huddled together on a comparatively limited space. Smaller buildings, one-storied and containing from three to a dozen rooms, are scattered along the bases of the high mounds, but they are not so numerous as to lead to the inference that the bulk of the people occupied them. On the contrary, the many-storied houses constitute by far the principal portion of the settlement. From this, and from the fact that all sorts of household utensils have been and are constantly being taken out of them, it must be inferred that they were dwellings, not temples or palaces, and that the smaller buildings (as is the case of the pueblos of to-day) were houses constructed by such as no longer found room in the main structures, or were occupied by outcasts, who, for some crime or other, were not tolerated any longer with their clans, or possibly both. For so-called summer-houses, such as the Pueblos of to-day occupy on their fields, they are too close to the place, nor do they seem to have served for religious purposes.

There is no trace at Casas Grandes of the circular estufa, that semi-religious, semi-social architectural feature of the pueblos. Nothing has as yet been noticed that would indicate an edifice for purposes of worship. Fetishes have been found, however, among which I saw and copied (the painting is now at the Vatican) a fetish of the panther or puma, closely resembling those in use among the New Mexican Pueblos. One very interesting find was made many years ago. In a small room on the first floor of one of the tall edifices a monstrous meteorite was discovered. It had been enveloped in cotton cloth, therefore carefully preserved, and was, when found, of a silvery hue. The cloth covering crumbled as soon as it came in contact with the air. The stone was carried to Chihuahua, where it still exists. Of its size and weight I could only ascertain that it was very heavy, since it required great effort to remove it.

The artificial products exhumed from the ruins all show a superior degree of skill—not the pottery alone, although it is strikingly handsome. Greater or less perfection in ceramics is due often to local causes only. This is well exemplified in New Mexico. From a characteristic pueblo ruin near San Mateo, pottery was exhumed that will compare favorably with the best of Casas Grandes. Only a few miles away, similar ruins have yielded very inferior specimens. The same thing occurs in the Moqui country, where Ahuatuyba furnishes the handsomest ceramics of northern Arizona, far superior to those of other ruins in its neighborhood. The Indian adapted his arts to what the locality afforded. His commerce was too limited to furnish him with material from the outside in large quantities, for he had no beast of draft or burthen to transport them any distance. There are traces, at Casas Grandes, of aboriginal trade and barter. Shell-beads are frequently found, so are turquoises and marine shells. Some of the latter I had determined by specialists: they proved to be from the Gulf of Mexico and from the Pacific Coast. Casas Grandes lies midway between both.

Objects of stone and flint are not uncommon. The stone-axes which I have seen and copied are not any better made than those of New Mexico. The arrow-heads are the same in form and make, but the hand-mills, or "metates," are far above anything I ever found as far north as the thirty-sixth parallel of latitude. They are tolerably well squared and finished. I also saw a double "metate" and a stone pestle with the head of a mountain sheep nicely carved on it. Many other stone implements as rude and as clumsy as those elsewhere found accompany well-executed specimens of the same utensil. The specific Indian trait of character, inequality of workmanship, displays itself at Casas Grandes as well as elsewhere—no uniformity in execution, but on the other hand, in pottery especially, great sameness in the patterns and designs.

It is a very striking fact that, from southern Colorado and Utah down to the twenty-ninth parallel at least, the pottery decorations should show the same symbols, locally or individually modified. These symbols we are well acquainted with from the New Mexican pueblos; we know that the double staircase signifies the clouds; the spiral and the Greek fret, the whirlwind; the forked line, lightning. We know how the rain is depicted, how the sun, moon, stars, the rainbow. The innumerable modifications of each typical form are also known to us. The fundamental decorations on the pottery of Casas Grandes are the same as those of Pueblo pottery and of Pima baskets or Moqui trays. Still, at Casas Grandes and in the Sonoran Sierra Madre, near Huachinera and Baserac, I have met two figures that were new—the heart and the flag. More remarkable yet is the fact that at Casas Grandes pottery is found decorated with human figures in relief. This indicates progress, emancipation from stereotyped models, the creation of new symbols, perhaps. The heart is frequently met with on Zuñi vases, but always in connection with some animal, never alone by itself, as at Casas Grandes. As to the flag, I know of nothing like it in New Mexico or in Arizona.

Still greater progress is evidenced at Casas Grandes in the vestiges of irrigation. The

acequia, or ditch, which runs towards the ruins from the northwest, shows traces of filling and of cutting. It is no longer the primitive method of slavishly following sinuosities of the ground in order to avoid obstacles. The ditch of Casas Grandes runs almost straight. It crosses gulches that could have been passed by means of wooden or stone channels alone. It rests on a bed of stones. Hugging the western edge of the great buildings with one of its branches, it winds the other around the east side, and terminates in the Casas Grandes River. Where the western arm approaches the pueblo, it is lined by a chain of artificial eminences, composed almost exclusively of pebbles, and from three to fifteen feet high. Some are rectangular, others circular, and one has the form of a star with four arms of unequal length. Treasure-seekers burrowed in several of these mounds, but found nothing. They were neither fortifications nor lookouts, for the great houses far exceed them in height, and these same houses were the best fortresses that could be devised against an Indian enemy. Places of sacrifice? Possibly; but although I was informed that charred bones and skeletons had been found on one of them, nothing in the sections made by digging or by decay indicates their use for sacrificial purposes. Furthermore, while every part of the ruins abounds with specimens of broken pottery, this is strikingly scarce on these gravel hills; still there is no doubt that they are artificial. On the southwestern edge of the ruins the ditch runs into two circular tanks. Only one ruin, possibly of Spanish origin, is found outside of the ditch. It was a one-story house, with interior court, differing in plan from the other edifices.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

THE NEW WORLD IN THE OLD.

LEAMINGTON, England, Aug. 11, 1890.

AN American intent on finding stray bits of association with American history does not unprofitably wander over southern and southwestern England, and it is some advantage, too, for his sense of perspective that he does not find there the shoals of his countrymen which he encounters here in the midlands. I found it not easy to bring back, at Southampton, the town of James's time, when the *Mayflower* and *Speedwell* came there from London to take the little band of pilgrims on their adventurous voyage. Here it was that they picked up John Alden, the cooper, as a useful man to take with them, but I could find little to connect with him amid the bustle of the modern seaport, except that the name is still not unknown in that part of England. Of his Priscilla I encountered a reminder at Salisbury. It had long been supposed that William Mullins, the father of that damsel, had been a Walloon, who had joined the Pilgrims at Leyden, as it is known that other French Protestants did, and that the name had been Anglicized from "Molines." Very likely it was, and those of the name now in England may have come from a Huguenot stock which came into Devon and Wilts after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, bearing names and trades which are not yet exterminated; or, indeed, they may have come over with the Conqueror. At all events, the English Mullins was a name in vogue in the Pilgrims' time, and it is not long since Waters, our American genealogist, discovered in Doctors' Commons the will of the *Mayflower* Pilgrim, which had been sent to England for record. So at Salisbury I was not surprised to find, on the pavement of the Cathedral, the name of Mullins, among those olden worthies of the last and preceding century who were buried there, and over a shop, near one of the gates of the close, I read, "William Mullins, valuer," or appraiser. Again, at Barnstaple, I found in the parish church, among the mural tablets, the name of William Mullins, as belonging to a person of some consideration in the seventeenth century; and when I asked the sexton if Mullins was a common name in that part of England, he told me it was, and that his grandmother was of the name. So it would seem that just north of Southampton, in Hants, Wilts, Devon, and Somerset, the Mullins family were and are prevalent, and it is not at all unlikely that William Mullins and his family were not unknown to the Aldens of the same locality.

I find it, further, striking to observe how family names have followed town names to New England. At Bath, not far from Barnstaple, I fell into the hands of a gentleman whose archæological tastes find sustenance in the traces of British occupation of that neighborhood, where the lines of their encampments on the surrounding hills mark the struggles of the West Saxons in forcing their way in their conquests. His name was Hallett—not an uncommon name, he said, in that neighborhood and in the neighboring Barnstaple. I recalled how the youngest son of John Alden and Priscilla—whose homestead, in which John Alden died, in Duxbury, Mass., is still occupied by a John Alden—married Abigail Hallett of our Cape Cod Barnstable, of a family that had, with others from the old-country Barnstaple, given the name to their new settlement, for its associations with home.

The borough librarian and a local antiquary, Mr. Worth, were of much help to me, in the Devon Plymouth, in hunting out old bits of the town which could carry me back to that summer of 1620 when a distressed little bark, with her sinking consort, put into that port for safety and a temporary refuge. Plymouth Sound, with its breakwater, the modern dockyards of the Hamoaze and the commercial haven of the Catwater, with all its bustle and prosperity, has little on the exterior to remind you of that olden port. You may see the American flag flying at our consulate. It was displayed at the peak of the *Jamestown*, one of our training-ships then lying in the Sound, denoting that modern interests connect the town with the new nation of the west; but the steep, winding alleys of the old town about the fish-market were what I sought to give me a picture of the Plymouth which the *Mayflower* left as its last English haven. This fishmarket is a noisy, odorous quay, lining a little pocket of the Sound, which is here called Sutton Pool, and it goes by the name of the Barbican, as marking an out station of the old castle, the gateway of which is the only fragment still left, half-way up a narrow lane, and converted into a fisherman's house. It is still quaint and old-worldish, filled with the fishermen's boats, which one morning I saw pass in procession, scores of them, with their dun-colored sails, out into the Sound and beyond the breakwater and the Eddystone, to get their fares for the market. They were not much smaller than the *Mayflower*, which took its hundred souls across the sea; and the basin of the Pool, the tide still flowing as it did when the *Mayflower* cast there her anchor, was in reality, with its changed waters, almost the only thing, besides the contour of the high lands beyond the Catwater, upon which Carver and Bradford could have looked.

But Plymouth is not unmindful of the associations which give it such interest to the New England wanderer. You can see, among the stained windows in her new and lordly Guildhall, the scene of the embarkation at the "Barbican" portrayed as one of her civic glories. They have raised a statue to Drake on their imposing Hoe, placed where it commands a wide view of the Sound, and of the offing, where the Spanish Armada was discovered, and they have recently put up beside it a still unfinished memorial of Drake's exploit in scattering the hostile fleet. The Hoe will never be adorned as it ought to be till it also bears a fitting monument to commemorate the refuge which those humble English found here in this Devon town. What is now a Baptist church claims to be the descendant of the little Nonconformist congregation from which Bradford says that he and his lowly companions received hospitality and comfort; but it has no records to establish the belief which they fondly cherish. I went into the muniment-room of the town, in the hope that I might find in the records some symptoms of a popular interest in their adventurous voyage; but it was hardly to be expected. I did, however, read with interest the items that were penned in their books when Drake was making ready to go out against the Armada, and recording his return from his voyage of circumnavigation. It gave me some comfort to see that their muniments, though housed in a way to protect them from fire, were not in better order than I have often found similar records in our American towns.

I was disappointed in not finding that the Bristolians quite appreciated the act which enables them to say that they gave to England its right to North America, for John Cabot, sailing from Bristol in 1497, under a patent from Henry VII., to discover new lands, and under the auspices of the Merchant Venturers of that town, might give them a bearing for their 'scutcheon not inferior to the claims for historical prominence possessed by any other English town. But they seem to care little for it. They even know so little of Cabot that they fancy he was a Frenchman, or at least in pronouncing his name they drop the final *t*. I met a leading scholar at the library in Bristol, and when I said *Cabot*, in the next sentence he said *Cabo*. I went to Merchants' Hall, the building of the still existing Venturers' Company, and the old gentleman who received me, in telling me that their records did not go back of the seventeenth century, assured me that I probably knew more of *Cabo* than they did. A few days later, when I was visiting Freeman, the historian, at Somerlease, and spoke of Cabot, he went on talking of *Cabo*. "Why," I said, "is it possible that Zuan Caboto, a Venetian, coming to settle in Bristol, would have Frenchified his name?" "No," no," he replied; "you are quite right. I never thought of it before. We are only stupid in our pronunciation." JUSTIN WINSOR.

Correspondence.

TAYLOR THE PLATONIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I shall be glad if you can give hospitality to the statement that I have printed a small edition (100 copies) of the two articles on Thomas Taylor the Platonist which appear in the July and August numbers of the *Library*, and have reserved copies for the United States. There are some American students who are interested in Taylor, and to any of them who care to apply I shall be glad to give a copy of this little monograph. In this way I may perhaps secure corrections and additions to my

sketch, which at all events has been a labor of love.—Yours truly,

WILLIAM E. A. AXON.

AUGUST 9, 1890.

NEWSPAPER LOTTERIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

FRIEND: At last the days of Government-protected lottery advertising seem to be coming to an end. It is well, and in the prospect there is general rejoicing. And now that the moral sense of the community has been stirred upon the subject as never before, would it not be manifestly consistent in all the newspapers which, for the purpose of increasing their circulation or for any other object, have of late been maintaining little lotteries of their own, to withdraw their prospectuses, confess judgment, and honestly declare that they also have been offenders, and have done a determinate part in stimulating the betting, gaming, lottery and policy-playing, and "guessing" mania?

There are some papers—a good many, indeed—which have had no part or lot in these discreditable schemes. They have had no part in them so far as any direct participation therein is concerned; and yet, perceiving the wrong and knowing how pernicious must be the effect upon the people, they have failed to point their weaker brethren of the press to the fact that they were taking hold of an unworthy and belittling business. The "courtesy of the press" is admittedly a thing to be generally observed, but silence is at times akin to unfaithfulness.

An item upon the subject which I have presented was lately contained in a letter of the English correspondent of the *Christian Advocate*. It contained a piece of information relative to action taken by the British Government which, had it come by Associated Press, would have been given proper publicity and have helped to stop an evil which has rapidly grown to large proportions in this country. The item referred to is as follows:

"A very important step in the direction of putting down gambling has been taken by the Government. For some time the newspapers in their advertising columns have offered prizes for competitions. These competitions, in which the public have been invited to take part, have not been literary, or in any way educational. They have been of the nature of lotteries; they have not depended on the skill of the competitors, but on sheer chance; and they have undoubtedly fostered the spirit of gambling which has been rapidly spreading among all classes. Such competitions are now declared to be illegal, and a strong blow has been struck at what threatened to be a very grave evil."

Now, when a newspaper in Brooklyn announces prizes to subscribers, of the (alleged) value of from $1 to $1,500, payable to those who shall make the nearest guesses of the number of beans in a certain sealed jar; when a daily journal of Cincinnati issues a similar prospectus of prizes to those purchasers of the sheet who shall make the nearest correct guess as to what will be the size of its circulation upon a specified date; and when an afternoon paper of Philadelphia displays a bold placard upon the front of its publication building promising "$500 for 2 cents," and daily, for months together, tells how those who get the paper may, by properly filling up the "coupons" printed therein (they are guesses as to winning base-ball teams) and sending them to the office of the paper, take their chances in getting the prize—I say while lottery schemes such as these are permitted in the three cities named, and in the cities generally throughout the North, is it not time for the self-respecting journals of the land, while warning their readers (with much truthfulness and propriety) concerning the one big lottery of Louisiana, and instructing Congress concerning its manifest duty touching lottery advertisements in the mails, to honestly condemn the whole business of newspaper lotteries, withdrawing the right hand of fellowship from all who persist in managing or abetting such dishonorable and illegal undertakings? Meanwhile, have the commonwealths' attorneys no duty to attend to in the matter?

JOSIAH W. LEEDS.

PHILADELPHIA.

NEGLECTED OPPORTUNITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following passage from the London *Spectator* of August 9 presents an irresistible temptation:

"What is even more noticeable is the difficulty of ascertaining what the popular will is, and the growing timidity of responsible statesmen in interpreting that popular will in the absence of decisive indications. We not only hesitate a great deal before making up our minds, but when we have made up our minds, we hesitate a great deal more in taking action upon our convictions, while we are still quite uncertain whether or not our convictions will be confirmed by what is called public opinion."

In reading this, we should keep in mind that what is called in England the Government—that is, the Ministry—does not emanate from the people at all. The nation is never called upon to give a vote as a whole. What it does do is to elect some 600 members of Parliament by districts, and the majority of these practically elects the Ministry. But the motives which govern the districts in electing members and the motives which govern members in electing a Ministry may be very different from those which would direct a vote of the whole people for a common leader. Suppose, on the other hand, that the Prime Minister was elected at stated intervals by the whole nation, and selected the other members of the Cabinet at his pleasure. His and their relation to Parliament would be wholly different. Their authority would have much more of firmness and vigor. Parliament would listen much more respectfully to an authority of which the source was so much wider than that of any members. The press would be always studying the will of the country, instead of that of localities, and the Ministry, relying upon that will, could venture upon more decisive action. Bye-elections of members would give much more of judgment upon policy, while a general election would give a much more decided approval or rejection.

This is not saying that the result would of necessity be any wiser or better, but only that it would give a more direct and decided expression of the popular will, though it remains true that the larger the area over which a vote is taken, the freer it will be from local and personal prejudice, and the more in accordance with general principle.

In the United States we have precisely this element which is wanting in Great Britain. In the President of the United States, the governors of all the States, and the mayors of all the cities, we have single agents elected by the whole body politic, and so deriving their authority from a source independent of and superior to that of members of the legislative bodies, and therefore fitted to enforce the general will and interest against local and private. Apparently this does not do us much good, to judge from the concluding words of the same article of the *Spectator*. After suggesting some expedients, it adds:

"Or it may not be cured, but become chronic, as it has become chronic in the United States, where the legislatures dwindle in importance, and the people take less and less interest in their proceedings."

The reason of this is, that we reject and refuse to make use of the instrument which we possess, that we tie the hands of President, Governor, and Mayor, forbid them to take any part in the conduct of business, or the business itself, allow them no voice in shaping policy or legislation, but confine them to a negative upon whatever the Legislature may happen to evolve, while the chief motive power in the Legislature is secret intrigue, and the people have, much less than in Great Britain, the means of making their wishes and influence felt. If ever the country gets tired of legislative anarchy and lobby rule enough to insist upon a real executive who shall act as the efficient and responsible agent of the general public will, we may teach our English friends something in parliamentary government, as we have taught them a good many other things. G. B.

BOSTON, August 23, 1890.

A RECTIFICATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am very sorry that the *Nation* should have permitted itself to be found napping to the extent involved in its quoting with approval Senator Vance's argument in the debate on iron. His position rested entirely on a blunder of the grossest kind. If the amount of labor entering into the production of a ton of iron is to be considered at all in the determination of the duty, the labor cost all the way back, and not only the cost of the final process, must evidently be taken into account. To say that "the laborer in every preceding process has already been protected" is to commit a glaring fallacy; for it is precisely on this account that the maker of the finished product, who has to pay the cost of these preceding processes as well as of the last, needs to have a "compensating" duty covering the previous processes, and only what he gets over and above this is his own special protection. All this is, of course, not only obvious in itself, but is the familiar principle which is constantly applied in the fixing of duties on finished products when there is a duty on raw materials; and it is not objected to by free-traders except in so far as they object to the duties in themselves. It would be manifestly absurd to act upon any other principle; for example, if the duty on the woollen cloth in a suit of clothes were $10, and the labor cost of making the suit $5, to say that $5 was ample protection on the suit, since it was equal to the whole cost of the labor employed in making it, would be obviously ridiculous.

Of course, I am far from defending either the duty on iron or the crude way of measuring its justification adopted by those to whom Mr. Vance was replying; but as far as absurdity was concerned, it lay entirely on Mr. Vance's side. And I cannot help adding that in my judgment no better service could be rendered to its cause by a journal devoted to tariff reform than a stern rejection of all the hollow and fallacious arguments that are made on its own side, which are unfortunately very numerous. The subject is confusing enough to the average mind without the presence of bewildering errors on both sides; and the only way to keep the plain man's face steadily turned in the right direction is to avoid all arguments that cannot stand searching examination, and to make him feel, besides, that his

teacher is ready and eager to expose clap-trap, even when it is used on his own side.

Yours very respectfully, F. F.

AUGUST 16, 1890.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will publish in the early autumn 'The Unwritten Constitution of the United States,' by Prof. Christopher G. Tiedeman of the University of Missouri; 'The Battle of Manassas,' a reply to Gen. J. E. Johnston by Gen. G. T. Beauregard; 'The Trees of Northeastern America,' by Charles S. Newhall, with illustrations from the tracings of leaves; 'Dust and its Dangers,' by T. M. Prudden, M. D.; 'Little Venice, and Other Stories,' by Grace Denio Litchfield; 'Gilbert Elgar's Son,' by Harriet E. Davis; 'A Young Macedonian; or, From Troy to the Tigris with Alexander the Great,' by the Rev. Alfred J. Church; Amicis's 'Holland and Its People,' in Caroline Tilton's translation, newly printed and with numerous illustrations; and 'The Diary and Letters of Mme. D'Arblay,' edited by W. C. Ward.

J. B. Lippincott Co.'s announcements include 'The Distribution of Wealth,' by Rufus Cope; 'Hermetic Philosophy,' by J. S. McDonald, and a new "Aldine" edition of 'Rejected Addresses,' by James and Horace Smith, limited to 250 copies for America.

'Our Early Presidents, Their Wives and Children,' by Mrs. Harriet Taylor Upton, is in the press of D. Lothrop Co., Boston. It will present authentic likenesses.

Ginn & Co. will have ready next month 'Selections in English Prose from Elizabeth to Victoria (1580-1880),' by Prof. James M. Garnett of the University of Virginia.

A volume of verse by Mrs. S. Frances Harrison ("Seranus") will be shortly brought out by Hart & Co., Toronto.

Mr. Austin Dobson has followed his biographies of Hogarth, Fielding, Bewick, Steele, and Goldsmith by yet another eighteenth-century life, and Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish in the fall, in a limited edition, his 'Memoir of Horace Walpole.' The same house will also issue, as a gift book, his poem of the 'Sun-Dial,' illustrated with photogravures and pen-and-ink drawings by Mr. G. W. Edwards; and their Giunta Series will begin with 'Four French women,' outlines of the lives of Charlotte Corday, Mme. Roland, Mme. de Genlis, and the Princesse de Lamballe, written by Mr. Dobson and adorned by a portrait of Mlle. de Corday, etched by T. Johnson.

We receive from Mr. John C. Nimmo, London, his prospectus of a new uniform and limited edition of the works of the late Sir William Stirling-Maxwell, Baronet, in small quarto cloth, with a few large-paper copies, both printed from type and not from plates. This edition will comprise 'The Annals of the Artists of Spain' (4 vols.), 'The Cloister Life of the Emperor Charles the Fifth' (1 vol.), and 'A Volume of Miscellanies,' containing a memoir of the late Sir William Stirling-Maxwell, and a complete bibliography of his works and his literary and artistic productions, as well as a selection of his privately printed pamphlets on various interesting subjects of art, etc. The reprints in this series will all be revised and extended from the author's working over, and will contain many fresh illustrations.

Mr. Henry Marion Howe's 'Metallurgy of Steel' (New York: The Scientific Publishing Co.) is a thoroughly readable treatise, which subserves also the purposes of a manual through its rational topical arrangement and careful index. Having mastered its contents, one may rely upon possessing accurate knowledge of the whole science and craft of practical steel-making. It fills a quarto volume of some 400 pages.

M. Émile Faguet is a graduate of the Normal School, like Taine, About, Paradol, Sarcey, and Lemaitre. Like them, he has the solid learning of the scholar and an individuality of his own, without which criticism is arid and uninviting. His new volume on the 'Dix-huitième Siècle: Études Littéraires' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern) is to be recommended highly to all who are fond of literature. M. Faguet is not quite as firm as M. Sarcey or as brilliant as M. Lemaitre, but his thinking is vigorous and his writing is direct, with a partiality for antithesis and for paradox. The eleven figures whom he has taken as typical of the eighteenth century are Bayle, Fontenelle, Le Sage, Marivaux, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau, Buffon, Mirabeau, and André Chénier. We miss D'Alembert and Beaumarchais, as important as Le Sage and Marivaux, to say the least. Especially worthy of note is M. Faguet's likening (p. 402) of Rousseau to Tolstoi, and his proof that Buffon had at least a glimpse of the theory of microbes.

M. Faguet's French is easy and not at all academic. It lacks the point of M. Lemaitre's, also very free; but it does not sink to the trailing carelessness of M. Brunetière. One very modern phrase deserves to be detached. Lowell has already pointed out the curious similarity between the French "s'orienter" and the New England "about East." There is a Western expression to the effect that so and so "did not scare worth a cent." It is with some surprise that we find an equivalent phrase in M. Faguet's pages. He declares that Voltaire was essentially bourgeois—that is to say, he was not at all an artist: "Voltaire n'a pas été artiste pour un obole" (p. 193).

With the July number the *Bookbinder* completes its third year and is enlarged into the *British Bookmaker*, which is obviously modelled on the American magazines devoted to the craft, although with a less artistic aim than is apparent in the American journals, and with a fuller proportion of trade news, sinking often into mere shop gossip. Among the illustrations are portraits of the Zaehnsdorfs, father and son, and a reproduction of a well-designed and well-tooled binding from their shop. For the specimen cloth covers stamped in colors there is nothing to be said on the score of taste.

The statement which we have observed in several well-informed papers to the effect that the excellence of the *Atlantic* during the past decade was in no small degree due to the new editor, Mr. Horace E. Scudder, in the capacity of assistant, deserves correction. The *Atlantic* has had no assistant editor during this period. Mr. Scudder's collaboration extended no further than the routine oversight of the issue of numbers, practically already prepared, during Mr. Aldrich's occasional vacations.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for July contains the first part of a contribution to the study of Polynesian ethnography by Otto Sittig. In this he brings together all the instances noted by European navigators of natives being involuntarily driven by storms or currents from one island group to another. From these data he apparently expects to prove the unity of the race. The accompanying map will show the various canoe tracks in what may be termed the four drift areas into which he divides the island region. This is followed by a description of the proposed Nicaragua Canal, by Dr. H. Polakowsky, and a paper, with a map, on the amount of salt contained in the surface water of the North Atlantic and its distribution, the greatest density being in the southeastern part of the Sargasso Sea. The editor, Dr. Supan, discusses the Anglo-German agreement with especial relation to eastern Africa. He takes a rather gloomy view of German colonial prospects, and advocates the diversion of the caravan routes, with the help of a railway, from Bagamoyo, opposite Zanzibar, to the ancient port of Dar-es-Salaam.

The August Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains an account by Mr. J. Theodore Bent of his explorations in Cilicia Tracheia. This is a region, lying on the slopes of the Taurus, which eight centuries ago was "probably one of the most flourishing corners of the world, as is testified by the innumerable ruins of towns and villages crowded upon it, not only on the coast line, but up to a height of 6,000 feet above the level of the sea," but now is "given up to almost impenetrable brushwood, forest, and rocks," inhabited by a few nomads. Many inscriptions were discovered and copied, among which was "a list of 162 names, beginning with early Cilician names, running into ordinary Greek names, and the later ones showing evidences of Roman intermixture." The last name was that of King Archelaus, who ruled the district prior to its becoming a Roman province, and from this and other evidences it appeared to be "a list of the Teucrid dynasty or priest-kings of Olba," mentioned by Strabo; but this is disproved by Messrs. Ramsay and Hogarth in a communication to the *Athenæum* of August 16. Mr. Bent was so fortunate as to discover and identify the ruins of the capital of the kingdom of Olba, among which was the "great temple of Jove, which gained for the rulers of this district the additional title of priests." On a lintel found in these ruins, which he describes as among "the finest left standing in Asia Minor," was an inscription in a hitherto unknown script, "and which has not yet been deciphered by the epigraphists of the British Museum."

The current number of the *National Geographic Magazine* opens with a pithy abstract of a lecture by J. B. Bernardou on Korea and its people. It is accompanied by facsimiles of native maps of the country, which, according to the lecturer, has never been cartographically delineated in Western atlases from surveys by Europeans. He gives much curious information about roads, courier service, signal fires, mineral wealth, tides, and climate, and expresses his belief in the ease of devising a system of transliteration for the Corean "simple and very perfect alphabet." The second paper is an interesting account of the Ordnance Survey of Great Britain. The rest of the number is occupied with a discussion of geographic nomenclature, to which is appended the British, French, and German rules for the proper spelling of foreign geographic names. This magazine, it appears not to be generally known, is the organ of the National Geographic Society at Washington.

Cyprus is the subject of the opening paper in the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society, No. 147, by Eugen Oberhummer, whose extensive routes of travel are exhibited on the accompanying colored map.

A novel suggestion is made by Dr. Nehring in the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift*. It is succinctly expressed by the words "Fossil Blizzards." His idea seems to be that the singular abundance of comparatively recent fossils of large animals throughout certain small areas is very possibly due

to their death in groups during blizzards. These storms are known to be very destructive to the larger animals, exposed upon open plains, who generally huddle close together for protection. When freezing thus gradually, their positions are natural and unstrained—their bones would be in no way distorted, as would probably be the case if they had been killed by other beasts or by floods. And these easy positions are greatly characteristic of the masses of fossil remains in many regions.

In May last the library of the Brussels Observatory and the Meteorological Department were installed in the new building at Uccle. The Astronomical Department will remain at the old site until the difference of longitude between the two shall have been determined. On June 2 a monument about twenty feet high in the form of a "meteorological column," in honor of Houzeau, late director of this observatory, was unveiled at Mons.

A 'Manual for the Use of Boards of Health of Massachusetts' may well be valued in all other States by like bodies or by sanitary reformers. It is issued by the State Board of Health, and contains all the statutes in the premises with the decisions thereupon of the State Supreme Court.

Every library at least should possess itself of the 'Descriptive List of Novels and Tales Dealing with American Country Life' compiled by Mr. W. M. Griswold and published by himself at Cambridge, Mass. It is an attempt, in behalf of rational reading, to restore to novels their novelty—*i. e.*, to save from unjust oblivion such as have grown old without ceasing to be good and profitable, and so, in Mr. Griswold's words, to "lessen, in some measure, the disposition to read an inferior *new* novel when superior *old* books, equally fresh to most readers, are at hand." This laudable design will be continued in a list descriptive of American city life, and with lists of "International" and romantic stories. The first two may confidently be recommended to European publishers in search of something to translate, as a means of conveying correct ideas about this country to their fellow-countrymen. Mr. Griswold's plan is to give title, author, publisher, and year of publication, and to follow these data with a carefully selected critique from some literary review in good standing. The scene of the story is currently emphasized in bold type, but Mr. Griswold's index takes the searcher right to the desired locality. New England naturally is far in the lead; next come the Middle and the Southern, and then the Western States. New Hampshire lacks its novelist, apparently—of course judged by the compiler's standard. In families having access to a public library, this List ought to afford an answer to many troublesome questions about reading.

The ninth annual report of the Dante Society (Cambridge, Mass.) begins with a notice of the formation of the Italian Dante Society, to which (as it undertakes an exhaustive annual bibliography) the American Society relinquishes the task hitherto ably discharged by Mr. William C. Lane—in the present report for the last time. Prof. Fay's Concordance to the Divine Comedy has, it appears, not met with the demand which it merited. The Dante Prize for an essay to Harvard students or recent graduates is renewed. The collection of works on Dante fostered by the Society in the Harvard College Library now numbers 1,218 volumes, and is adequate on the side of printed sources to the needs of scholarship. Mr. Lane has indexed it most minutely in the Bulletin of the Library. An increase in the Society's membership is much to be desired.

The International Congress of Americanists will hold its eighth session in Paris at No. 184 Boulevard St.-Germain from the 14th to the 18th of October. Any one can participate as a member on payment of twelve francs to the Assistant Treasurer, M. C. Aubry, at the above address.

The catalogue of the late Dr. Döllinger's library, owing to the great amount of labor involved in preparing it, will not be printed before October. The numerous applications for it which have been received from various parts of the United States will then be met.

—The Cambridge (Mass.) *Tribune* has lately published a folio pamphlet commemorative of "the university city," partly historical, with some careful and authoritative writing about Harvard College and the town, and partly statistical of the present day. "Process" cuts in facsimile and from nature are freely employed, and when these are applied, as they are at the end, to portraiture, they furnish a considerable body of types of the New England business man. Much more care and expense has been devoted by the *Ohio State Journal* to producing its bound souvenir, which illustrates "Columbus, the hub of Ohio," whose radiating railroad spokes in fact amount to fifteen. Here, along with views of public buildings, we have a very large and important array of Western business types which will repay study. The Columbus bar is also photographically portrayed in nearly fifty examples, with ex-Senator Thurman at their head; the medical profession less numerously. Taking them together, the physiognomist has here a rich field for divination. More extensive still is the portrait-gallery comprehended in 'One of a Thousand: A Series of Biographical Sketches of 1,000 Representative Men Resident in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, A. D. 1888-89,' compiled by John C. Rand (Boston: First National Publishing Co.). This large and handsome volume of 700 pages has almost as many likenesses of men famous and obscure, but largely of the mercantile and political class. The collection has been made to some extent on mercenary principles—*i. e.*, we believe that some men do not appear in it because they declined to pay the ten or twenty dollars needful for the expense of text and engraving. But the greater citizens could not be slighted on this ground, and we find Winthrop, Whittier, Holmes, Lowell, Ellis, Hoar, Dawes, Butler, Lodge, Long, Loring, Aldrich, etc., pictured, and Parkman, Higginson, E. E. Hale, Bartol, Joseph Cook, Parton, C. W. Eliot, Charles Francis Adams, etc., unpictured, and all alike probably untaxed. This volume is the precursor of others to represent other States, and the series, if ever completed, will be an invaluable repertory of American faces, as well as historically and genealogically an important addition to existing works of reference.

—The latest volume of the 'Archives of Maryland,' edited by William Hand Browne, extends from 1687 to 1693. This period covers the revolt instigated and led by John Coode, a former minister of the Church of England, afterwards a captain of militia, and, as the result of his successful sedition, "Commander of the Military Affairs in Maryland," and a *soi-disant* "Massinella." The panic induced by false rumors of an intended extermination of Protestants by Catholics, set down for "the latter end of August when roasting Eares were in season," paved the way for the overthrow of the Proprietary Government and the immediate intervention of Protestant King William in the control of the colony. In the confusion of the transition, the records of the Council were naturally suspended, and the gap had to be made good by our editor by means of copies of documents in the London Public Record Office. These, in which some duplicates are to be remarked, fill a third of the present volume, and greatly enhance both its value and its readability. There is, for example, a very picturesque and racy account of Coode's proceedings, privately addressed to Lord Baltimore by the Jacobite, Col. Peter Sayer of Talbot County, whose irreconcilableness ere long got him into limbo, since he could not restrain his tongue. The killing of Payne, the King's collector, when that gentleman was evidently misperforming his duties in a state of intoxication, is also well told in a variety of reports and affidavits. The Grand Jury, in their "billa vera," found that the felonious assault had been committed "with one Gunn charged with powder and two Leaden bulletts of the value of one pound Stirl'g." Indians and their "Emperors" cut a considerable figure in these records, and every treaty with them stipulates for the return of fugitive servants and slaves. The barbarous treatment of the latter, Dutch William's new Governor, Lionel Copley, was instructed to try to prevent by procuring appropriate legislation. We learn what was considered clement treatment from the case of Lewis Rennals, a mulatto, sentenced to death "for breaking open a House Chest &c and stealing from thence several Goods &c." The Attorney-General found "the Charge to be mean and but for a very small Matter," whereupon, "his Excellency being willing to shew Mercy to him," Rennals was ordered to be transported to Barbados, "to be sold and disposed of there to the most Advantage."

—The spelling and idiom of this mass of documents are full of entertainment. Nathaniel Bacon, President of the Council of Virginia, persistently spells yacht "yatch," and his correspondent Coode writes "Pyratts," and "Scharnecksteed, a towne near Albany," with "Schanagtede" for a variant. The recusant Surveyor-General, Edmund Randolph, "publickly demonstrates himself a Male Content at the present constitution and frame of Government." A like-minded Col. Fye is heard to say that "if he had the prince of orange there he would thrust his sword up to the Beame in him." This use of *beam* for guard we do not discover in Mr. Murray's Dictionary, or in any other within reach; but Murray cites an admiral who defines beam analogously as the *stock* of an anchor—not the shank, as the dictionary-makers would have it. New to us also is the adjective in the following sentence, regarding Payne's murderers: "It is verily believed that without Price and *keenely* evidence they would not have been found guilty." Old-fashioned substitutes for "bound" occur in "My wife Barbara Smith is *intended* to England, now immediately to make her personal petition"; and "I am *designed* to the freshes of Fatuxen." John Coode vouches for certain partisans as "all *unbyasted* persons." His opponents declared his Papist plot "nothing but a *slevelesse* fear and imaginacõn," and point "to that part of Virg'a where that monstrous brood of a Report was first hatcht." And so we might go on.

—It is not probable that any buildings in the world designed for such important, delicate, and complicated uses as the care of the sick and injured approach in every particular so nearly the ideal as the group making up the Johns Hopkins Hospital at Baltimore. In design and execution it is unsurpassed, and it is a conspicuous example of a great endowment

liberally and economically administered, and exhibits the wisdom of both the donor and the men intrusted with its management. Now that the end so splendidly crowns the work, those who cavilled (and there were some) at the time spent and at the superb care taken to perfect it, must be convinced that the means has been justified, and that the hospital of to-day is a full vindication of the expenditure and pains of yesterday. The trustees have just published a description of the hospital, including the Nurses' Home, written at their request by Dr. Billings, who, from the beginning, has been the expert medical adviser to the President of the Board and to the Building Committee. In his lucid style are explained the general and particular arrangements of the building, the heating and ventilation, the water supply, sewerage, drainage, and, in fact, everything about the establishment, of which much is unique and all is admirable. The work is a quarto of 116 pages letter-press with fifty-six full-page plates, and contains, besides the description, Mr. Hopkins's original letter to his trustees, and the address on the opening of the institution, which foreshadow and develop the range for good this institution covers. No exercise of sanguine imagination by the founder could equal the reality into which his fortune has been transmuted. The book is properly prefaced by a minute of the Board acknowledging and making record that whatever excellence the institution can claim as an advance in hospital construction is due to the great and deserved eminence in medical and sanitary science of Dr. Billings, and to the watchful zeal with which he directed every step from the beginning. It is printed on heavy paper with wide margins, and is no mean contribution to sanitary science.

—The college of Brasenose in Oxford has just recovered a relic of high antiquity and of the highest interest. This is no less than the original brazen nose—the palladium of the College, one might almost call it—from which, most likely, the name of the College is derived. It is a bronze knocker, in the shape of a lion's mask carrying in its mouth an iron ring, and may perhaps date from the twelfth century. At any rate, it has been absent from Oxford for five hundred years and more. In the year 1334 there was a great exodus of Oxford scholars and a migration to Stamford in Yorkshire. The students of Brasenose Hall, as it was then called, departed in a body and took the tutelary knocker with them. When a new Brasenose was built in Stamford, the knocker was fixed on its gate, and has remained there through all the chances and changes of five centuries. Possibly, as a writer in the London *Guardian* suggests, it came to be looked upon with a sort of superstitious veneration, which, as he says, has saved it from "theft, and chance, and time, and corporations." This last word is to the address of the corporation of Stamford, into whose hands the second Brasenose fell, and who ruthlessly tore it down in 1688. They spared, however, the ancient gateway, and the knocker remained also, even after the Stamford authorities sold the property, and has passed from one owner to another as a sort of heirloom of the estate. The late owner declined to sell it except with the estate itself, and Brasenose College has just bought the entire property, and recovered its ancient emblem. That it will be put back in its old place again and stay there for half-a-dozen centuries more, one may not rashly predict. To put it back might expose some young gentlemen to temptation of a kind which undergraduate virtue resists with difficulty.

—The yearly "Fêtes cigalières et félibréennes" were celebrated on August 9–18 in the southwest of France. The word *félibre* is commonly used to denote the group of Provençal poets, of which Mistral, Roumanille, and Aubanel are, or have been, the chief, and their following. Avignon and Arles have been the centres of this literary activity. Some of its productions have been worthy of a certain degree of consideration as possessing a real, if somewhat limited, interest. It was the revival for literary purposes of a patois which had ceased to be literary some six hundred years ago, and which came back again with a charm of freshness and novelty. That it was antiquated, and perhaps also somewhat factitious, suited not ill the taste of the time. It fitted in, if not with Romanticism and the revival of Gothic architecture, at least with the use of wax lights and antique furniture, and the recrudescence of "decorative art." It was at the very least a pretty and entertaining experiment that met with some success. Any such statement about the movement, however, would drive the younger set of *félibres* wild. They take themselves as seriously as any clique that ever called itself a "school" and had a "cause." They are enlisted in what one of their elders, M. Raoul Lafagette, calls a "patoisade"—a linguistic crusade which, in a measure, may revenge the crusade against the Albigenses. To bring back again the old equality between the *langue d'oc* and the *langue d'oil* would hardly be enough for them. Their plan seems to be that every writer shall use the patois of his native place, rejecting such Gallicisms as he may detect in it. (They do not accept even Jasmin's diction as pure.) As a result of poems so written in a tongue thus purified, they look for the development of three great types of dialect, corresponding to the uses of Languedoc, Provence, and Aquitaine. Afterwards "des pcèmes superbes" will follow naturally. It was not, of course, to be expected that every French newspaper, or every critic, should treat the claims of this new apostolate with complete seriousness. They have, in fact, been treated with a good deal of levity. It is none the less a rather interesting piece of work that they have in hand, even though it seems odd and foredoomed to failure.

THE BODLEIAN'S ANNALS.

Annals of the Bodleian Library, Oxford: with a Notice of the Earlier Library of the University. By W. D. Macray. Second edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890.

THE public library of Oxford University, better known as "The Bodleian," boasts the proud distinction of being the first public library in Europe, and to its alcoves scholars of every land and nation have always found a hearty welcome. Long indeed is the roll of those who have profited by the facilities for quiet study and research afforded by its latticed cells, not inaptly compared, by one grateful student, to veritable bowers of paradise. Though no longer first in size among English libraries, being far surpassed in extent by its younger rival of the British Museum, in many respects it still maintains its preëminence; and its Annals, compiled with scholarly care by Mr. Macray, give us an interesting outline not only of the growth of the library itself, but also of the development of English learning and literary activity.

The beginnings of the University Library are traced with certainty at least as far back as the early years of the fourteenth century, when the books were kept in St. Mary's Church —some in chests to be lent out under pledges, and some chained to the desks for consultation on the spot. About 1320 Bishop Cobham began preparations for the erection of a library-room at the northeast corner of the church, but the work hung fire, and the room was not completed and occupied until 1409. During the next half-century Duke Humphrey of Gloucester made such munificent gifts to the library that this room soon became overcrowded, and when in 1444 the construction of a new library over the Divinity School was begun, the University, in recognition of his generosity, formally conferred upon Duke Humphrey the title of founder of the library. This new building, which was completed about 1480, and is still known as Duke Humphrey's Library, forms to-day the central portion of the great reading-room. But evil days were in store for this early library. In 1550 the Commissioners sent by Edward VI. to reform the University laid heavy hands upon it; all its illuminated manuscripts were ruthlessly destroyed as popish, and the others were left exposed to the chances of neglect and robbery. Wood informs us that they were in fact sold to the tailors and bookbinders until not one was left. In 1556, as we learn from an entry in the University register, the very shelves and seats were ordered to be sold for the benefit of the University chest. Thus despoiled of its contents, the room alone remained, desolate and forsaken, to show that there had once been a library in Oxford, until 1598.

In that year Sir Thomas Bodley, a graduate of the University, after a successful career as a diplomatist, "concluded," to quote his own words, "at the last to set up my staffe at the Librarie-dore in Oxon; being throwghly perswaded that, in my solitude and surcease from the commonwealth-affayers, I coulde not busie myselfe to better purpose then by redusing that place (which then in every part laye ruined and wast) to the publique use of studients." He offered to fit up the room with shelves and seats, to procure gifts of books, and to endow the library with an annual rent. The offer was gladly accepted, and two years were spent in the restoration of the building, which had suffered greatly from its long neglect. In 1600 the books began to come in, Bodley himself being one of the largest givers, and on November 8, 1602, the library was formally opened by the Vice-Chancellor. It then contained upwards of 2,000 volumes, which were, as usual in those days, chained to the shelves for safe keeping. In 1604 the library received by royal letters patent the name of its new founder, which it has borne ever since.

The text of the Bodleian statutes is not given by Mr. Macray, but a number of their provisions are mentioned, and curious enough some of the regulations seem to us. Full academical costume was required to be worn by all readers, and instances are recorded of students who were suspended from the privileges of the library for venturing to enter it without cap and gown. Heretical and schismatical books, we are told, could not be read without leave of the Vice-Chancellor and the Regius Professor of Divinity. When the catalogue was issued, it was ordered that every reader should buy a copy of it, in order to defray the expense of printing. In 1640 a German baron got into a row with a Welsh reader in the library, and cudgelled him soundly. The next day the Baron was expelled, and an order issued that henceforth no student, English or foreign, should bring into the library a staff, cane, or any offensive weapon whatsoever.

Bodley's firm determination that no books should be lent out of the library was embodied

in the statutes, and though the University had power, with the joint consent of the Chancellor, the Heads of Houses, and Convocation, to lend books, the right was very rarely exercised. There is no doubt that to the strict observance of this rule the Bodleian owes some of its most important benefactions; and while some donors stipulated, as did Archbishop Laud, that the books given by them might be lent for certain specified purposes, on the other hand the gift of Selden's great collection, numbering some 8,000 volumes, was accompanied by the stipulation that none of the books should be lent to any person on any condition whatsoever. As instances of the scrupulous regard with which this rule was observed may be mentioned the refusal of the librarian to lend books to Charles I. and again to the Lord Protector, and by both the refusal was approved. It is true that the attempt had been made more than once to abolish this restriction, and turn the Bodleian into a circulating library, but the rule remained in force until 1856, when the clause containing it was dropped from the statutes, and, in the absence of any direct prohibition, the practice of lending books under certain conditions gradually arose. In 1873 a clause was added to the statutes empowering the curators to lend books both to members of the University and others. In 1886, however, attention was called to the questionable legality of this clause as well as its bad Latinity, and, after considerable discussion, all power of lending books of any kind, except in such few cases as might be sanctioned by a special vote of Convocation, was abolished by a statute passed in 1887—a practical reversion to the earlier regulations, the wisdom of which seems to be generally acknowledged.

As we have seen, when the library was opened, the books were chained to the shelves, and this custom was long kept up. In 1654 it was stipulated that Selden's books should be chained, and 25 pounds 10 shillings was paid for chains for them. As late as the year 1751, notices are found in the account-books of payments for additional chains, but about 1757 the removal of them seems to have begun, and in 1769 nineteen hundredweight of them was sold as "old iron." At first the library appears to have been open only four hours daily, but this number was gradually increased to six hours in winter and eight in summer, and of late years the reading-room in the Radcliffe has been open daily from nine A. M. to ten P. M. By the early statutes perpetual celibacy was stringently enjoined upon the librarian, and it was not till 1813 that he was released from the obligation to remain unmarried, though, by a curious compromise, it was enacted that he, as well as the under librarians, should be unmarried at the time of election.

From its foundation the Bodleian has been the recipient of numerous gifts, its roll of benefactors including many of the most illustrious names in English history and literature. But, mingled with the greater number of valuable donations, not a few are recorded which are more curious than useful, for at some periods the Bodleian seems to have been looked upon as a general receptacle of miscellaneous odds and ends. Almost the first of these oddities, and one which proved to be a perpetual source of expense, was presented by Sir Richard Lee in 1609, in the shape of a Tartar lamb's-wool cloak. An account of this wonderful garment is given in the appendix to the Annals. Other gifts of this character include Guy Fawkes's lantern, an Irish skull, a tanned human skin, mummies, ostrich eggs, gloves; and even so late as 1813 the gift of a negro baby preserved in spirits is recorded. Most of these curiosities, however, have in course of time found their way to a more fitting resting-place in the Ashmolean Museum.

In 1610 Bodley obtained from the Stationers' Company, for the library, a grant of a copy of every book printed by them, a precursor of the present obligations imposed by the Copyright Act. This contract, however, was not always strictly enforced, and at first the growth of the library was comparatively slow. Starting with upwards of 2,000 volumes in 1602, the number in 1649 was only 16,000, and 36,000 in 1714. In 1780 complaint was made that the funds of the library were altogether insufficient for their purpose, and it seems for many years to have been dependent for its increase almost wholly on gifts. In consequence, a statute was enacted imposing an annual fee of four shillings on all readers, and also assigning a share of the matriculation fees to the library. From this time the growth was more rapid, and in 1817 the number of books, including manuscripts, had risen to 160,000; in 1885 the number was 440,000, and the present annual rate of increase is about 10,000 bound volumes, exclusive of periodicals. During the present century much attention has been given to the formation of special collections, and, under the late librarian, Mr. Coxe, whom many readers still hold in loving remembrance, great improvements were made. The new general catalogue, on the same lines as that of the British Museum, was begun in 1862 and completed in 1878. The last printed catalogue was published in 1843, with a supplement in 1851. It was chiefly the work of a Mr. Hackman, and Mr. Macray relates the following anecdote concerning him: It seems that during all the thirty-six years of his service in the library he had used as a cushion in his wooden arm-chair a certain vellum-bound folio, and when, after his resignation in 1874, it was removed from its resting-place of years, some amusement was caused by finding that the chief compiler of the last printed catalogue had omitted from it the volume on which he sat, of which, too, though of no special value, there was no other copy in the library.

Mr. Macray ends his record with the death of Mr. Coxe in 1881, as the later history of the library is given, with minute details, by the present librarian, E. B. Nicholson, in a report issued in 1888. An appendix contains some interesting documents relating to the library, lists of manuscripts, books in special bindings, etc., and an excellent index fitly completes the Annals.

SYMONDS'S ESSAYS.

Essays, Speculative and Suggestive. By John Addington Symonds. Two vols. Scribner & Welford. 1890.

THESE volumes of essays differ from the ordinary collections of miscellanies by men of letters. Some of the papers are old, some are new, and they deal with many topics; but they are so arranged as to constitute a continuous and for the most part analytical criticism of the art of expression, principally in literature, but also in architecture, sculpture, painting, and music. They comprise, moreover, the fruits of many years of experience in a wide range of scholarly interests, and sum up the reflections of their author on the whole mass of his intellectual acquirements. It is rarely our fortune to find the abstract principles of the art of expression comprehensively handled by a man of high literary culture, and it is even more seldom that he brings his illustrations so readily and in such variety from his own stores of special study. These characteristics, besides the interesting element of personality more keenly felt than in the author's historical and biographical work, give importance to these essays; and, in addition, they will be found to touch upon nearly all the critical questions which have been raised in our time in the province of literature. In noticing a work so multifarious in its matter, it will be convenient to follow a somewhat different order from that adopted by the author, that we may bring out more clearly the main traits of his thought.

The note which is persistently struck throughout is that of the evolutionist, but this is emphasized more than need be. The larger part of Mr. Symonds's conclusions is consistent with other hypotheses than that form of pantheism which he regards as the logical conclusion of the evolutionist, and which he puts in the forefront of his work as its determining idea. To this we shall recur, only noticing it here by the way for the bearing it has on his conception of the office of the critic, which he discusses at large before proceeding to define the methods of the various arts of expression. The kernel of what he has to say concerning the critic is contained in this quotation from Heraclitus: "It behooves us to follow the common reason of the world; yet, though there is a common reason in the world, the majority live as though they possessed a wisdom peculiar each unto himself alone." This "common reason," which is the result of the repeated and concurring decisions of that "wise man" whom Aristotle pronounced the final judge in matters of taste, this authoritative tradition of the past as to what is best, is the one thing which the critic must know and use to test his own "peculiar wisdom" or personal impression. To adopt Mr. Symonds's nomenclature, classical criticism consults only tradition, romantic criticism only the personal impression; to these he adds scientific criticism, which seeks only to understand how any work of art came to be what it is by virtue of its germ and its environment, but delivers no judgment and formulates no law of excellence. Mr. Symonds unites in his conception of the office of criticism the three methods, and requires an understanding of the genesis of the work, a regard for tradition, and an exercise of originality in the act of judgment, if the critic has anything new and personal to offer.

In his own case the original element, as has been said, is derived from the theory of evolution, and in his first application of it to literature there is nothing novel or specially to be remarked upon. He argues that every national type in art goes through a definite process of growth and decay; the idea first is more attended to, then comes into possession of perfect form, and lastly is subordinated to technique, after which the type breaks up and dissipates through exaggeration and separation of its traits. In support of this he adduces the history of Greek sculpture, of Elizabethan drama, of Gothic architecture, and like defined art movements. It does not seem to us that he sufficiently meets the objection that this evolution of the type is merely derivative, and only reflects the evolution of the social group in which the disintegrating energy is really inherent; and therefore his position, that men of equal genius exist at the successive epochs, but are so fatally submitted to the condition of the type contemporaneous with them that they cannot do otherwise than they do, does not appeal to us, especially as it carries levelling consequences in morals, and leads to a phase of indifferentism in that

region. The method, too, by which he accounts for those literatures which have not followed the normal course, including the Roman and our modern literatures, by merely classing them all as "hybrids," is a weak escape. The interesting point, however, is not whether he has pushed the doctrine of necessity in evolution too far in this instance and made a too narrow generalization, but to mark the willingness he exhibits to yield everything on the scientific side with a certain intemperance and unguardedness of mind. As soon as he quits the ground of evolution, however, he writes with more precision, and in the admirable chapters on the provinces of the arts we have a valuable abstract of that "common reason" of criticism with regard to them which he began by praising.

Mr. Symonds provokes discussion again when he enters on the vexed question of the relation of the artist to his work, realism or idealism. The way in which he states his conclusions may excuse a moment's detention on the well-worn theme. He starts from the fact that the artist cannot reproduce nature accurately, as is shown by the inferiority of the drawing to the photograph; there is a defect of skill. A second disturbing element lies in the individuality of the artist, who sees the object already modified by his own capacity of perception, as is shown by the difference of drawings after the same model by hands of equal craft. These two facts import a personal error into every work of art, and also an inevitable inferiority to nature itself. Such idealism as results from these conditions is involuntary; but there is, in addition, a voluntary idealism which the artist employs, by means of composition, expression, and characterization, and through which he becomes as much superior to reality as without them he is inferior. Mr. Symonds thus looks on idealism as the compensation for the necessary inferiority of art to life so long as only imitation is sought after. He goes, however, much further than this, and holds that what the artist gives of his personality and of his thought and feeling about the whole of life, is of vastly more consequence than even his artistic technique, and declares that style of itself without matter has never enforced immortality. As a most striking example of the failure of style in literature he cites the humanist imitators of Cicero and Petrarch. The contents of the work are to him the essential matter; he parts company with the school of art for art's sake as he has already left the realists, and, in opposition to both, maintains that the most possible of expression should be put into the artist's work, and that the method of idealism should be employed to this end. In this spirit he examines Mr. Pater's dictum, some years ago, that "all art constantly aspires towards the condition of music," and Mr. Arnold's more famous deliverance that literature is a "criticism of life," and comes to a more catholic and rational conclusion.

The distinction which characterizes his treatment of these questions, so vigorously debated by our generation, is that he maintains the balance of the antithesis—in Hegel's definition, which he quotes more than once—that "art is the apparition of the idea in sense," or, in his own words, that it is the middle term between reason and sensation. He describes it as "indissolubly bound up with the spiritual nature of man," but at the same time attends closely to the limitations all art is subject to in consequence of that necessity of "form-giving" which Goethe declared was its essence. In the more confined arts, such as sculpture, these limitations are easily analyzed, but no writer, we believe, has treated so directly the less obvious ones which exist in the languages and modify literatures, as is here done in the very interesting chapters upon national style, to which we can only refer. In all this portion of his work we observe a metaphysical prepossession, a tendency to render the world in terms of mind, an exaltation of the spiritualizing faculty in man, and in general the traits which are not habitually associated with that scientific leaning already noticed as characteristic of the author's thought.

The point of union between the evolutionary and idealistic elements in Mr. Symonds's conclusions is a religious feeling. To express this seems to be one of the main purposes of his present work. The argument is sufficiently suggested by our saying that the denial of the advent of mind by special creation in this world, which Mr. Symonds thinks necessary to a thoroughgoing evolutionist, implies to him the existence of universal mind. The term mind he does not limit to what is known to us as mind "in its human differentia"; he postulates mind below and above man's mind, and asks if "we shall not then be bold enough to say that all form is fundamentally a mode of mind?" Again he says: "We may surmise that what appears as intelligence in the biological series was formerly the same power existing under another manifestation in the inorganic series, just as heat is a mode of motion. . . . In other words, the common substance of the world would now be thought of in successive moments of its evolution, first as endowed with the capacity of form, next as endowed with the capacity of life and progressive consciousness in addition to form." And as regards "mind" in the "ascending scale of existences," he adds: "Paradoxical as it may seem, it is not incredible that the globe on which we live is more conscious of itself than we are of ourselves; and the cells that compose our corporeal frame are gifted with a separate consciousness of a simpler kind than ours." This is nearly all the light we have been able to obtain upon Mr. Symonds's conception of "universal mind" as he has unfolded it. He attacks the subject, however, in a somewhat different way in the assertion that "the conceptions of God and Law tend to coalesce in the scientific theory of the universe"; and this statement he afterwards explains by defining Law as "the order of the whole regarded as a process of unerringly unfolded energy," and God as "that same order contemplated by human thought as in its essence mind-determined."

This is the clearest account that we can extract of the matter with the best will to be fair to an idea which the author regards as a substitute for religion, and advances with the zeal of a propagandist. He goes on to remark that the Christ-idea, devotion to humanity, is now separated from the originally metaphysical and Alexandrine, but latterly anthropomorphic and Catholic, conception of divinity, and that it is desirable to reunite the Christ-idea with the older Greek conception of God as "the prime principle of law and order," made vital again by science. He sums up the conclusion of the whole matter by saying, "What religion has to do, if it remains theistic, is to create an enthusiasm in which the cosmic emotion shall coalesce with the sense of social duty, in which self-abnegating submission to the natural order and self-abnegating service of man shall be regarded as the double function of all human beings in the evolution of the universe." Of the reality and energy of this "cosmic emotion" he seems to have no doubt, and there are indications that he expects that this new phase of religious awe will be something more than a private and personal matter, and may become the principle of a church. In the discussion of Wordsworth's relation to science he says: "The time might come, indeed may not be distant, when lines like those which I have quoted above from the poem composed at Tintern Abbey should be sung in hours of worship by congregations for whom the 'cosmic emotion' is a reality and a religion"; and elsewhere he prognosticates the same honor for some of Shelley's lyrics.

Such speculation belongs with that kind of philosophy which is commonly called "poetical." Its literary application is all that concerns us at present. The author makes use of it in three capital instances. He employs it to rehabilitate the myths of the Greeks, to invigorate the imaginative feeling for landscape, and to supply a basis for "democratic art." The Greeks were superior to us in the directness and fulness of their perception of spirituality in nature. The element of truth in their mythology consists in this perception; for, as Mr. Symonds puts it, the world is all soul, and soul in man communicates with soul in nature, nor does the fact that man is compelled to think of soul as human prevent his "entering into a sub-conscious intercourse with beings which are not human and from recognizing their essential spirituality." Of this intercourse Greek mythology is a record and a revelation; and though it came to be disbelieved when nature was regarded, under Christian influences, as the opposite of spirit, we may now resume the truth which it contained, since science has restored spirituality to nature. All this seems to us a very laborious method of asserting the truth of Greek myths for the imagination, as a form of poetry; and if beyond this, as appears to be the case, the author would affirm their truth for the understanding as a form of knowledge, the method is not laborious enough. The mythopœic genius of Shelley is a modified instance of the Greek habit of nature-interpretation: his poetry shows in what way the use of this faculty can be resumed by a modern mind; but no different truth can be predicated of the ancient myths than of Shelley's conscious symbolism. Mr. Symonds admits this parallelism, but would import a certain reality into Shelley's inventions.

In his essay upon landscape he comes upon ground better fitted for his argument, and, apart from this philosophical theory, his account of the development of the feeling for landscape from Greek to English days is a valuable general view of a most interesting subject. He notices the pantheistic temper of the Roman poets, but it is rather in the renascence of the ancient theory in Bruno and the German transcendentalists that he finds the source of the poetic emotion of Goethe, Wordsworth, and Shelley, which ascribes spirituality to nature and penetrates to it as universal mind in the Virgilian rather than the Greek way. The decadence of this pantheistic sentiment in the later poetry of this century does not escape the author's attention, but he relies upon the influence of science to make this mood of contemplating nature habitual and necessary and to develop new motives. The "religion of the future," he adds, will "supply this branch of art with ideality."

But by all odds the most striking application of this philosophy is made in the essay upon Walt Whitman, in which it is invoked as the ground of "democratic art." This as yet unrealized efflorescence of the masses, and particularly of "America," is made necessary by "the advent of the people." Mr. Symonds, in-

deed, says frankly that the European nations cannot be expected to give up their past; but in America he sees little objection, apparently, to "beginning over again." The matter of democratic art, he announces, is all things whatsoever, since freedom of topic and treatment has been achieved for us by the victory of the Romantic revolution; but he finds a better basis for this unlimited choice and method in the following declaration: "God the divine is recognized as immanent in nature and in the soul and body of humanity; not external to these things, not conceived of as creator from outside, or as incarnated in any single personage, but as all-pervasive, all-constitutive, everywhere and in all. This is the democratic philosophy." The application of this to Walt Whitman's catalogues of objects—his "engine-driver," "member of a fire brigade," "snag-toothed hostler," "farmer's girl boiling her iron tea-kettle and baking shortcake," and to his Orphic sayings, such as, "Whoever you are! how superb and how divine is your body or any part of it" (we take Mr. Symonds's quotations)—is plain and easy. An immanent divinity, equal and the same in all, clearly permits no discriminations, and justifies a very general interest in all sorts of phenomena. The intoxication of the fixed idea in the brain cannot go further than this grotesque exhibition of itself. Democracy must have a "religion," as well as an art and literature, all its own, and "America" finds its gospel as well as its epic in the 'Leaves of Grass'! "Cosmic emotion" and "social duty" may pass as phrases of the literary prayer-book, but a pantheism that ends in making Walt Whitman its hierophant is its own burlesque and caricature.

The metaphysical weakness of these volumes, which has been self-exposed, cannot but obstruct the reader's sense of their many excellences in the department of literary criticism. It is, nevertheless, easy to disengage the really solid and valuable matter, which constitutes four-fifths of the work at least, from the vague and hybrid speculation which impairs it as a whole, and which is mainly of interest as an example of the working of an eclectic and assimilative mind amid the confusions of modern thought. As a critic of literature the author brings no inconsiderable matter of his own wide gathering, for he has been a student of culture all his life, and speaks from a various experience. We have touched upon only a small portion of the ideas with which he brings the reader in contact, and these the most general, since they seemed formative in his mind; but he is at his best in dealing with detail, as in the study of the influence of Ausonius and Catullus on the poetry of the rose, or in the notes upon national style, or in the explanation of the spiritual allegories (not the nature-myths) of the Greek mind. His metaphysical method, too, however unsound in itself and fictive in its results, is seriously pursued, and deserves the regard which sincerity, however misdirected, receives.

The Life of Alexander Pope. By William John Courthope, M.A. London: John Murray. 8vo, pp. xvi, 538.

MR COURTHOPE'S Life of Pope brings to a conclusion the last and best edition of Pope's works. This edition was first announced in 1854, and was to have been undertaken by John Wilson Croker, the editor of Boswell, assisted by Peter Cunningham, who edited the Works of Oliver Goldsmith, Johnson's Lives of the Poets, and the Letters of Horace Walpole—all standard editions. Croker died in 1857 and Cunningham in 1869; their successor was the Rev. Whitwell Elwin, for several years editor of the *Quarterly Review*. The actual publication of the work did not begin till 1871, with vols. i and ii (Poetry i and ii) and vi and vii (Correspondence i and ii). In 1872 appeared vol. viii, being the third volume of the correspondence. Mr. Elwin then retired from the editorship, and was succeeded by Mr. Courthope, whose qualifications for his task can hardly be overrated. The work now suffered an interruption of nine years. In 1881 appeared vol. iii, and in 1882 vol. iv, completing the poetry; in 1886 vols. ix and x, completing the correspondence (in five volumes). The Life, which brings up the rear, is vol. v.

It will be seen that this work has had a romantic career, requiring eighteen years for its completion, to say nothing of the interval of thirty-five years between its first announcement and its final volume, and enlisting the services of four separate editors, all of them men of the first competence. But that is not all. The most singular circumstance connected with it is the wide discrepancy in the attitude of the last two editors. What would have been Mr. Croker's and Mr. Cunningham's attitude if they had lived to publish the work is only a matter of conjecture; but from what is known of them, and of their general sympathy with the eighteenth century, it may be safely conjectured that they would have approached Pope with sentiments of enlightened reverence—in such a frame of mind, in fact, as, on general principles, one would naturally expect any editor to cultivate. It is difficult to see why one who disapproves of an author should edit and elucidate his works. But Pope has been particularly unfortunate in this respect. Warburton, his first editor (1751), was, it is true, a most ardent advocate, but Mr. Elwin says that "he employed his sagacity less to discover than to distort the ideas of his author, and seems to have thought that the more he deviated from the obvious sense the greater would be his fame for inventive power. He has left no worse specimen of his perverse propensity than the spurious fancies and idle refinements he fathered upon Pope. They are among his baldest paradoxes, are conveyed in his heaviest style, and are supported by his feeblest sophistry. His lifeless and verbose conceits soon provoke by their falsity, and fatigue by their ponderousness."

This passage may well serve not only as a specimen of Mr. Elwin's vigorous way of putting things, but also as an apt characterization of the whole tribe of commentators.

The next editor, Warton (1797), gave as his reason for undertaking the work "the universal complaint that Dr. Warburton had disfigured and disgraced his edition with many forced and far-sought interpretations, totally unsupported by the passages which they were brought to elucidate." He was the first of Pope's hostile editors, and although he ranked him "next to Milton and just above Dryden" (a judgment the reverse of Johnson's), he labored, in his "essay" (which Mr. Lowell calls "the earliest public and official declaration of war against the reigning mode") to demonstrate that the largest portion of Pope's works is "not of the most poetic species of poetry." This not very happy remark Mr. Courthope calls a remarkable fallacy which "has been adopted by all enemies of Pope from that day to this, and is, indeed, the source of most of the confusion of thought which has obscured the controversies respecting his poetical merits."

Of all the enemies of Pope, perhaps the most dangerous was his next editor, the Rev. William Lisle Bowles (1806), who was a school-boy at Winchester when Warton was head-master, and who, as an outspoken champion of romanticism, had no more call to edit Pope than a Roman Catholic has to write a biography of Luther. The ground taken by him was controverted by Campbell, who thus brought on a famous controversy which raged from 1819 to 1826, and in the course of which Byron, in his championship of the classical school, which his own writings did so much to supersede, went so far as to maintain that Pope's works were better worth preserving than those of Shakspere and Milton.

By a natural reaction, the next edition of Pope (1824) was undertaken by a warm partisan, William Roscoe, author of the Lives of Lorenzo de' Medici and Leo X. He was not, however, specially qualified for the task, and Mr. Croker considered his edition the worst of all. It is curious to note that each succeeding editor, commentator, biographer, and critic of Pope has a very poor opinion of his predecessors.

We have at last come back to the present edition of Pope, which was begun by a detractor of the poet, but, fortunately, brought to a conclusion by a discriminating admirer. Mr. Leslie Stephen, who has himself indulged in some pretty severe remarks on Pope's character and writings, devotes an entertaining essay to defending him against the damaging strictures of Mr. Elwin. While he admits, what no one can deny, that Mr. Elwin's book must be the storehouse from which all future writers on Pope shall draw their materials, he goes on to say that

"The main outcome of his ponderous volumes, so far as they have gone [in 1871], seems to be a demonstration that they were not worth writing. Mr. Elwin has spent years in cleaning and resetting one of our national jewels, and the result of his labors is that it is nothing but a bit of colored glass. . . . Mr. Elwin, though anything but a dunce, makes himself the mouthpiece of the dunces. . . . Mr. Elwin is an amateur detective, and, with the help of the late Mr. Dilke's discoveries, discharges the function of a whole private-inquiry office; . . . he passes his microscope slowly and almost gloatingly over every unhealthy symptom revealed in his elaborate dissection; he collects all the hostile criticisms that have ever been put forward, endorses them all, and piles them as a monument over his victim's mangled remains."

After making due allowance for any exaggeration into which the cleverness of the essayist may have carried him, enough sober truth remains to show that Mr. Elwin did not come to his task with the proper bias; and we venture to repeat that it was fortunate that he made way for Mr. Courthope, of whom it may almost be said that he is the ideal editor. The latter was placed in a delicate position by having to continue the work of an editor whose point of view was radically different from his own, and from many of whose criticisms he entirely dissented; and he has extricated himself from his difficulties with great skill. We thus have the curious spectacle, not often found in one and the same work, of opinions advanced in the earlier volumes and controverted in the later ones. An amusing illustration is that Mr. Courthope deems it necessary to defend Pope against Mr. Stephen, who, as we have just seen, set himself up as a champion of Pope against Mr. Elwin, Courthope's associate. Mr. Courthope thinks that Mr. Stephen has little sympathy with Pope, and is the natural successor of Warton and Bowles; further, that

"He surveys the literature of the eighteenth century from the position of superiority which critics of the nineteenth century have long imagined themselves entitled to occupy; and he judges the poetry of Pope as a decided ad-

vocate of the Lake school, to which the former is in spirit so essentially opposed."

The present edition of Pope owes its exceptional value in great part to the discoveries made in 1853 by Mr. Charles Wentworth Dilke, and published by him in the *Athenæum* and *Notes and Queries*, between 1854 and 1860. These papers, reprinted in 1875 by his grandson, the present Sir Charles W. Dilke, in a volume entitled 'Papers of a Critic,' first made positively known the remarkable system of trickery and deception pursued by Pope in his endeavors to get his correspondence before the public in anything but a genuine shape. The chapter in Pope's Life which was thus revealed is the reverse of edifying; and while his biographers are perhaps not at liberty to pass it over in charitable silence, the general reader may ignore it, adopting as his own the sentiment of Mr. Courthope, that "the world is, after all, more concerned with Pope's performances as a poet, as a satirist, and as one of the chief architects of our language, than with his character as a man."

Aside from Mr. Dilke's investigations, the present edition has had the benefit of many hundred letters never before printed, and of some newly discovered MSS. of Pope's works; it is provided with notes clearing up many allusions that were obscure even to writers as near to Pope's own time as Johnson; and Mr. Courthope's 'Life' not only replaces all former biographies, but will make any future one superfluous.

Die Ueberlieferung: ihre Entstehung und Entwickelung. Von Ernst von Bunsen. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 2 vols.

THE author of this book on the development of traditions is already known as a bold thinker and a diligent writer, but particularly as an ingenious chronologist. His former work, the 'Chronology of the Bible,' contained very much to startle us, especially the synchronism of the birth of Shem and the capture of Babylon by the Medes in 2458 B. C. With respect to another work, the 'Angel Messias,' its fault is the obscurity of the argument, and in some parts, as we think, its hasty conclusions. There is a more sober tone and a better arranged method observable in the present book. The author begins with the much contested subject of the location of Eden; his conclusion is that it was situated on the Pamir plateau near the origin of the four rivers, Indus, Oxus, Jaxartes, and Tarim. This last river, however, is rather an unimportant and uncertain one, disappearing in the sandy region near Lake Lob, and would hardly be catalogued with the great rivers of the earth.

The serpent in Paradise he explains as referring to a member of a non-Aryan, black-skinned race, who accomplished the fall, physically, of the pure Aryan family, dwelling in the region of the four rivers. It is contrary to all Biblical tradition, however, to suppose that Adam (the black-headed) was himself the tempter of Eve. It requires more than a passage in a cuneiform inscription to render such an inference at all tolerable. The tree of life and of knowledge of good and evil is supposed to refer to the maternity of Eve, as she was, in a sense, the spring of spiritual knowledge or skill (*Kraft*) in men, and from this sprang the knowledge of good and evil, right and wrong.

Bunsen next proceeds to investigate the wanderings (migrations) of the early races of mankind. He supposes that the records found in the fourth and fifth chapters of Genesis refer to a high-caste and a low-caste race, *i. e.*, Sethites and Adamites. These races were intermingled in the land of Mesopotamia, and finally were conquered and driven out of Babylon by the Japhetic Medes, and from this fresh intermixture sprang the Shemites.

It is impossible here to follow the successive conclusions arrived at in each chapter of this remarkable book. The author refers to the earliest knowledge of astronomy and astrology possessed by mankind; the legends of the flood; the Cherubim and Seraphim; the source of the Bible, as it embodies a distinct series of traditions, and so on.

The most curious conclusion arrived at in the fifteenth chapter of the first volume is that the Septuagint date for the building of Solomon's Temple, in the fourth year of his reign, viz., 477 B. C., is derived from the year of Buddha's death. The author arrives at this extraordinary synchronism in the following way: The time of the Septuagint translation was also the period of Asoka's reign in India, viz., about 280 B. C. We know that Asoka had relations with Ptolemy Philadelphus (from Tablet XIII of Asoka's Edicts), and it is not unlikely to suppose that envoys were sent from India to Alexandria, to carry out negotiations connected with the points of agreement alluded to in the Edict. The spirit of inquiry abroad at this time, and the collection of the Great Library, would lead to explanations regarding India, and especially relating to the great building-epoch inaugurated by Asoka. This would connect itself with the Buddhist date of the Nirvana. This date, being 477 B. C., would, through the association of Asoka's building enterprises, connect itself with Solomon, the great builder of the Jewish Temple. Accordingly the two dates were identified, and so, following the LXX, the fourth year of Solomon's reign falls precisely in this very year of Buddha's death, viz., 477 B. C. This argument is ingenious, and, if established, would be valuable as proving the connection of the Alexandrian school of writers with the religious schools of India. But at present it is a pure hypothesis of no scientific value whatever.

The author's remarks upon the Essenes are original, as in fact the whole of the book is. We leave it in the hands of judicious readers.

Electrical Influence Machines. By John Gray, B.Sc. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1890. 12mo.

Electric Bells, and All About Them. By S. R. Bottone. New York: Excelsior Publishing House. 12mo.

Electricity in Modern Life. By G. W. de Tunzelmann. Scribner & Welford. 12mo. 1890.

THE author of 'Electrical Influence Machines' has attempted to bring together all that is known about "influence" machines which may be regarded as of interest or value. In Part I. we have in three successive chapters a general sketch of the phenomena of static electricity, a working hypothesis of the electric field, and an account of the different electrometers, including all the best forms. Part II. opens with a very complete history of the gradual development of machines of this kind from the electrophorus of Volta. The different forms of influence machines are then described, with sufficient detail, while the third part contains notes on practical construction. The book is likely to be useful to teachers as well as to students.

'Electric Bells' hardly requires special notice. It belongs to the class of artisans' manuals, and as such contains a good deal of matter of practical value.

Tunzelmann's work is intended to give a popular account of the various applications of electricity in modern life. The author has been fairly successful in treating a difficult subject in such a way as to make it intelligible to readers who have had little or no scientific training. The historical part of the work is tolerably complete, perhaps sufficiently so for ordinary purposes. Very scant justice is done to Morse and his system, and far too much space is devoted to the instruments of Wheatstone, which have, we believe, never been used out of Great Britain, and which have now a strangely antiquated look. On the other hand, a great many very interesting subjects are treated, and on the whole in a creditable manner. While we cannot speak with enthusiasm of the book, we believe that it will be found on the whole both interesting and useful.

Mémoires et Souvenirs du Baron Hyde de Neuville. Paris: Plon. Volume I. 1888 (La Révolution — Le Consulat — L'Empire). Volume II. 1890 (La Restauration—Les Cent Jours—Louis XVIII.).

A HIGH and dry legitimist, M. Hyde de Neuville, with his English name and descent and his French sympathies, was not the man to leave behind him personal recollections of much interest. To Americans, however, he is of some value, for he came here as a refugee in 1807, and only departed in June, 1814, after fifteen years of proscription, to learn on his way out the welcome news of the return of the Bourbons to France. His journeys through the United States took him as far west as Niagara, and at one time he thought of becoming a farmer in western New York, but his friends in the city, the Crugers, the Wilkeses, the Churches, and especially the warm friendship he formed with Gen. Moreau, then living near Trenton, kept him in the city. Here too he established an "Economical School," especially for the children of the numerous French refugees in New York, and Dewitt Clinton formally thanked him for his good work.

He came back twice to the United States—in 1816 as French Minister, when he was heartily welcomed by his old friends, as well as by the authorities in Washington. His sympathies were all for his exiled fellow-countrymen, and he took particular pains to show acts of kindness to Joseph Bonaparte, to Grouchy, to Clausel, and to Lefebvre-Desnouettes. Dupont de Nemours was particularly active in enlisting his help. Moreau, largely influenced by Hyde de Neuville, had returned to Europe, and met his death fighting with the allies against France. Lefebvre-Desnouettes was one of a large party of exiles who were full of zeal for a French settlement on the lower Mississippi, near New Orleans, and afterwards tried to foment a feud between Spain and the United States on the question of Florida. The projects for helping Napoleon to escape from St. Helena, and for active participation in the budding revolutions in South America, kept the French Minister in a lively state of excitement, but most of all he prided himself on securing for the Bourbons two such sturdy supporters as Grouchy and Clausel, who returned to France in 1820, and afterwards took a leading part in the successive Governments. Lakanal was supposed to be trying to revive Burr's conspiracy, in the hope of establishing a new empire for Joseph Bonaparte in the Southwest, and Gen. Jackson settled the question of the numerous claimants of Florida by his violent invasion of Spanish territory, leading ultimately to the sale of Florida to the United States. Hyde de Neuville

took an active part in the negotiations which brought peace to all the parties in interest.

He came a third time to the United States in 1821, to negotiate a treaty of commerce, and then returned finally to France, where he took a respectable place in the Government, always manifesting a lively interest in the United States and his friends there, and comparing his recollections of travel in America with Chateaubriand and the other men of his party. The two volumes of his memoirs close with the end of his American experiences, and it is hardly likely that those which are to tell the story of his later life will add much to the chapter of the French exiles. It is to be hoped that some one will eventually gather together all the printed and any unprinted material in reference to the French men and women who found refuge in the United States during the storm and stress of the revolutions in France and its colonies.

The Theory of Determinants in the Historical Order of Its Development. Part I. Determinants in General: Leibnitz (1693) to Cayley (1841). By Thomas Muir, M.A., LL.D., F.R.S.E. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

THE only history of much interest is that of the human mind. Tales of great achievements are interesting, but belong to biography (which still remains in a prescientific stage) and do not make history, because they tell little of the general development of man and his creations. The history of mathematics, although it relates only to a narrow department of the soul's activity, has some particularly attractive features. In the first place, the different steps are perfectly definite; neither writer nor reader need be in the least uncertain as to what are the things that have to be set forth and explained. Then, the record is, as compared with that of practical matters, nearly perfect. Some writings of the ancients are lost, some early matters of arithmetic and geometry lie hidden in the mists of time, but almost everything of any consequence to the modern development is in print. Besides, this history is a chronicle of uninterrupted success, a steady succession of triumphs of intelligence over primitive stupidity, little marred by passionate or brutal opposition.

Dr. Muir, already well known by many investigations into determinants and continued fractions, and by a charming little 'Introduction to Determinants,' has thoroughly studied the history of this subject, and has arranged his account of it with remarkable clearness. Each writer's results are stated in his own language, followed by a luminous commentary. An ingenious table shows the history of forty-four theorems, and at the same time serves as an index to the first half of this volume, which, it is to be presumed, is one-half of the first part, and not more than one-fourth of the whole work.

Perhaps Dr. Muir attaches a little too much importance to theorems, as contradistinguished from methods and ideas. Thus, he speaks rather unfavorably of Bezout's work (1779), although it contains the idea of polar multiplication; but because this is not made a theorem, Dr. Muir hardly notices it. The first paper analyzed in the book is by Leibnitz, and contains the umbral notation, which is the quintessential idea of the theories of determinants as well as that of matrices, to which the theory of determinants is but an appendage.

We have already mentioned that the last number of the *American Journal of Mathematics* contains an admirable memoir upon matrices by Dr. Henry Taber of Clark University.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brewer, Prof. W. H. Warren's New Physical Geography. Philadelphia: Cowperthwaite & Co.
Collier, W. F., and Willis, O. R. The Great Events of History. Chas. E. Merrill & Co.
Crowes, F. J. Musical Groundwork. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Day, D. T. Mineral Resources of the United States. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Essays of Montaigne, Translated by John Florio. Edited by Justin Huntly McCarthy. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Fitzgerald, E. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám, the Astronomer-Poet of Persia. Rendered into English Verse. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Freeman, A. C. The American State Reports. Vol. XIII. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Gordon, J. A Diplomat's Diary. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Hazen, Prof. H. A. The Tornado. New York: N. D. C. Hodges.
Hervieu, P. Flirt. Worthington Co.
Kroman, Dr. K. Logik und Psychologie. Leipzig: O. R. Reisland.
Lamborn, R. H. Dragon Flies vs. Mosquitoes. D. Appleton & Co.
Lathrop, Clarissa C. A Secret Institution. Bryant Pub. Co. 50 cents.
Litchfield, Mary E. The Nine Worlds. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Masson, Prof. D. The Poetical Works of John Milton. 3 vols. Macmillan & Co. $15.
Morrison, W. D. The Jews under Roman Rule. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Porter, L. H. Cycling for Health and Pleasure. Boston: Wheelman Co. 50 cents.
Poste, E. Gaii Institutionum Juris Civilis Commentarii Quatuor. 3d ed., revised. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Poulton, E. B. The Colours of Animals. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Russell, C. H. Translations into Greek and Latin Verse. London: Percival & Co.
Schonberg Maiot, A Mother. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Shipley, Mrs. John B. The Icelandic Discoverers of America. John B. Alden.
Shriver, E. J. Want and Wealth. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Smitten and Slain. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $1.
Stead, W. T. The Passion Play as it is Played To-day. Charles E. Merrill & Co. 75 cents.
Stedman, E. C., and Hutchinson, Ellen Mackay. A Library of American Literature. Vol. XI. and last. Chas. L. Webster & Co. $3 per vol.
Stredder, Eleanor. Jack and his Ostrich. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 60 cents.
Taylor, A. McA. Jean Grant. A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
The Falls of Niagara. Matthews, Northrup & Co.
The International Annual of Anthony's Photographic Bulletin. E. & H. F. Anthony.
The Preachers: A Novel. The Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Tischendorf, C. Novum Testamentum Graece. Editio octava. Vol. III, pars altera. Prolegomena. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; New York: Westermann.
Townsend, M. U. S.: An Index to the United States of America, Historical, Geographical, and Political. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Toxar: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Transactions of the National Association for the Advancement of Art and its Application to Industry: Edinburgh Meeting. London.
Uz, J. P. Sämtliche Poetische Werke. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen.
Vizetelly, H. Count Königsmark and "Tom of Ten Thousand." Scribner & Welford. 50 cents.
Vuibert, H. Annuaire de la Jeunesse pour l'Année 1890. Paris: Nony & Cie.
Walker, F. Practical Dynamo-Building for Amateurs. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Westall, W., and Stepniak, S. The Blind Musician. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Willis, W. G., and Greene, Mrs. Whose Hand? Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Wodehouse, Mrs. E. R. Index to the Four Volumes of Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.

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Late Educational Works:

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Used in Johns Hopkins University, Universities of Va. and S. C., Lake Forest University, University of Toronto, etc. Prof. Schurman of Cornell University says: "In my opinion, Baldwin's Psychology is the best book of its size in the language." The *Nation* concluded its review thus: "Taken as a whole it is about the best we know."

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I. By the Mexican Minister, M. ROMERO.

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By the Clerk of the House of Commons, REGINALD F. D. PALGRAVE, C. B.

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Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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A HOME AND SCHOOL.—J. H. Sperry, A.M., Asst. Prin. Morgan School, which fits thoroughly for College or business, receives four boys into his family. Personal Circular and School Catalogue on application.

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THE MISSES VINTON'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen Tuesday, October 7. Number limited.

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Schools.

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*DRISLER SCHOOL REOPENS MON-*day, September 29.

Circulars containing full information on application.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 4, 1890.

The Week.

THE amendment of the Tariff Bill reported by the Senate Finance Committee, authorizing the President, at his sole judgment and discretion, to impose duties on imports amounting in the aggregate to upwards of fifty millions of dollars, is one of the most extraordinary proposals of modern times. The terms of the amendment are that raw sugar shall for the present be admitted free of duty—the duties on refined, levied for the protection of the Trust, being left at three-tenths and six-tenths of a cent per pound according to quality—but that "on and after the first day of July, 1891, whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied that the Government of any country producing and exporting sugars, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, raw and uncured, or any of such articles, imposes duties or other exactions upon the agricultural or other products of the United States, which, in view of the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides into the United States, he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unjust, he shall have the power, and it shall be his duty, to suspend by proclamation to that effect the provisions of this act relating to the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, the production of such country, for such time as he shall deem just." Whenever the President shall be of the opinion aforesaid, and shall issue his proclamation as aforesaid, the duties on raw sugar shall be one-half of the present rate, with three-eighths and five-eighths of a cent per pound additional as protection for the Sugar Trust, and on molasses 4 cents per gallon, the duties on coffee shall be 3 cents per pound, on tea 10 cents per pound, and on hides and skins 1½ cents per pound.

Now, what will happen when the duties are clapped on by proclamation? The first thing that will happen will be a tremendous speculation in the necessaries of life. Every holder of sugar in the United States will pocket a cent a pound on his stock, every holder of coffee three cents, of tea ten cents, of hides and skins one-and-a-half cent. Of course some persons will know what is going to happen sooner than others. One of the first men to know it would be Mr. Blaine. If we assume that *he* would scorn to take advantage of such precious knowledge, there are a lot of thrifty politicians clinging to his skirts who are noted for the practice of "casting anchors to windward." It is safe to say that they would be carrying large stocks of tea, coffee, and sugar in such a crisis. At all events, somebody would be carrying them. A more prolific source of corruption has seldom been devised. But that is not the worst feature of the scheme. Far worse is the abdication by Congress of the taxing power which the amendment proposes, and the lodging of it in the hands of the Executive. The Anglo-Saxon race has hitherto been most noted for its zealous watch and ward over the power to go into the pockets of the people. Over this question it has fought through bloody revolutions, cutting off the head of Charles I. in the mother country and casting off the authority of George III. in this—the one for raising ship-money, the other for taxing tea. Are we now travelling backwards? We do not say that liberty is in danger, but we do say that this is a most dangerous precedent, and that Congress ought never to abdicate, or put in commission, the power either to raise ship-money or to tax tea.

For light summer reading we know of nothing in the market just now which can compare with the articles on which the *Tribune* is working itself into a support of Mr. Blaine's new view of foreign trade. There is one nearly every day, and each is in some respect racier than the last, and adds in some degree to the gayety of nations. Tastes, of course, will differ, but the one we prefer for our own perusal is that of Monday, which showed that Blaine, since he denounced foreign trade in 1888, had made "an advance and not a retreat" in now advocating an extension of foreign trade. "His mendacious opponents," or other "unthinking and ignorant" persons, are properly chastised for not knowing that a freer exchange of home for foreign commodities means simply "an extension and broadening of the protective policy," and much more of the same sort—as delightful funning as we ever read. These poor dunderheads, however, are furnished with some excuse by the fact that "Secretary Blaine completely entrapped his political opponents into public approval of his course before they discovered that it was in harmony with Republican policy." We do not think that, under these circumstances, his more stupid supporters can be blamed for not seeing at a glance what the great man was up to. Give them all time, you wicked wag, and they will eventually see through the whole thing. Everybody is not as clever and perspicacious as you.

The lecture which Mr. Whitelaw Reid administers to M. Ribot, touching the French policy towards American pork, is so much in the style of a slashing *Tribune* "editorial," and so little in the style of a diplomatic despatch, that it has doubtless caused a good deal of merriment in the French Foreign Office. But the style is a small matter. The argument is everything, and on one point—the discrimination against American pork exclusively—Mr. Reid apparently has the best of it; but, like his friend and model, Mr. Blaine, he ignores the fact that the United States are the principal pork-exporters of the world, and that the supplies of hog which France gets from other countries are comparatively insignificant. In pork America occupies very much the position towards other countries that England does in coal. Moreover, there is no doctrine so firmly rooted in the mind of that portion of the American public which gets its morals and political economy from the *Tribune*, as that the man who tries to import any protected article is, to the extent of his ability, an enemy of the country into which he tries to import it. New York importers are all treated as such by Congress, the Government, the Custom-house, and the *Tribune*. That the tariff allows them to import at all is a simple concession to the weakness of human nature, and meant to prevent smuggling. All foreign trade being, therefore, strictly speaking, illegitimate, there is nothing to which we can take just objection in the conduct of France in selecting one branch of it with a particular country for total suppression. It has simply prohibited that part of a harmful thing which does most harm, as a piece of domestic policy, to which Mr. Reid has no more right to object than to restrictions on the internal liquor traffic.

One portion of Mr. Reid's despatch deserves special quotation for its unconscious humor and for the way it knocks the pins from under the rest of it. After assuring M. Ribot that the Customs Administrative Bill had been so modified as to allow an appeal to the courts from the decisions of the Custom-house authorities, he says:

> "I deeply regret that that prompt response from the United States has met with no reciprocal act or recognition on the part of the French Government; and that another friendly act—the total removal of the 30 per cent. duty on works of art by the House of Representatives—passed alike unnoticed, until the Senate Committee, seeing no encouragement for steps in this direction, restored the duty."

We doubt if ever before in the history of diplomacy the willingness of a great civilized Power to allow foreigners access to its courts on questions of property was designated a "friendly act" calling for a *quid pro quo*. Such propositions are usually made by African or Asiatic potentates, who say to strangers: "I might cut your head off by executive order, but I am going to allow you a trial, and yet I have not had a word of thanks from you yet, you mutton-head." Mr. Reid's use of the duty on works of art is equally droll. Only barbarous Powers have ever before us imposed duties on foreign works of art. All civilized nations except ourselves treat them as desirable things, to be obtained without let or hindrance by every means in their power—even by purchase, in some cases, by the public treasury. Mr. Reid, however, calmly confesses to a foreign Minister that we have no appreciation of such things ourselves; that, far from admitting them free on our own account, we are only willing to admit them in order to get him to "let up" on our pork, and that, seeing he had no bowels for pork, our Senate has restored the duty. Our effort to bar-

gain for pork with pictures is, in truth, one of the most laughable as well as disagreeable incidents in the economical history of the Republican party, and Mr. Reid's apparent unconsciousness of the way it strikes the foreigner with whom he is arguing is extremely interesting. We wish M. Ribot, for the fun of the thing, would give Mr. Reid a lecture. The materials are abundant, and M. Ribot is a master both of style and logic.

If Minister Reid, in any further discussion of the pork question with M. Ribot, finds a scarcity of material, we refer him to the speech made a few days ago by Mr. McKinley, who gives a name to this year's tariff legislation, before the Convention which renominated him. Defending the Tariff Bill now before Congress, he said:

> "The public meetings which have been held in England, and the exhibitions of temper which have been witnessed in some of its great manufacturing centres and in the parliamentary bodies of other nations, protesting against our proposed Tariff Bill, must have convinced the most ignorant or incredulous that our foreign rivals regard the bill not in the interests of Europe, but in the interests of America. They see nothing in it but a diminution of their American trade and a corresponding gain to our own producers. Of course it does not please other nations, it was not framed after that fashion. The Mills bill did. That is the precise difference. It was not made to please other nations."

There seems to be no use of an American Minister trying to explain away any interpretation of this bill as hostile to the interests of other countries after this plain interpretation of it by its chief sponsor. Mr. Blaine has declared that "there is not a section or line in the entire bill that will open the market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork." There are a good many sections, however, that may close the markets of the world to a good many bushels and pounds of our farm products.

Senator Davis of Minnesota made a speech on the Tariff Bill last week, which was almost as unorthodox from a Republican point of view as any that Senator Plumb has made. Indeed, he followed very closely in the footsteps of Senator Carlisle, who has made a masterly exposure of the tricks of protected cutlery-manufacturers and the sophisms of their Republican defenders. Mr. Carlisle proved conclusively that at least two cutlery-manufacturing firms which had been before the Committee on Ways and Means demanding an increase of duty, on the ground that if it were not granted they would have to go out of business, were in the habit of selling their goods for export at much lower prices than they were selling them in the home market. The only effect of the duty was to enable the manufacturers to make Americans pay a higher price than foreigners for precisely the same goods. Mr. Davis took up the twine item in the Tariff Bill, and showed that its proposed duty of 1¾ cents per pound had been put into the bill in accordance with entirely false statements by twine-manufacturers to the Ways and Means Committee.

Coming from a Republican Senator in good party standing, Mr. Davis's argument in opposition to the twine duty is most instructive. He said that twine should go on the free list out of simple justice to the farmers of the country, and especially of his own State, since it affected the latter alone to the amount of nearly a million dollars a year. The entire business of manufacturing twine, he said, including the sources from which that commodity was supplied, was governed by a combination of all (or substantially all) the manufacturers of cordage and binding twine. That combination controlled absolutely the raw material (sisal, jute, etc.) in the places where it was grown, and also limited the product of the manufactured article and fixed its price. That combination consisted of forty-two manufacturing companies in the United States and seven or nine in Canada. These companies were banded together by the cohesive force of a common interest. They were superior to all law. In the Philippine Islands they limited and controlled the price of one-half of the raw material, and in Yucatan they controlled the other half. They had one man in New York to purchase for them all, and a committee of three to limit the output and to fix the price. They were as far above legislative control as the clouds that floated above the Capitol. They were in no need of protection. They were amply able to protect themselves and to spoliate the world. And yet they came to Congress and said that they would shut up their mills and cease production unless they received the additional protection of 1¾ cents per pound. They were amenable to the law against Trusts. He showed that their profits were 40 per cent. on an aggregate annual output of $10,000,000, or $4,000,000 a year; that the evil had become so unbearable in Minnesota that the State authorities were about to set up machinery in the State prison for the manufacture of binding-twine from flax fibre grown in the State.

The Republican Convention in the Fifth Congressional District of Kansas last week adopted a platform which contains one plank that is of interest all over the country. It is in these words: "That we cordially approve the stand taken by Senator Plumb on financial and economic questions during the present session of Congress, which shows his deep interest in the welfare of all the people of the State, and especially his hearty sympathy with its farmers and laboring men." Senator Plumb is not a candidate for reëlection, and it is most extraordinary for a party convention thus to single out one of the Senators for special commendation. The adoption of such an endorsement under such circumstances shows how strong is the opposition to the high-tariff craze, among the Republicans of the strongest Republican State in the West. Even more significant and important was the special resolution of instructions to the candidate nominated by the Convention. "Resolved," it reads, "that we congratulate our Senators and members of Congress upon their bold and patriotic stand upon financial and business questions of especial importance to the West, *and we bid our nominee enter the hall's of Congress untrammelled by any dictate not founded on the original principles of the party, and that he exercise his best judgment on such questions for the benefit of the people.*" This is the second Republican Congressional convention in Kansas within a month to issue such a mandate to its nominee. The Seventh District Republicans by resolution absolved their representative "from dictation of the party caucus upon all economic issues," and "*bid him enter the halls of Congress a free man,* to battle for the material and business interests as well as the moral and political welfare of this great State."

Another Republican State convention has met in a Western State, and refused to say a word in favor of the passage of the Force Bill. This time it was the Republicans of Michigan who adopted a platform which is noteworthy for its entire silence regarding the Lodge Bill. The Republican Senators from Michigan are among those who have successfully opposed the passage of the measure at this session, and the action of the convention of their party on Thursday last shows that there is no disposition to rebuke them for their course. This action is the more important because a bloody-shirt orator who was the temporary presiding officer, had asked the Convention to demand of the Senate the passage of the pending bill, "by a voice so loud and so distinct that there could be no misunderstanding."

The proceedings in the House on Wednesday week sustain the claim that the House is not a deliberative body. A more discreditable spectacle has not been seen in either branch of Congress. The Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, Mr. Cannon of Illinois, one of the oldest members and most prominent Republicans, assailed a Democratic Representative in language so foul that even the most subservient of Republican organs is forced to substitute stars for the words which he used. A Republican colleague from Illinois, Mr. Mason, became so incensed at Mr. Cannon's conduct that he denounced him as "a —— lying old tramp." Mr. Mason's characterization of Mr. Cannon was heartily endorsed by Mr. Beckwith, a Republican member from New Jersey, and when Mr. Wilson, Republican Representative of the State of Washington, dissented from this view, the two called each other liars and proceeded to blows. The services of the Sergeant-at-Arms were required before the exchange of epithets and blows could be stopped and order restored. It will be observed that all of the participants in these disgraceful scenes were Republicans, and that the rows occurred while the Republican Speaker was himself in the chair. The Democrats, therefore, have no responsibility in the matter, and no question of partisanship can be raised. These new legislative methods are exclusively those of the Republican majority, and there can be no division of praise or blame for them between the two parties.

When the scheme of admitting Idaho as a State was brought forward in Congress last winter, its opponents urged that the Territory had not nearly the number of inhabitants requisite to entitle it to a member of Congress under the existing apportionment, and that no Territory ought to become a State until its population had reached at least that limit. The advocates of admission were voluble and emphatic in their claims as to the great gain in population during the last few years, but they had no accurate information to present. It was pointed out that a census was to be taken this summer which would clear up all doubts in the matter, and it was urged that the scheme should at least wait until after this count had been made. But the admissionists would not consent to any delay, apparently fearing that the census would be fatal to their claims. Such has proved to be the case, for the Census Office shows by official figures that Idaho has only 84,229 people, and several thousands of these are Indians and Chinese.

The ratio of representation in the House upon the basis of the 1880 census was one to every 151,912 people, and unless the size of the body is to be unduly enlarged, the figures should now rise to one for every 175,000 or 180,000. Even if the existing system be maintained, Idaho has only a trifle more than half the number of people required to entitle her to a member of the House of Representatives, yet she is to have one member of the House, two members of the Senate, and three members of the Electoral College. It is a wrong to the older and larger States of the Union that a small body of men in a new community should be given such grossly disproportional power in the government of the nation. The only consolation is that this discreditable chapter in the history of the country is nearly finished, as there are but few Territories yet awaiting the time when considerations of partisan advantage shall convert them, fit or unfit, into full-fledged States.

That was an extraordinary illustration of the spoils system which was described by a Washington correspondent last week. A letter-carrier in a Western city, with an excellent record, was requested to resign his place, which he naturally refused to do. The Republican Congressman who had sought to get rid of the carrier, because he was a Democrat and the place was wanted for a Republican "worker," then induced the Post-office Department to issue an order for his removal. But the carrier would not give up the fight, and he sent to Washington letters of remonstrance from many of the leading citizens on his route, who declared him well-qualified, efficient, and faithful. The Congressman then made the plea that he wanted the place for a veteran of the civil war, whereupon the carrier produced a petition for his retention signed by 600 old soldiers whose mail he had been carrying for years. Nevertheless, the order for his removal was not revoked, and the papers for the appointment of his successor had been made out when his wife appeared in Washington in his behalf. "She visited the Department, learned the exact state of things in regard to her husband, and at last accounts was chasing the obdurate member of Congress around the city, resolved to convert him with the testimonials she carried with her." The Congressman has already spent probably a hundred dollars' worth of the time which the Government pays him for devoting to the public interests in this disgusting squabble over a petty office, which pays the incumbent only about $2.50 a day, and the end is not yet!

Powderly appears to have entered upon a general war of extermination. He has announced his purpose of fighting to the death with the entire railway system of the United States, beginning with the Vanderbilt roads, and working along gradually to all others. He has also declared war upon the Brotherhood of Railway Engineers, and has called that organization's chief officer, Mr. Arthur, all the hard names that he had on hand after he had finished denouncing Vice-President Webb. He has also expressed a very poor opinion of other labor organizations which failed to come to the aid of the Central strikers, and, as a final stroke of denunciation, has assailed the State Board of Arbitration for being "on horseback in the Adirondacks looking for fish," instead of remaining here and compelling the Central Railway to submit at once to an investigation of the strike, which, according to Powderly, is still so firmly "on" that the road is "effectively tied up." The wisdom of taking all this work upon his shoulders at a time when he has met with the most complete failure of his career, is somewhat questionable, but it is his usual way of showing his "power." Next to his assault upon Mr. Arthur, his denunciation of the Board of Arbitration is the most impolitic thing he has done. Under the law, the Board has discretionary power about conducting such an investigation, and its practice has been to take plenty of time.

One of the oddest contributions to the really large body of literature called forth by the "servant-girl question" is the proposal of Mrs. Francis Darwin, in an English magazine, that the servant-girl, when applying for a situation, should have the same right to ask for references from the mistress that the mistress has to ask them from the servant. For the purpose of meeting this legitimate demand, she suggests that each mistress should name two referees among her former servants who have lived with her within a year. This assumes a judicial mindedness and power of expression on the part of servant-girls which they hardly ever possess, and it assumes, also, that the servant-girls do not already act as references about mistresses for each other. The truth is, that nearly every employer's character, as an employer, is pretty well known to all the servant-girls in the neighborhood. They describe the ways of the people they live with to one another at their Sunday evening conventicles with a minuteness and prolixity which leave nothing to be desired in the way of information about temper, habits, kind and amount of work. It would be a waste of labor for any housekeeper to appoint standing referees, because their judgment would either be superfluous or ineffective, and would, besides this, be highly colored by the reasons of the referee for leaving or staying in the house.

Both parties in Spain are making every exertion to be in readiness for the approaching general election. Sagasta has followed up his somewhat guarded speech to the members of his retiring Cabinet with a more pronounced and positive address to the Liberal committees of Madrid. Universal suffrage, fairly put into operation and carried out to its logical results in the politics of the country, is evidently to be the main plank in the Liberal platform, minor stress being laid on the policy of low tariffs and international reciprocity, trial by jury and military reforms. The Conservatives, on the other hand, squarely declare for high protection, while professing to accept in good faith the new Suffrage Law. Their opponents allege that they are already making an arbitrary use of their power over municipal and university organizations so as unfairly to overcome Liberal majorities. The position of the newly organized Republican party is a curious one. It naturally seeks some sort of an alliance with the Liberals, yet Sagasta can scarcely strike up any open partnership with it, since the Government has served notice on him that if he does come to an understanding with the declared enemies of the monarchy, it will not hesitate to use force to defeat the Liberals. Sagasta replied that he had no intention of doing anything of the kind, unless it should appear that an attempt was being made to block the execution of the Suffrage Law; in such case he would resort to any means to overcome the Conservatives. Thus the little band of Republicans serves as a threat to each of the great parties. A great sensation has been caused by the language used by Cánovas in an interview with a correspondent of the *Temps*. He said that in Spain the Government always obtained a majority in the elections, and was able to put its measures through the Cortes. It was the royal prerogative, and not the will of the people, that determined a change of administration. Since the reign of Alfonso XII. it had been a settled principle to let the Conservatives and Liberals alternate in power every three or four years; and all the agitations of an electoral campaign amount to nothing beside the choice of the sovereign. These somewhat cynical remarks undoubtedly have a large degree of truth in them; but they discover such contempt for the constitutional limitations of the monarchy that they are justly regarded as the utterance of a reactionary, and probably will prove a serious political blunder.

MR. BLAINE'S NEW DEPARTURE.

We do not think Mr. James G. Blaine has in twenty-eight years of oratory and letter-writing ever made so remarkable a speech as that which he delivered on Friday at Waterville, Me. The personal bearings of it were very curious. It appears that it is to be his one speech of the Maine canvass. He opened by dwelling on the great importance of the approaching State election. He said it "involves in great part the political issues now under discussion in the national field"—meaning, of course, the McKinley Bill and the Force Bill—and that "the decision of Maine would have its due influence on other States, and that decision will be pronounced in the decisions we shall give in our four Congressional districts." He mentioned the name of the candidate in one of these districts, Mr. Milliken, but not one word did he say or allusion did he make to the candidates in the other districts—one of whom is Mr. Thomas B. Reed, the present Speaker and autocrat of the House of Representatives, and we presume we may say the author of the Force Bill and the chief pusher or promoter of the McKinley Bill. This public revelation of his hostility to Reed, and of his indifference to the two great Republican measures of the day, shows how completely alienated he is from the present party managers, and how determined he is to follow a line of his own.

His programme with regard to the tariff was even more interesting than his dismissal of Reed and the Force Bill. For years—that is, ever since 1884 at least—the tariff-reformers have been saying that the great cause of our financial and industrial troubles was that our products had outgrown the home markets; that we must have foreign outlets for them, and that in order to do this we must lower our prices by cheapening production, there being no other way known to traders of attracting buyers in open competition but comparative cheapness. In Mr. Blaine's famous despatch from Paris, he utterly repudiated this idea. He said: "We could not export staple fabrics to Europe unless we could make them cheaper than in Europe," and that we could not make them cheaper without making labor cheaper — something we should not try to do. He said that any channel such as President Cleveland recommended for an increase of exports would "simply succeed in making way for a deluging inflow of fabrics, to the destruction of home industry." He went on to denounce foreign trade and to magnify the importance of our "domestic trade," and said it was this which had "caused the wonderful growth and expansion of the republic," and that it was this "continental trade," which the genuine free-trader cannot comprehend, which "is the great source of our prosperity," and he reproved President Cleveland for proposing a policy that would "admit Europe to a share of this trade." In the speech at Waterville, however, he made the following remarkable admissions:

"In regard to national questions, I wish to declare the opinion that the United States has reached the point where one of its highest duties is to enlarge the area of its foreign trade. Under the beneficent policy of protection we have developed a volume of manufactures which in many departments has overrun the demands of the home market. In the field of agriculture, with the immense propulsion given it by agricultural implements, we can do far more than to produce breadstuffs and provisions for our own people. Nor would it be an ambitious destiny for so great a country as ours to manufacture only what we can consume or to produce only what we can eat. We are already, in many fabrics and in many products, far beyond that, and our great demand is expansion. I mean expansion of trade with countries where we can find profitable exchanges. We are not seeking annexation of territory. Certainly we do not desire it, unless it should come by the volition of peoples who might ask the priceless boon of a place under the flag of the Union. I feel sure that for a long time to come the people of the United States will be wisely content with our present area, and not launch upon any schemes of annexation. At the same time, I think we should be unwisely content if we did not seek to engage in what the younger Pitt so well termed 'the annexation of trade.'"

To this new platform, too, he has carried over the New York *Tribune*, which was silent for a good while after the letter to Mr. Frye, but now takes its stand quietly beside Mr. Blaine on the much-abused Cleveland platform.

We do not make these quotations for the purpose of enclosing Mr. Blaine in the deadly parallel or reproaching him with inconsistency. He has never been enough of an economist to make economical discussions with him very profitable. His speeches and letters on economical topics are valuable mainly as indications of what he—a very shrewd observer—thinks the drift of popular opinion is. He gets his science, in short, from the ballot-box, and cares as little as the late Senator Logan what "the bookmen say" about such things. The result is, that the arguments by which he fortifies his economical positions are sometimes incomprehensible to the professorial mind. He told his audience at Waterville the following extraordinary story about the result of our trade with several countries in 1889:

"We lost $41,000,000 in Cuba, from which our imports were $52,000,000, and to which our exports were only $11,000,000. Forty-one millions is a pretty large sum to lose in one island in a single year. In the Republic of Brazil we lost $51,000,000; our imports from Brazil were $60,000,000; our exports to Brazil were $9,000,000. In Mexico we lost $10,000,000; our imports from Mexico were $21,000,000; our exports to Mexico were $11,000,000. To sum it all up, our imports from the countries south of us, both insular and continental, on this hemisphere were $216,000,000; our exports to them were $74,000,000. The balance against us in our trade with those countries was, therefore, $142,000,000—exceeding our gains from all the rest of the world by $13,000,000. By no figure of speech can we flatter ourselves into the belief that our trade with our American neighbors is in a prosperous condition."

He obtained these noteworthy facts, of course, by comparing our imports from these countries with our exports, on the old "mercantile" plan, and he really means, if he means anything, that some hundreds of Americans kept sending enormous quantities of goods to these countries without receiving any return or going into bankruptcy. Had the facts been as Mr. Blaine states them, of course nearly every American house in the Cuban, Brazilian, and Mexican trade would have failed last year. But there is not a boy in the public schools who ought not to know that this apparent balance of $142,000,000 had to be met somehow, and was met by these houses, either by their profits on their ventures or by drafts on London and Paris, which we exported American commodities to meet.

The plan of reciprocity which Mr. Blaine proposes means simply that we are to take duties off certain foreign commodities in order to make them cheaper to our own people, and the foreigner is to take off duties on our commodities to make them cheaper to his people. The essence of the transaction is cheapness. Cheapness is what promotes trade, no matter what name you give it. You may call it "reciprocity," or anything else you please, and you may get it by treaty, or by a low tariff, or by improved processes or superior industry; but it is cheapness after all which sticks out through every arrangement that brings men together for the exchange of products. Let us be thankful that the fact is at last dawning on the Republican chief that exchange is no robbery, and that a cheap coat does not make a cheap man.

ROMERO ON THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS.

No one is better fitted to give a judicial and intelligent opinion of the Pan-American Congress than the Mexican Minister, who was himself one of the leading figures in it; and it is a matter of much public interest that Señor Romero has written an adequate article on the subject, which appears in the current number of the *North American Review*, but has already seen the light in Spanish in a Mexican periodical.

Señor Romero allows himself much liberty in speaking of the proceedings of the Congress, freely referring to events about which an air of great secrecy was maintained at the time, though they were no secrets, after all, to those who were in a position to know what was going on. Indeed, he really adds little to what was before known, though his account will be of great value as confirming beyond all question what might otherwise have been set down as the guesses of newspaper correspondents. It may at once be said that he lends his unimpeachable authority to some of the severest criticisms made in the press upon the management of the Conference by the Department of State. He does this, of course, most courteously, even apologetically at times, but does it, and evidently meant to do it. A great deal of sly humor appears now and then in his explanation of some curious American proceeding.

Referring to the personnel of the United States delegation, he says that "it would, doubtless, have been preferable that they should have been able to speak Spanish, and should have had some knowledge of diplomacy"; but then, he points out, they were nominated in the way usual in filling our higher offices, so that no intentional slight could have been meant to the foreign statesmen who were asked to confer with our wagon-builders and iron-masters. He is also perfectly clear in his allusions to the blunder of putting so offensive a person as Mr. William E. Curtis in close con-

tact and official relations with the foreigners. In like measure he confirms all that has been alleged of the inadequate preparation for the Congress. The translators and stenographers provided were wholly incompetent. Apart from the question of arbitration, Mr. Blaine had absolutely no programme, and left his delegates wholly uninstructed, his idea appearing to be that instead of a gathering of representatives of several governments, under careful instructions, the Congress was a sort of town meeting where personal views were to be freely ventilated.

Taking up the much-bruited matter of arbitration, the Mexican Minister makes short work of the claims of Mr. Blaine's friends. He says that the Secretary of State submitted a complete draught of a scheme of arbitration, as he would like it, and that the only part of this adopted by the Congress was the preamble. On all the main points, Mr. Blaine had to yield to the foreigners. Even so, Señor Romero thinks, the compact agreed upon will not be ratified by several of the leading countries. Chili will not ratify it, of course; probably the Argentine Republic will not; Mexico's action is highly doubtful; nor will the United States, believes this veteran observer of our politics, agree to a measure which puts this country upon a perfect equality, in all international relations, with the smallest and most unsettled political entity on the hemisphere.

Still more plain-spoken is the Mexican Minister when he takes up the question of closer commercial relations between the United States and the republics to the south. Any idea that the Congress could accomplish a thing in that line was only possible, he says, for one who knew nothing of the political power of protection in this country. To men like himself, who had seen our tariff legislation of the past twenty years at close quarters, and the most inoffensive reciprocity treaties killed sooner or later, it was clear from the first that nothing would be done. Reciprocity is not now possible to the United States, he thinks, under the prevailing conditions, much as Mr. Blaine may exert himself to bring it about in a limited degree. This country has borrowed all its commercial legislation from England, says Señor Romero, and by and by will come to take up, under the stern and increasing pressure of economic laws, with the flouted doctrine of free trade. Until that day, it is folly to talk of enlarging the foreign trade of the United States.

Summing up the whole, Minister Romero puts first among the results of the Congress the indirect one of a better natural understanding and the dissipation of prejudices and suspicions founded on ignorance. Then comes the arbitration measure, which will be highly important if finally ratified. The action, or rather want of action, on the common-coinage project, he considers "a marked step backwards." The other results arrived at, even if they should receive the necessary sanction of the governments concerned, he regards as of slight account.

Señor Romero remarks that those of the foreign delegates who were at the same time Ministers from their respective countries, found themselves considerably embarrassed in the work of the Congress by their diplomatic positions. They could not indulge in that freedom of speech which was open to more unfettered representatives. Certainly the Mexican Minister has cast diplomatic reserve pretty thoroughly aside in this article of his; and its publication, distasteful as it cannot fail to be to the Secretary of State, lends color to the rumor that Señor Romero is about to withdraw from Washington to accept the Treasury Department in the Mexican Cabinet.

THE MISSISSIPPI CONVENTION.

THE Convention which assembled in Jackson a fortnight ago, to frame a new Constitution for the State of Mississippi, is a gathering whose proceedings are full of interest to all students of "the Southern problem." The task which it has assumed is so difficult, and the possible consequences of its action are so important, that the whole nation will watch the course of events with attention.

The object of the Convention has been clearly stated by ex-Gov. Alcorn, who was chosen Executive when the Republicans controlled the State, and who represents the intelligent white Republicans in the present assemblage. "The Convention," he says in a recent letter, "was called with a view of devising some means of putting a check in the text of the Constitution upon ignorance and corruption. The people felt the sting of the North in the continued charge of forcible domination in the South of the ballot-box. The desire to free themselves from this charge, which they felt in some degree to be true, and the wish to devise some means, more in accord with civilization and statesmanship, to save themselves from the impending ruin, led to the calling of the Convention." The necessity for such a check upon ignorance is rapidly increasing, the ex-Governor estimating that the number of negroes brought into the "Delta counties" from other States last winter and spring was fully 30,000, "generally of the most ignorant class."

Ex-Gov. Alcorn shares the feeling of the more conservative whites regarding the blacks, and the fact that he is a Republican in politics will lend weight to his views with many Northern people who would pay no attention to similar opinions expressed by a Southern Democrat. After stating that the Convention organized by electing one of the most conservative public men in the State as President, he says that it has already been made "plain that the business of the Convention will be conducted with the most tender regard for the negro, whose presence among us is held to be by all intelligent men necessary on account of our soil and climate to the development of our agricultural industry, the foundation necessary for the future growth and wealth of our State." As to the attitude of the whites towards the blacks, the ex-Governor says further: "We wish to control the negro for our own welfare as well as his. We expend large sums for the education of his children. This we are forced to do, that the negro may be contented among us, and thus you will see that we must, if we would advance our agricultural interest, cultivate the most kindly relations with the negro. That we would deprive him of his vote, if the question was left to us alone, there is no doubt. He is not regarded capable of self-government by the body of our people."

The first important question before the Convention was as to the scope of its powers. When Mississippi was readmitted into the Union, Congress imposed the condition that its Constitution should "never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the Constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State." Of course, if this condition remains binding, the Convention's hands are tied, as the present Constitution forbids an educational or property test for the suffrage. The question was therefore referred to the Judiciary Committee, which has made a unanimous report to the effect that no action of Congress can deprive one State of the equality with the other States which it enjoys under the Federal Constitution. The report was prepared by Judge Simrall, who was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court under Republican rule, and its argument is unanswerable. Its basis is the impregnable position that "there can hardly be a conception of unequal States in the Union," which would be the case if it were held that Mississippi may not impose an educational qualification upon the suffrage, while New York may.

The chief committee is that on the elective franchise, which has thirty-five members, among them being the only negro in the Convention. All sorts of propositions have been referred to it, some of them too ridiculous to deserve any notice. Two schemes are pushed seriously. One seeks to give the white counties of the State, which contain much less than half the people, control of the Legislature by a cunning system of apportionment, as in Connecticut the populous cities and towns which elect Democratic members are outvoted by the representatives of small Republican towns. The other plan would put the whites in a majority of the voters by establishing an educational or property qualification for the suffrage, which would bar out the greater part of the blacks. One great difficulty about the first scheme has been that the white politicians in the black counties did not take kindly to the idea of losing their present relative strength in the Legislature, although their consent is reported to have been secured to an apportionment which on the color-line gives the white counties a majority of nine in the Senate and twenty in the House.

A sub-committee of the Franchise Committee has reported to the full committee a scheme for restricting the suffrage which proposes that, in order to vote, a man must

be able to read any article of the State Constitution, or "be able to understand the same when read to him"; or own property of the assessed value of $200—soldiers of either the Federal or Confederate army who served honorably during the war being exempt from each of these requirements. This is an exceedingly ingenious plan. In the first place, it avoids the danger of trouble with "the soldier vote," which would be threatened by an educational or property test which many a brave, but ignorant and poor, ex-Confederate veteran could not stand. In the second place, it obviates the objection among the whites to a rigorous requirement of ability to read, by the alternative proposition that a man may vote who can understand the Constitution when read to him. In the third place, it would enable the boards which should pass upon suffrage qualifications to keep out most of the blacks who could not read the Constitution by deciding that they did not understand it, and at the same time let in almost every illiterate white. The Naturalization Law vests with a United States judge the power to declare a foreigner a citizen if it shall be made to appear to the satisfaction of the Court that, during his five years' residence in this country, "he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same." It is said of a certain Federal judge in New England, who has always been a strong partisan, that he was never known to find a foreigner vouched for by a Republican manager lacking in the qualifications for citizenship, while he is apt to discover some lack of attachment to the principles of the Constitution in the protégé of a Democrat. Doubtless the white officials of Mississippi would find it equally easy to make distinctions in using a discretionary power—though the ignorant negro would always have this power of redress, that he could learn to read if he was rejected for not understanding what was read to him.

A striking proof of the depth of feeling on this question of restricting the ignorant negro vote is afforded by the favorable reception given a woman-suffrage proposition. The movement to allow women to vote has never gained any strength anywhere in the South, and suggestions of that sort have always been denounced as worthy only of "cranks." But the other day a delegate offered a resolution giving the right to vote to every woman who owns (or whose husband, if she is married, owns) $300 worth of real estate, the vote to be cast by a male elector authorized in writing by the woman so to cast it. As scarcely any black women would be able to exercise the suffrage, it is estimated that such a scheme would add about 35,000 to the white men's votes, and the hope of such a gain has caused a large proportion of the delegates to regard the suggestion with patience, if not with approval, although, but for the race problem, it is not likely that half-a-dozen men would lend the slightest favor to the idea of woman suffrage in any form. The Suffrage Committee has since agreed, by 17 to 11, in favor of woman suffrage, on the basis of a property qualification of $400 worth of property in addition to the qualifications for male voters.

The Convention seems disposed to act with great deliberation, and it is expected that its sessions will last through September. Everything which has happened thus far indicates that the delegates appreciate the difficulties of the problem which they are trying to solve, and that they are most anxious to avoid any false step.

RAILROAD DISCIPLINE.

Mr. Chappell, the General Manager of the Chicago stock-yards, is reported as having said last week, apropos of the switchmen's strike then pending there:

"There can be but one end to this strike, and we are glad that it has been precipitated. Our men have gradually gained power until they are insolent and wholly undisciplined. We have endeavored often to get rid of them, to free ourselves from their clutches, but without result. The public safety demands the discipline of railway employees, and we can't have it with these men. Therefore we are glad to be rid of them."

This was true also of the originators of the strike on the New York Central. It must be true of every railroad and every large organization of men in which faithful, prompt, and efficient service has to be rendered, until human nature undergoes some great and indeed radical change. It is as true now as it was eighteen hundred years ago that no man can serve two masters. No soldier, or sailor, or railroad employee, or telegraph operator ever has done, or ever will do, his work with care and fidelity, day in and day out, if there be in existence a power or agency which he relies on to protect him against the consequences of laziness, negligence, or insubordination, and to enable him to set at naught or slight the lawful orders of his superior officer. No body of men, we care not who or what they are, college professors or hod-carriers, can, if they belong to an organization, escape the necessity of the kind of discipline which consists in responsibility to some one authority capable of inflicting penalties in case of neglect of duty. There may come a time when the enforcement of coöperation through discipline will not be necessary in the work of administration, but it is a time as yet indefinitely remote.

We fear there is hardly a railroad, in the Northern States at least, which has not, during the past two or three years, suffered in some degree from the more or less successful attempts of the Knights of Labor to set up among the employees an *imperium in imperio*—that is, to create among them an agency which may relieve them from the necessity of pleasing their superior officers in the manner of doing their duty. We believe, if the truth were known, it would be found that long before these late strikes occurred, or were threatened even, the mere existence of Knights of Labor among the working force had impaired the service on more than one road, owing to the natural reluctance of the managers to bring on a collision with the "noble and holy order" sooner than was absolutely necessary.

A great deal of excuse for this reluctance is, of course, to be found in the loss to the road and the inconvenience to the community which any strike that stops trains even for a day is sure to cause. Railroad managers are after all but men, and shrink from hardship and annoyance just as other people do, a fact of human nature on which all the shirks and rogues in the world rely a good deal. They therefore let the windbags and "sea lawyers" who do the work of recruiting for the Knights, go a good way for a long while before they interfere. In the meantime, although there may be no open display of insubordination, a state of mind is produced among the employees very much like that of a man who is handling other people's money without having to render any account—that is, a condition of carelessness and indifference which inevitably affects the way in which duties are performed. Every Knight, no matter what his general character may be, feels, in spite of himself, a considerable decrease in his respect for the rules and regulations of the road when he believes that, if he incurs the distrust of his superiors, his "order" will save him from dismissal. There is nothing very depraved about this. It is human nature, and it is sure to show itself in a man's manner of performing his duties, and first and foremost in producing that happy-go-lucky spirit which is the great curse and danger of railroad administration.

It was this spirit which led to the frightful accident on the Old Colony Road the other day. We have no positive knowledge as to the extent to which the Knights have ravaged that road, but we say with perfect confidence that the foreman's continuing to fiddle with the rails, without flagging the express train which he knew was due, was one of the marks of the Knightly state of mind. It is a state of mind which American trades-unions, under their present deplorable management, have produced in nearly every field of industry. Their influence has thus far, whatever it may have done to raise wages, been hostile to good and faithful work and to the sense of responsibility. Private employers have to contend with this as best they can, but railroad managers cannot afford to trifle with the Knightly spirit in the smallest degree. They owe it to the public to deal with it promptly wherever it shows itself. They have no more right to allow the existence of a divided responsibility among their employees than the colonel of a regiment in active service would have. Any man who is known to be bound to drop his work at the bidding of a third party is not fit for railroad service, and there ought to be no squeamishness about making this rule known and acting on it. Mr. Webb is reported to have said that the New York Central does not care or inquire whether its employees belong to a union or not. But it ought to care. It ought to see to it that no man whom it intrusts with the care of life and property in its line owes any obedience of any nature, as regards his official work, to outsiders, and least of all to persons who make money by getting up strikes. For Mr. Webb

really commands what is to all intents and purposes a military division which is constantly in the presence of the enemy. There is no soldierly quality which is not every hour of every day and night called into activity in the discharge of a railroad man's duty—courage, fidelity, obedience, exactness, indifference to hunger, to fatigue, and to weather. Nature, that tremendous enemy of art, is hostile to railroad transportation, and watches with a more than lynx-eyed vigilance for the slightest mistake or shortcoming, and punishes it with a remorselessness now never shown in human warfare. A blathering, mutinous "Knight" is, therefore, as much out of place driving an engine, or tending a switch, or watching a bridge or curve, as he would be on outpost duty in the presence of an army of Apaches with hundreds of women and children under his care.

LABOR FACTS AND FANCIES.

THE Report on the Statistics of Labor in Massachusetts for 1889 consists in great part of matter already published in advance bulletins, and noticed in these columns. There is added, however, an index to all the reports of this Bureau, twenty in number, which, as some of them contain statistics of permanent value, will prove serviceable. We have also a computation of the ordinary length of the work-day in a large number of establishments, from which it appears that ten hours is not far from the standard, although the tendency may be towards a lower limit. The figures relating to the employment of women in productive industries show that the proportion of laborers of the female sex is gradually increasing. They do not "show conclusively," as the compiler supposes, "that the presence of woman in industry has not decreased the number of births or marriages, nor increased the number of deaths." This conclusion is supposed to follow from the fact that "fifty cities and towns having large percentages of women at work, with 64.39 per cent. of the total population, had 69.99 per cent. of the total number of births, 69.18 per cent. of the whole number of marriages, and but 63.53 per cent. of the total number of deaths." The reasoning is vitiated by the disregard of immigration as a factor.

It is to be regretted that the persons employed by our Government to collect facts of this description should feel it incumbent upon them to express their views upon the problems of political economy, a task for which their education has seldom prepared them. Thus the first sentence in the report before us contains the statement that production involves two elements—labor and capital—a statement that could hardly have been made by any one acquainted with the elements of political economy. The subsequent observation, that the proper adjustment of a protective tariff cannot be made without evidence respecting the "labor element," reveals a degree of innocence as to the method by which the "adjustment" of duties is effected that is almost childlike. It is not easy to see how the elaborate tables showing the relation of wages to total expenses in a vast number of industries are intended to be utilized for adjusting the tariff or for any other purpose. In some industries wages are 2 per cent. and materials 98, in others wages are 90 and materials 10 per cent., and there is scarcely any material that does not go through many processes before it reaches the consumer. As to where we may find "a current political economy" that "has constantly taught that only as wages fell could profits rise," no information is vouchsafed. The true theory, it is intimated, is that the demand for products increases as "social wants" increase; so that in order to enjoy plenty it is only necessary to want it. It follows that higher wages and shorter working time, as they raise the standard of living, must increase profits. To clarify this argument, it is only necessary to inquire whether the "social wants" are sufficiently intense to dispose men to work in order to gratify them. If not, the demand for products created by such wants would not be very effective.

The corresponding report for the State of New York is a much less ambitious and more practical document. Those acquainted with the political movements in this State will, of course, understand what interests Gov. Hill would aim to propitiate in the selection of a Commissioner of Labor Statistics, and the necessity under which this officer stands of not being lukewarm in his expressions of sympathy with the trade-unions. As these monopolies are hostile and often injurious to the great majority of laborers who are outside of them, it is scarcely becoming an officer representing the whole community to manifest a bias in their favor. We must say, however, that this bias is, under the circumstances, not displayed to an unreasonable degree, and that the Commissioner has shown a creditable appreciation of the scope of his office. He has confined himself to a single subject, "a résumé and tabulation of the strikes, lockouts, and boycotts for the five years 1885–'89, in their various forms of manifestation, with causes, results, and costs, to both employers and employed." Of over 9,000 strikes in these years, he computes that nearly two-thirds were successful, including herein those that were compromised. It seems, however, that of some 340,000 persons involved, only about 67,000 secured increased wages. Wages lost amounted to $8,000,000, other losses to employees were $6,300,000. Against this is to be set the gain in wages, which, if maintained through five years, would be $18,600,000. The losses of employers are computed at over $4,000,000, but it does not appear that account is taken of interest on capital. It is gratifying to observe that the loss from destruction of goods and machinery by strikers is not very great, being some $370,000, of which $180,000 is charged to 'longshoremen, $78,000 to employees of car companies (probably horse-car lines), and $50,000 to those of sugar-houses. The number of arrests for disorders connected with strikes was 529. Upon the whole, these industrial wars must be said to be conducted in a peaceable manner. It is instructive to compare the theory of the compiler of this report, that an increase in wages of "an extra quarter or half-dollar per day is not much to the employer, who can fall back on his customers or on society at large," with the position of the Massachusetts Commissioner, that the receivers of wages constitute the customers or society at large. If the increased profits expected by the latter authority to arise from higher wages are really derived from higher prices paid by workmen for the goods they consume, the last state of "Labor" may be worse than its first.

The report of the New Jersey Bureau of Labor deserves commendation. It contains reprints of Dr. Ogle's tables of mortality in different occupations, of the Factory Acts of England and Switzerland, and of acts relating to industrial coöperation in England and this country, as well as the "Labor Laws" passed this year in New Jersey. There is also a summary of the mortgage indebtedness in New Jersey for a term of years, and of the executions in foreclosure, which it may be instructive hereafter to compare with the results obtained by the United States Census Bureau. About all that is to be learned from it is that more mortgages are made in times of brisk business, and more foreclosed when business is dull. But the report also contains a series of tables showing the common duration of life in the occupations of glassblowing, pottery, and hatmaking, which appear to be the result of an inquiry conducted in a truly scientific manner. Little can be learned from the mean age at death of men in different employments, as this does not indicate the age at which the employment is entered upon or the number that have quitted it before death. Accordingly, the Bureau instituted a detailed investigation covering the industries above specified, and embracing the cases of 4,739 workmen. In every case information was sought as to the age at which work was begun, present age, age at which powers of work were impaired or ceased, and the total number of years actually at work. The tables are of a character to furnish a basis for valuable generalizations, for no knowledge can be of more importance to a young workman than that of the comparative healthfulness of various employments. We cannot undertake to present the results attained, but we commend the example of this Bureau to those of other States as pointing out a direction in which they may render a genuine service to working people. It is probably true, as Adam Smith said, that human optimism prevents wages in dangerous employments from being so high as they should be, and the diffusion of knowledge that may correct this hopefulness is much to be desired.

THE RUINS OF CASAS GRANDES.—II.

SANTA FÉ, August 1, 1890.

THERE are also ruins on the opposite side of the river, but some distance from the main cluster. The Casas Grandes proper are the remains, as already stated, of a group of houses huddled together on the west bank, dominating the course of the stream for three miles about, up

and down, and similar to the other ruins scattered along the river. But it was a larger settlement, and is in a better state of preservation. Was it a sort of "capital" for all the others, or perhaps the last refuge of the population previous to its dispersion, annihilation, or exodus? It is very difficult to decide in favor of either of these surmises. There is, however, one point which deserves careful attention. About three miles west of the ruins rises the Cerro de Montezuma, a steep and bald mountain, at least 2,000 feet higher than the valley. It is reckoned that three leagues (eight miles and a fraction) equal the distance from the ruins to its top. That top is the culminating point of a sharp ridge or narrow "hog-back," with precipitous sides to the west, in some places. On that top, whence a surprising view is enjoyed in every direction, stands an ancient circular watch-tower. Its walls, at least two feet thick, are of thin plates of stone. A wall, now crumbling, surrounds it. Inside there appear at least four small compartments. From this watch-tower, as from a central point, well-beaten trails descend the sides of the mountain in every direction: towards the east, to the main ruins; to the north and northeast; to the west, where the villages lie on the Rio de Piedras Verdes; and to the southwest and south, towards the ruins on the Rio de Palanganas. It looks as if this watch-tower had been erected and maintained for the mutual benefit of the settlements mentioned; as if, therefore, these or a number of them had been flourishing at the same time, and as if a common bond had existed between the larger cluster at Casas Grandes and the smaller ones on either side of the Cerro de Montezuma. I must add that on the crest of that mountain, but below the tower stands a large ruined house after the type of those of Casas Grandes. That house is protected on the side towards the east by a massive and remarkably well-constructed wall of stones. Whether this building was coeval or not with the main cluster at the foot of the mountain, it is of course impossible at present to determine.

Admirably fitted for a centre of subsistence on a small scale, the region of Casas Grandes could not fail to attract all tribes that drifted within grasp of its superior natural advantages. It did not so much allure the aborigines to roam over its tracts as to settle on them. Its surroundings are not inviting to the marauding savage except in the west, where the eastern branch of the Sierra Madre (called Sierra de la Madera de Casas Grandes) rises like an unbroken wall clad in sombre green. There he found profusion of game, abundance of limpid brooks and streams, majestic pine forests, and innumerable lurking places. There, for nearly two hundred years, the Apaches had their favorite lairs, harassing the Spaniards to such a degree that twice the latter almost completely abandoned the valleys of Casas Grandes and San Buenaventura. Since the year 1884, in consequence of the late Gen. George Crook's remarkable armed peace mission into the heart of the Sierra Madre, those angels of devastation have been obliged to forsake that splendid region and to leave Sonora and Chihuahua in peace.

I penetrated into the heart of the Sierra Madre thrice in the spring of 1884. It was still dangerous. But although I was unarmed and had only one or at most two Indian guides, we never suffered any molestation. The Apaches were near, but showed themselves not; certainly not out of fear, but they were then on the move to the Arizona Reservation, and any hostile demonstration with as little returns as our persons would have yielded would have been imprudent on their part. So I was permitted to explore and enjoy a considerable portion of these magnificent solitudes, and to investigate the numerous remains of ancient Indian abodes which they contain. A broad plain separates the former hacienda of San Diego, where the Casas Grandes River is formed, from the eastern front of the Sierra Madre. This plain, about ten miles wide, was alive with antelopes. At the foot of the mountains aboriginal ruins appeared again, recalling isolated houses of clay peculiar to the Casas Grandes valleys. Little garden plots, indicated by rows of upright stones, extend on both sides of the Arroyo de San Diego, which here runs out into the plain, soon to disappear in its barren sandy soil. The ascent through the gorge called Puerto de San Diego is picturesque and grand. A strong vegetation crowds the bases of cliffs; thickets of oak, cedar, and pine alternate with plants and shrubs of a more southern flora. Towards the east the view expands unbounded. Far beyond San Diego it stretches, white and dazzling. The higher we climb the more rugged becomes the scenery, the cooler the air. At last we enter a forest of stately pines, on the first ridge of the Sierra Madre.

It is a great relief, after having for months lived in the hot and dusty valleys, in the glare of a scorching sun, to stroll in deep shade, and to breathe the fresh atmosphere of the mountains. The forest is silent in the evening, but the next morning we are awakened by the chattering of the green parrots in the tree-tops. Narrow valleys, with tall grass and clear brooks, separate the ridges of pine timber. Flocks of turkeys are seen. Deer make their appearance in close proximity to man; they fix upon him the gaze of their lustrous eyes and saunter off leisurely. We meet the vestiges of huts which the Apaches occupied only a few months ago. Following the Arroyo de los Pilares, we turn into a gorge from which the Arroyo del Nombre de Dios descends. Magnificent pines rise along its banks. Through the array of portly trunks we perceive cliffs, strangely eroded, gigantic pillars, lining the gorge on the south. Numberless small caves open in these rocks. At one place, however, the cavern is quite extensive, and it shelters a small ruined village. Nothing distinguishes this "cave-pueblo" from other ones in the north except the material of which the partition walls are built, and the potsherds, which bear the type of the Sierra Madre and Casas Grandes pottery in general. Such cave homes are found everywhere in the great mountain chain, where the formation is favorable to their construction. Who their builders were we do not know. An old church-book of the parish of Bacadéhuachi in Sonora conveys the information that as late as 1655 the Jesuit missionaries were wont to administer the sacraments to Opata Indians living in caves, where the "enemy" used to surprise and kill or mortally wound them. The Tarahumares of southwestern Chihuahua were cave-dwellers in the seventeenth century, and many of them are cave-dwellers to-day. The different types of architecture in the southwest do not correspond to distinct "stocks," still less to "races." There was no "race" or "stock" of "cliff-dwellers" or "cave-people." The Indian always yielded to the obstacles and inducements offered by nature, changing his style of abode according to circumstances. The Tehuas of Santa Clara (in New Mexico) at one time made the caves of the Puyé, burrowing out of the friable rock a whole village of grottoes. As soon as drought and decay made the place untenable, they again built pueblos in the open air as before. The Queres tell a similar story. It is therefore unsafe to speculate who the inhabitants of the cave-villages in the Sierra Madre were, and at what times they may have occupied their troglodyte homes. It is as much a mystery as the name of the tribe who built the Casas Grandes or the other pueblos scattered along the course of the river of that name on the high plain of Carretas and at the Vadito between it and Janos.

Documentary information in regard to Casas Grandes goes back to 1660. The place seems to have been discovered by a Franciscan missionary, Fray Pedro de Aparicio, who found the valley held by a tribe which he called Sumas. They were friendly, and received him with kindness. But his health soon began to fail and he died, to the sincere regret of the Indians. Sumas also lived at Carretas, and near El Paso del Norte. They and their neighbors, the Janos and Jocomes, were enemies of the Opatas of Sonora, and during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the history of the Jesuit missions is one sad tale of woe caused by the incursions of these tribes upon Sonoran territory.

The earliest account concerning the Sumas of Casas Grandes represents them as Indians with sedentary inclinations, and not very ferocious. The Sumas around El Paso, on the other hand, always belonged to the most dangerous class of nomads. Strenuous efforts were made to settle them, but with very poor results. This contrast between two branches of one and the same stock is significant, though not easily explained. Which were the primitive branch—the village Indians of Casas Grandes and Janos, or the nomads of El Paso? I believe the former. Still, this is a mere suggestion. What causes me to think that the sedentary branch might have been the original stock is, first, their greater numbers, and, secondly, the analogy with the case of the great Apache stock, of which the half-sedentary Navajos form the bulk, whereas the Apaches proper are but outlying bands who have become nomadic through force of circumstances. Certain it seems that the Sumas were not the builders of Casas Grandes. When Fray Pedro de Aparicio went thither, he found them in possession of the valley, but we have as yet no record of any tradition among them touching the origin of the Great Houses. According to the custom of the times, the Spaniards afterwards attached the Montezuma lore to the ruins. The mysterious remains of Indian antiquity became "palaces of Montezuma," or one of the "stations" where the Mexican tribes rested on their supposed peregrination from north to south. This manufactured lore has clung to Casas Grandes ever since, although there is no more foundation for it than for a "Montezuma legend" among the pueblos of Mexico. The name and fame of the unlucky war chief of the Nahuatl Confederacy in the valley of Mexico flitted to the north in the wake of Spanish discovery and colonization. It settled, like an unsteady fog-cloud, everywhere that vestiges of antiquity attracted attention, without offering also a clue to their makers. In 1726, the Brigadier Don Pedro de Rivera gravely tells us, of Casas Grandes, that the edifices are of hewn stone; that when the ancient Mexicans migrated towards the central plateaux, Montezuma built these "palaces," and that the number of his followers was 600,000. In 1737, Fray Francisco de Arlegui almost textually copied Rivera, extolling the great architectural skill and beauty of the buildings. Subsequent writers did the same, and it was left to John Russell Bartlett to give

us the first unexaggerated description of the ruins. In his 'Personal Narrative' the reader will find a sober and careful account of Casas Grandes, accompanied by excellent drawings.

After the death of Fray Pedro de Aparicio the valley of Casas Grandes began to attract the attention of Spanish settlers. A number of them established themselves there and at San Buenaventura, and by 1680 the district was producing good wheat, cattle, and horses. It is well known that, when Governor Otermin retreated from Santa Fé to El Paso with the remnants of the Spanish colonists driven out of New Mexico by the Pueblo Indians, the supplies that saved his famished people were furnished by the settlers of Casas Grandes. That valley was much more prosperous than El Paso del Norte. But the war-cloud rising in the north spread into Chihuahua and Sonora, and the Sumas, Janos, and Jocomes joined hands with the Apaches, who were then hovering along the confines of Chihuahua. In the fall of 1684 a secret conclave of all these and more southerly tribes met at Casas Grandes. A general uprising against the Spaniards was planned and partly carried out. The incursions of the Apaches continued thereafter uninterrupted, and they so harassed the ill-protected settlers that forty years later the place was deserted. The Church of San Antonio, the walls of which are still standing one mile north of the present village, was abandoned. The Sumas scattered, the Janos and Jocomes merged into the Apaches. The latter became the terror of Chihuahua. For one hundred and sixty years they held the Sierra Madre and devastated the valleys at its feet. Casas Grandes was settled again, but the present dilapidated condition of the village, the timid and indolent manner of its inhabitants, are the products of a long period of daily perils and of utter hopelessness.

As in New Mexico, so in Chihuahua, the feeling of helplessness has created what we are sometimes too prone to ascribe to natural faults of character or to a lack of education. The latter, of course, has been a factor also, for in the Southwest education had become almost impossible. Spain was no longer able to protect provinces so distant and of such difficult access. The Church lacked means and power to continue its work with the necessary vigor. Not unfrequently, also, the local authorities directly opposed its efforts. The Indians relapsed into their original condition, to their own detriment. The tale of the Southwest in the past and present century is a sad tale—one of superhuman efforts (principally by the Church) under the most disheartening circumstances. The modern history, also, of Casas Grandes is deeply stained with blood. For four years peace has reigned at last. The beautiful interior of the Sierra Madre becomes accessible. Casas Grandes is no longer a dangerous point. With the general progress now going on in new Mexico, we may expect its archæological features soon to become the object of research under the patronage of the Mexican Government.

AD. F. BANDELIER.

MLLE. CLAIRON.

PARIS, August 19, 1890.

I AM not, I confess, a great admirer of the novels of the brothers Goncourt, though I am ready to own that they have been among the initiators of the modern school of realism, and that they have a certain sincerity, a power of observation, which are not without a morbid charm. The Goncourts (you see it in their Journal) evidently thought themselves prophets in the literary world. Edmund de Goncourt, who survives, probably would tell you, in a moment of introspection and of melancholy, that he has been unjustly treated by his contemporaries, that Flaubert proceeds from him, as well as all the modern realists—Zola, Maupassant, Bourget, and *tutti quanti*. One thing cannot be denied: the Goncourts, perhaps, were not the sole inventors of realism and naturalism, but they undoubtedly had a very eminent part in what might almost be called the rediscovery of the eighteenth century, especially of the charming French art which was in favor before the French Revolution, and which the Revolution, with its Romans and Greeks and its school of David, had completely extinguished and condemned for many years to oblivion.

The Goncourts were addicted from their youth to what we call bric-à-brac; they were born collectors, and they did not allow anybody to inspire them—they simply collected what pleased them, and, led by their instinct, they laid their hands on all the remains of that epoch which preceded the Revolution, and which was marked by a very peculiar grace in every branch of art—furniture, bronzes, drawings, engravings, pictures, sculpture, even dress. With a degree of curiosity and of minuteness which, in such matters, becomes invaluable, they became acquainted with the smallest details of the artists of that period. They soon understood that the artistic development of the time was connected with the social life, and they studied this social life, sometimes at court, sometimes in private circles, sometimes on the stage. The 'Actresses of the Eighteenth Century' forms a series in which Goncourt means to give the biographies of Mlle. Lecouvreur, Mlle. Clairon, Sophie Arnould, Mme. Saint-Huberti, Camargo, La Guimard, Mlle. Contat, Mlle. Favart.

I have before me the volume on Mlle. Clairon, composed from her own correspondence and the police reports of the day. Clairon was one of the greatest actresses of her time; she introduced realism on the stage, and abandoned the pompous, artificial, majestic, and false manner of her predecessors. Claire-Joèphe Legris was born on the 25th of January, 1723, at Condé, a small city of Hainaut, one of the sentinels of France on its northern frontiers, fortified by Vauban, in the midst of marshes—a dark little town on the Scheldt. She was the illegitimate child of a seamstress and a sergeant. At the age of twelve she came to Paris with her mother, a brutal woman, who abused her; she had no other education than that of the street. Sometimes she was taken to the play, and, coming back home, she would imitate all the actors and actresses, and repeat much of what she had heard. She would not work with her hands; she was a born actress, and no vocation was ever more decided.

She made her début, at the age of fourteen, in a company which went to Rouen; she took her mother with her. Sometimes the company went to Caen, sometimes to Havre. There appeared at the time a book (which has become very rare), 'Histoire de Mademoiselle Cronel, dite Frétillon, actrice de la Comédie de Rouen, écrite par elle-même.' It was a satire on young Claire, already called Clairon, and the story of her love affairs with a number of people. This pamphlet has been attributed to various persons, to the Comte de Caylus among the number. Goncourt thinks it is the work of a certain Gaillard, who kept a marionette theatre in Rouen.

The police reports of Lille, where the company went afterwards, represent Clairon as being at the same moment the mistress of the colonel, the lieutenant colonel, and another officer of the Royal-Walloon Regiment. She went in another company to Ghent, where she was courted by Marlborough; finally she came to Paris, and made the acquaintance of the famous La Popelinière, and her début at the Opéra in the character of *Venus*. From that hour, we find her living in the highest society of Paris—meaning the men: the Vintimilles, the Rochechouarts, the Dillons, the Custines, the Lorges, the Duc d'Antin, the Prince de Soubise, the Duke of Luxembourg—their name is legion.

From the Opéra, Clairon went to the Comédie-Française, and there she revealed herself as a great tragedian. Nothing, alas, remains of the sensations produced by the tragic genius. *Mais où sont les neiges d'antan?* as Villon says. Can words well describe the acting of Rachel as I saw it in "Horace" and in "Phèdre"; the acting of Sarah Bernhardt as I have seen it in "Hernani," "Phèdre," "Andromaque," before she undertook to play for the millions, and while she reserved herself for a happy few? You may as well attempt to paint the delicate hue of a rose, or the smile of a child, or the charm of a young and handsome face, with cold words and dry periods. When we speak of such women as Clairon we feel that we cannot do justice to them. Goncourt must content himself with giving us the names of all the plays in which she appeared; he enlivens his story by adding the history of all her quarrels with her rivals, with the actors, with her lovers—a very disagreeable story, on the whole, and one which shows well that we must never go too near our theatrical idols. *Major a longinquo reverentia.* Of all the little worlds which divide the great world, there is none so contemptible as the theatrical world; with a few exceptions, the men and women who live before the public and for the public are eaten up with vanity and jealousy.

Clairon, with all her genius, was no exception in this respect; she was the worst *camarade* that can be imagined, the most disobedient and unruly member of her company. She was once sent to Fort l'Évêque, which was the prison for actors and actresses, but she did not remain long in it, and her deliverance became the great event of the day. She gave herself out as the representative of the dignity and the rights of the theatrical world, enlisted Voltaire on her side, and became the tragedy queen of the philosophers. Choiseul, the minister to whom she one day made complaints, said to her: "Madame, we are both of us on a stage, but with this difference, that you choose the parts which suit you, and are always sure to be applauded by the public."

Clairon left the Comédie-Française after one of her quarrels, but she did not consent to be forgotten; she played occasionally at the theatres of some of her great friends. She had become the friend of M. de Valbelle, and their liaison lasted nineteen years. Valbelle was very wealthy, but was always in debt, and the great tragedian had often to help him out of his difficulties. She had adopted a young actor named Larive, for whom she felt a sort of motherly passion, and her letters to him are very singular instances of the complexity of the feminine heart. All her letters are clever, well written, sometimes with originality; she was obviously very intelligent. She had very lax ideas of morality, but a certain sense of honor; at any rate, she knew what devotion and gratitude meant.

The most extraordinary incident of her life is her journey to the Margraviate of Anspach. She separated from Valbelle and established herself in the spring of 1773 in the house of

the Margrave—an ugly, sentimental, somewhat ridiculous Prince, who felt a great admiration for Clairon and for the French stage. Her correspondence with Larive about the court of the Margrave and about Germany is amusing. She had a dubious sort of status; she pretended at times to play a political part. The Margrave allowed her five lackeys, a valet, a maître d'hôtel. She could not endure the tedium of her new existence, she made enemies, and finally she was not very unhappy when Lady Craven replaced her in the affection of the Margrave. Clairon left him without much regret; in one of her letters she accuses him of "ingratitude and barbarity," and speaks of him as a man who fears "neither her ruin nor her death." The memoirs of Lady Craven are among the most amusing books of the time; it is necessary to read them after reading Goncourt's 'Clairon.' "Qui n'entend qu'une chose," says a French proverb, "n'entend qu'un son."

On her return to France, Mlle. Clairon took a country-house at Issy, near Paris. The silent years began for her, but the silence was broken when suddenly her Memoirs appeared in German, in 1798; a French edition appeared afterwards under this title, 'Mémoires d'Hippolyte Clairon, et Réflexions sur la déclamation théâtrale. À Paris, chez Buisson, rue Hautefeuille, No. 20, an VII. de la République.' Goncourt thinks that, though Clairon affected to be angry at the publication of the German translation of the Memoirs, she was really pleased with it; that it gratified her to blacken her old rival, Mlle. Dumesnil, and to poison the end of her life. He is very severe on the Memoirs, which he proclaims utterly insincere, a monument of vanity, without any real value for the history of the eighteenth century. The Revolution and the Terror reduced Clairon to a state of misery; her last years were spent in a deserted solitude. She was only sustained by a sort of Cornelian reminiscence of the Stoic sentiments which she had so often expressed on the stage, and which had become a sort of second nature to her. Towards the end she became devout, and attempted to convert the daughter of Diderot to Catholicism. She died on the 31st of January, 1803, from the consequences of a fall from her bed. Her tomb was in the cemetery at Vaugirard, and, at the request of the *sociétaires* of the Comédie-Française, was transported to Père-Lachaise in 1837.

Correspondence.

"NAMES" AND "THINGS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The position of a member of the "Grand Old Party" whose conception of it was stereotyped several decades ago, so as to be incapable of change, is becoming an increasingly trying one every year. The problem of so reconciling stubborn facts and one's own preconceived notions as to put the facts themselves in the wrong, is, indeed, always a difficult one. Yet it can apparently be done, as witness the utterances of the estimable gentlemen who, several months ago, in communications printed in your columns, declared their firm belief that the distinction between the two parties, as now existing, is essentially that in the Republican party is concentrated the "better element," in the most sweeping sense, and in its opposite the ignorant and pestilent "residuum." And this in the face of the fact that the appeal of one of these writers to the political complexion of college men, as corroborative evidence, was shown by another writer to bear overwhelmingly on the other side; that the citation of the "slums" of certain selected cities as solidly Democratic was matched by equally solid Republican "slums" in other cities; that the claim of one party to possess the "native" element, as distinguished from one with foreign antecedents and tendencies, was long ago shown to be baseless; that the finger of scorn which was once able to point to so gigantic a steal as that of the Tweed ring, as being fruits of Democratic rule, may now with equal propriety be turned to the Quay dishonesty, deliberately endorsed and sanctioned by Republican political organizations; that the complaints of years against unfairness in elections south of Mason and Dixon's line have become somewhat stale by comparison with the fraudulent measures by which Northern States have been saved to the Republican party, in the wholesale purchase of voters in "blocks of five," etc.; and, to descend from matters affecting chiefly the moral sense to those offending the sense of taste, that only during the past week it was left to a Republican member of the House, in the presence of women and other spectators, to perpetrate so intolerable a vulgarity as to produce indignant protest, while two other Republican members were forcibly prevented from holding each other's throats, Democratic members meantime contemptuously suggesting that the rules of the prize-ring should be adopted.

To be sure, there is nothing essentially new in the phenomenon here observed. It is the same which Bacon, in his 'Novum Organon,' felicitously depicts under the name of "Idols of the Market-place," in words which almost seem to have been written with current events before his eyes. "The human understanding," he says, "when it has once adopted an opinion (either as being the received opinion or as being agreeable to itself), draws all things else to support and agree with it." And as it is "by discourse" that men associate, the "choice of words wonderfully obstructs the understanding." And thus "Names" rather than "Things" carry weight.

And yet, were Republican voters, as a mass, reflective students of political history, a pondering of the Whig party's last ten years of existence would serve as a wonderfully significant commentary on present conditions.

Civis.

ANARCHY!

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When two parts of a mob get to cursing and calling each other names, it will not be long before, in the absence of any mediating or controlling authority, they come to blows; and this is equally true whether the mob is in the House of Representatives or in the streets of New York. When Mr. Brooks attacked Mr. Sumner with a cane, it was attributed to the "barbarism of slavery." But now that slavery is abolished, that peace and harmony may be said to reign throughout the country, and the public issues are mainly financial, we have a scene in Congress which at any rate led one member to suggest the adoption of the rules of the London prize-ring. A pleasant episode that to be sent abroad into the hands of such critics of democracy as Sir Henry Maine, Mr. Fitz-James Stephen, and the Duc de Noailles! Yet if by democracy is meant the will of the people, nothing can be more unjust than to ascribe this result to it. It is safe to say that the great mass of the people of the country will be just as much disgusted with such behavior as any Duke or Earl in the House of Lords. It is simply that the House of Representatives, as at present organized, is nothing more nor less than a disorderly mob. It is the business of the Speaker to preserve order and decorum in debate, and he could and would do that if he held his proper position, that which in the New England town meeting goes by the beautifully significant name of the "Moderator." But the Speaker has long since become the most partisan member of the House, and Mr. Reed has brought the office to that high point at which it commands the respect of neither party, his principle being that the majority is to trample the minority into subjection at any cost. Apart from the Speaker there is no controlling authority but the Sergeant-at-Arms.

It is idle to suppose that the evil can be cured by substituting a Democratic for a Republican majority, as a few years of success would teach them the lesson which Mr. Reed has enforced with so much ability. The only hope is in reforming the system by taking the conduct of business out of the hands of the Speaker, and giving it to national officials acting under the authority of, and under responsibility to, the whole people.

With a Speaker whose ambition and hope of reputation lay only in the impartial enforcement of order and decorum in debate, and a Cabinet conscious that their strength lay in setting an example of dignity, moderation, and deference to the Speaker's authority, there would be no trouble, in this respect at least, about democracy. G. B.

Boston, August 30, 1890.

THE KNIGHTS AND THE TRAVELLING PUBLIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice that a leader of the New York Central strike regards the drunkenness, negligence, or incompetence of a railroad employee as a fitting indication for arbitration, rather than immediate dismissal. As an occasional traveller, I am interested to know whether the Knights of Labor are prepared to care for my family, supposing that I am killed in a collision while the Board of Arbitration are officially engaged in investigating some previous escapade of the switchman or other employee to whose hands my life must be intrusted.

Travellers should clearly recognize the fact that the Knights of Labor, in striving to prevent the immediate dismissal of drunken or otherwise incompetent railroad employees, are simply conspiring against the lives and property of all who are compelled to use this means of locomotion. No one denies the right of laboring men to organize for legitimate purposes; but to endanger the lives of travellers in the interest of drunken employees is not a legitimate purpose. Let the Knights go much further in that direction, and the millions of people who are interested in safe travel will see to it that the obstacles between such conspiracy and the penitentiary shall be effectually removed. Traveller.

August 26, 1890.

THE THEOLOGIANS AND THE COPYRIGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While reading Mrs. Oliphant's 'Memoir of John Tulloch' I came upon a letter written by the Principal during a visit to this country in 1874. On his way to Chicago he was by some accident delayed at Cincinnati, and

missed his connection. He had learned that two of his books had been republished at Cincinnati, and now availed himself of the opportunity to investigate the matter in person.

"I sallied forth into the large unknown town, and after various inquiries the 'Methodist Book Concern' was pointed out to me. I inquired for my books, which I got at once. I said, 'Now I am quite willing to pay for these copies, but I think you ought to give me them for nothing, as I am the writer of them.' The man looked amazed, and referred me to the head of the establishment, who also looked amazed. When he understood who I really was, he was very gracious, and of course had a copy of each put up for me. I gathered that they both sold largely—one of them being the volume of whose limited sale Macmillan, you may remember, complained. The joke is, they were all dear—dearer, in fact, as everything here is, than at home. Their selling price is one dollar twenty-five cents, or five shillings, according to the present currency. 'Beginning Life' was never more than 3s. 6d. at home, and the other volume can be got abundantly for eighteen pence. They are a strange lot, to steal a man's brains in that way and never offer him a cent, never, till asked for, a copy of the book. One of the bishops writes a long and flattering introduction; one might say, 'Less of your manners and more of your siller, my pious Methodist.'"

Now, in all this there is nothing new; only it serves, in another concrete instance, to bring home to us the iniquity and the disgrace of a Christian nation fostering this theft and robbery. In Principal Tulloch's case it was a matter of considerable importance what payment he received for his literary labor. His salary at St. Andrews was to the last absurdly inadequate, yet, in spite of larger pecuniary offers, he remained there out of devotion to the work. That salary, therefore, required supplementing, and in this his pen was constantly engaged. So much did he take upon himself that repeatedly his health broke down under it. There is something more than mere playful humor in it when he says, "Less of your manners and more of your siller."

WILLIAM F. FABER.

WESTFIELD, N. Y., August 23, 1890.

ONE "ABANDONED FARM" LESS IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The marked interest which you have taken in the subject of abandoned farms in New England, as shown not only by your excellent editorials, but by the publication of articles by various correspondents, induces me to give you my experience during the present summer in this direction.

Whoever has followed up the Merrimac to its principal tributary, the Winnepesaukee, cannot fail to have been impressed with the grandeur and loveliness of the lake which is its source. The purity and transparency of its waters, the irregularity of its outline, the numerous wooded islands and jutting points of every shape and size, the adjacent hills gradually retreating from its borders until at varying distance they rise in an amphitheatre of stately forest-clad mountain ranges—all serve to form a picture at once noble and impressive. Nor is this region entirely destitute of legendary lore, which always invests even the tame and barren with zest and interest. Upon the shores of the "Spirit's Smile" dwelt or wandered various savage tribes, branches of the great Abenaqui nation. On its bays and tributaries "the Indian paddled his light canoe and wooed his dusky mate." Over its extended waters the French, with their savage allies, found a convenient highway for their incursions upon the defenceless southeastern frontiers of Massachusetts Bay, and many unhappy captives were forced "to track the shores with their blood." Here dwelt the "beautiful Winnepesaukees," and on the eastern shores the Ossipees had their wigwams. Here the valiant Passaconaway, afterwards the sagacious Sagamore of Pennacook, held sway, succeeded after many years of chieftainship by his son Wonnalancet; the names of both being perpetuated by noble mountain peaks which look down upon their former trails and warpaths. At its outlet, assembled at the proper season all the adjacent Indian tribes, to feast and make merry over the abundant capture of fish by means of weirs. The ploughshare still turns up in the neighboring fields many a relic of barbarous handicraft. In close propinquity, at the dividing line between lake and stream, just where a gentle current is perceptible, lies embedded the Endicott rock, bearing upon its exposed surface the carved initials of Gov. Endicott and the Massachusetts surveyors sent out to find the head of the Merrimac. The inscription bears the date of 1652, and is one of the most interesting relics of colonial days.

I have not the space to record the legend which gave the massive, symmetrical, defiant peak the name of Chocorua, nor the story of Lovewell's fight with the Pequaket tribe, in which the Chief Paugus was slain, whose memory is also enshrined in one of the grand granitic formations of the same range. Nor can I here speak of the heroic conduct of the provincial troops led against the savage enemy by brave leaders, or of the sufferings and privations of captives, as well as of the early pioneers of the Lake country. The records of New England offer abundant material to the lover of wild and fascinating stories, which clothe this entire region with poetry and romance as well as with pathos.

An early acquaintance with these localities, so imperfectly described, is associated with a pedestrian excursion made many years ago in company with a Harvard classmate, whose pen has added so much to the history of our country, and who has depicted the wild life of forest and prairie in such truthful and charming language. A desire to gratify my love for a sojourn in camp (or, rather, at the present time, for a more or less rough style of living beneath a roof more pretentious and substantial than that offered by a tent), and instigated by the letter of your correspondent published in the *Nation* of November 21, 1889, in which he says, "There are tracts, indeed, in New England, such as the White Mountain region and the Berkshire hills, where almost every farm can be made to furnish a picturesque summer home for the city refugee, and there a healthy, natural, and profitable business can be done," I started in the early days of June in search of a farm, not necessarily an abandoned one, but one which could be purchased perhaps on nearly equal terms. I determined that it should be in the White Mountain region, and that it should combine close propinquity to the shores of a lake—in fact, that it should be on its borders—that it should possess fine forest growth, noble mountain views, pleasant surroundings, and, if possible, respectable buildings, ample enough for a summer campaign of a few weeks, and which, even if occupied, could be vacated in a very short period. After several days of search and of variable experience, chance directed me to a locality with which I fell in love at first sight. I do not intend, for various reasons, to give the exact position of my purchase, but will describe the property and its surroundings.

The approach to the farm, which contains about 125 acres, is by a grass-grown road, through woods, which turns off from the travelled highway at about a mile's distance. The house, a plain, low, long, one-story and a half typical New England cottage, built a century ago, painted only by the hand of time, with a capacious chimney in the centre, and overshadowed by a noble tree, presents a most picturesque appearance. A capacious, large framed barn stands at convenient proximity, with widespread doors at either end, through which glimpses of the lake and of the near mountain ranges are to be seen. From the house-porch, looking to the south, Mount Belknap, the principal elevation of the Gilford range, raises its majestic front through an opening in the forest. A short lane passing between stone walls, venerable with lichens, and flanked by old apple trees, and with a turf which matches the verdure of any artificial lawn, leads to a pair of bars. Beyond these, and descending through a pasture a few hundred feet, a clean white sandy beach, offering the very best facilities for bathing, stretches along the shore for the distance of a quarter of a mile, bordered by a superb forest of hemlock and pine. Through this leads a cart-path, on either side of which grow in great luxuriance graceful ferns and other shade-loving vegetation. A long wooded point juts out into the lake, affording shelter to the boats and retirement to the beach, while numerous wood-clad islands add beauty to the scene.

Amid these islands the Great Northern Divers breed unmolested, and repay us with their weird notes at all hours of the day and night. The baldheaded eagle is still seen in all his majesty, especially at an early hour of the day, when we seek the beach for our morning ablutions. The waters of the lake afford ample piscatorial amusement to the lover of the rod, and many a fine black bass yields up his life to the scientific tactics of the present day. On all sides, and at almost every point of view, distant mountain peaks are visible, while nearer the ranges of the Sandwich and Ossipee cast their morning and evening shadows. The solitude and quietude of the farm are broken only by the distant tinkling of the cow-bell and by the strange cawing of the crows assembled in some secret conclave.

Such are the elements that go to make up the summer home. The days are all too short for the many agreeable ways of spending them. In addition to the usual outdoor sports, there is always something which demands attention upon the newly acquired territory, of which the owner feels the lord of all he surveys and superlatively proud; while within doors there are many little alterations to be made and conveniences to be added. Nor must the social evenings be forgotten, when the family circle is gathered about the driftwood fire, which roars up the great chimney and throws out its sparks harmlessly upon the wide stone hearth.

I need not add that the purchase thus far has proved most satisfactory, and that the "city refugee" is perfectly confident that the future will repay him for his choice, and that the investment will be a good one, even if nature is allowed to be foreman upon the farm.

DANIEL DENISON SLADE.

CHESTNUT HILL, MASS.

THE AMERICAN "IMMORTALS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reference in the current issue to the *Critic's* "Forty Immortals" calls to mind the circumstance that at the time that paper called for ballots on the subject, the *Herald-Crimson*, a daily paper published by Harvard students, also instituted a similar contest, the results of which, with the original ballots, were forward-

ed to the *Critic*. If my recollection serves me correctly, there were about sixty undergraduate votes cast in the limited time allowed, and the Harvard constituency necessarily had a large influence on the result of the *Critic's* contest.

Harvard's "Forty" were as follows: George William Curtis (on every ballot); Thomas B. Aldrich, George Bancroft, Bret Harte, O. W. Holmes, J. R. Lowell, C. D. Warner (on every ballot but one); George W. Cable, Francis J. Child, Henry James, and J. G. Whittier (on every ballot but two); James Freeman Clarke, E. E. Hale, W. D. Howells, E. C. Stedman, and R. G. White (on every ballot but three); Asa Gray, Julian Hawthorne, and William Dwight Whitney (on every ballot but four); S. L. Clemens, Prof. W. W. Goodwin, and Walt Whitman (on every ballot but five); John Fiske and President McCosh (on every ballot but six); G. P. Lathrop, Whitelaw Reid, and Carl Schurz (on all but seven); Edgar Fawcett, J. Brander Matthews, C. E. Norton, and R. H. Stoddard (on all but eight); C. A. Dana and W. G. Sumner (on all but nine); John Burroughs, Josiah P. Cooke, R. W. Gilder, John T. Morse, jr., John K. Paine, N. S. Shaler, and Moses Coit Tyler (on all but ten).

Comparing this list with that of the *Critic*, it will be found that twenty-six names are on both lists. Carl Schurz and President McCosh received enough votes to be on the *Critic's* list, but that paper declared them ineligible as not being native-born.

It is worthy of note that three of the nine chosen by the "Immortals" themselves were members of Harvard's "Forty."—Yours,

C. T. Greve.

Cincinnati, August 25, 1890.

THE LATE EUGENE SCHUYLER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I presume that some more extended account of the life and work of the late Mr. Schuyler than the appreciative notice in your columns will be prepared by some competent hand. But, while his memory is still fresh, I should like to draw attention to a phase of his character which has made a very deep impression upon me.

When Eugene Schuyler entered Yale College, he was the smallest and, with one exception possibly, the youngest of the undergraduates. Few who knew him at that time will forget the gentle, rosy-cheeked, large-eyed boy, who seemed so out of place among the somewhat rude and noisy members of the class of '59. Naturally he never kicked football nor played "wicket" (a kind of bastard cricket much in vogue in those days), and very rarely did he venture into a boat. I am not sure that he ever climbed to the top of either East or West Rock. To this disinclination to all outdoor sports or exercise was joined a real timidity and shrinking from anything involving hardship or danger. More than once have I guarded him to his room in the evening during our periodic hostilities with the New Haven firemen. Even still more marked was a feminine sensitiveness to a rough word or hostile criticism. In these respects he remained unchanged to the end of his college course, though in other ways he matured. In our last years he took the women's rôle in the college theatricals, and looked his part to perfection.

After graduation our paths separated, and I knew almost nothing of him for years beyond the mere fact that he had gone to Russia. Great was my surprise, therefore, to have him brought suddenly to mind one day, when reading the opening chapters of MacGahan's 'Campaigning on the Oxus.' In these I found Schuyler on the threshold of one of the most adventurous and perilous journeys which a man could undertake in 1873. The least that it demanded was the greatest powers of endurance. One might almost say that the easiest, certainly the safest, part was the beginning, the four weeks of travel, day and night, in a tarantass, across the Siberian plains, with the thermometer from thirty to fifty degrees below zero. But to penetrate into farthest Turkestan, almost alone, at the very time that Russia was advancing upon Khiva and intensifying every Turkoman's hatred of the Christian, demanded a perfect fearlessness of danger joined with the ability to compel unwilling men to perform one's will, and an inflexibility of purpose overcome by no obstacle, which only few men have possessed.

The courage which, to recall a single instance, enabled him to face unflinchingly the mob of Bokhariot pilgrims whom a fanatic was inciting to murder him, was displayed in a still more striking manner three years after this during his investigation of the Turkish atrocities in Bulgaria. With only seven companions he traversed the harried region, at times riding by "paths so steep," writes MacGahan, who is again with him, "that we were obliged to dismount and walk half the time, without then seeming quite safe from rolling down into some abyss." Schuyler had two interpreters, the one a smooth-tongued Greek, the other a rough Armenian, if my memory does not fail me. It was his custom, during the examination of ordinary witnesses, to employ the Greek. But when one of those Turkish brutes like the mudir of Batak was before him, he browbeat him into cringing subjection by the aid of the Armenian. It is difficult for me to imagine a greater contrast than that presented by the gentle, almost girlish collegian that I knew, and this Consul-General, nearly alone in the heart of the Balkans, surrounded by men still red-handed with Christian blood and thirsting to shed his, yet calmly compelling them by the pure force of his will to do his bidding.

A few years ago, when his active career was nearly over, I saw him in Boston. Naturally we talked of what he had done, and, in answer to a remark of mine in reference to this change in him which I have noted, he said: "In all my journeyings I never mounted my horse in the morning without a shudder of terror." So, after all, the natural timidity, the constitutional shrinking from hardship and peril, was still there, but kept under by his will. Just as he mastered the Uzbek, the Bokhariot, and the Turk, so he compelled his fears to yield to his determination to extend the bounds of knowledge at one time, to bring aid to an oppressed people at another. From that day I have regarded Eugene Schuyler as the bravest man whom I have ever known.

James Mascarene Hubbard.

Boston, August 26, 1890.

Notes.

By a singular oversight the address of Mr. William E. A. Axon was omitted from his letter in last week's issue relating to his monograph on Thomas Taylor, the Platonist. It is Armytage, Ashley Road, Bowdon, Manchester, England.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish this month the fifth and sixth volumes of Henry Adams's 'History of the United States,' covering the first Administration of Madison; an 'Introduction to Philosophy,' by Prof. Geo. T. Ladd; 'The Evidence of Christian Experience,' by Prof. Lewis F. Stearns; 'Belief in God,' by Prof. J. G. Schurman; 'Citizeness Bonaparte,' from the French of Imbert de Saint-Amand, by Thos. S. Perry; and 'A Little Book of Western Verse' and 'A Little Book of Profitable Tales,' by Eugene Field.

Macmillan & Co. will add to their "Adventure Series" 'Fellow's Adventures and Sufferings during his Twenty-three Years' Captivity in Morocco,' edited by Dr. Robert Brown; a one-volume edition of Shelley's Poetical Works, complete, edited by Prof. Dowden; 'The Conflict of Capital and Labor,' by George Howell, M.P. (a second edition), and 'Stories from the Bible,' by the Rev. A. J. Church.

Cassell & Co. announce the fifth volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers,' ending with a review of the 'Canterbury Tales'; 'The Anglomaniacs,' a story which has made its mark in the *Century*; 'Horse Stories, and Stories of Other Animals,' by Col. T. W. Knox; and 'Wanted—a King; or, How Merle Set the Nursery Rhymes to Rights,' by Maggie Browne, with illustrations by Harry Furniss.

A new work for popular reading and for use in schools, 'Civil Government in the United States, considered with some reference to its Origins,' by John Fiske, is on the eve of publication by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Harper & Bros. announce for immediate publication 'Campaigning with Crook,' by Capt. Charles King.

Mrs. Gen. Charles H. T. Collis, author of a pleasant little volume, 'A Woman's War Record,' has prepared for the press an account of what may already be called a fashionable tour—grand and thronged at any rate—namely, by the Northern Pacific Railroad to the coast, and to Sitka. It will be entitled 'A Woman's Trip through Alaska,' and will be illustrated by Mrs. Collis's camera.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have in press 'The Record of the Life of the Rev. Stephen H. Tyng, D.D.'; 'Inspiration and the Bible,' by Robert P. Horton; 'The Relation of Confirmation to Baptism,' by the Rev. Arthur J. Mason; 'Christian Socialism, What and Why?' by the Rev. Philo Spragus; 'Modern Criticism Considered in its relation to the Fourth Gospel,' by Canon Watkins; and 'The Causes of the Soul,' sermons by the Rev. William R. Huntington.

Among the speedy publications of Thomas Whittaker will appear 'A History of the American Episcopal Church, from the Planting of the Colonies to the Close of the Civil War,' by the Rev. S. D. McConnell; and 'The World and the Man,' being Bishop Thompson's Baldwin Lectures for 1890.

T. Nelson & Sons have nearly ready the 'Finger New Testament,' a miniature volume of 552 pages, weighing less than an ounce.

Jæger's biography of Ibsen has been translated into English by William Morton Payne, and will be issued, with illustrations, by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

J. W. Bouton, 8 West Twenty-eighth Street, will be the American agent of the new limited edition of the works of Sir William Stirling-Maxwell, announced from London last week.

Mr. B. F. Stevens, No. 4 Trafalgar Square, London, puts out a supplemental prospectus of his great 'Facsimiles of Manuscripts relating to America, from 1763 to 1783, in the Archives of England, France, Holland, and Spain,' of which the fifth volume, closing the first series, is now being delivered on this side of the water. The next five, we are told, "will open the important correspondence from 1776 of the American Deputies in Paris, the diplomatic relations of France with the American, French,

Dutch, and Spanish officials, and much commercial and political intelligence from merchants and private parties concerning America and American affairs." The eleven thousand pages of Peace Transcripts now on deposit in the Department of State are not included in the present series. Mr. Stevens calls attention to the value, from an heraldic and historical point of view, of the seals he reproduces with all faithfulness. More rapid progress is secured by the erection of photographic studios at the Foreign Office Archives in Paris and the Public Record Office in London, which will allow ten volumes to be issued yearly. Mr. Stevens justly appeals for a more extended support.

From Westermann & Co. we have the prospectus of an important publication by Hachette & Cie., 'Premiers Monuments de l'Imprimerie en France au XVe Siècle,' by O. Thierry-Poux, one of the curators of the National Library. It will be adorned with plates, embracing 289 facsimiles in heliogravure. The work is issued under the auspices of the Minister of Public Instruction. The art of printing was exercised in France during the fifteenth century in no fewer than 41 places, and there were 145 printers and booksellers.

Mr. Joseph Forster publishes, under the title 'Four Great Teachers' (Scribner & Welford), papers upon Ruskin, Carlyle, Emerson, and Browning, chosen from a number of lectures which he is accustomed to read. They do not fall short of the requirements of the platform for an hour's popular entertainment; as literary essays they are valueless.

Thomas Nelson & Sons publish 'The Lives of English Authors,' which fails of being either a text-book or a manual. Chaucer is included in the roll, but Spenser is the next name, and the subsequent development of literature is divided into three periods not happily discriminated. Longer biographies, mainly made up of dates and other uninteresting matter blocked off in numbered paragraphs, are furnished of the greater writers, and these are supplemented by short notices of the remainder. In this way about seventy authors, thirty being in the first class, are summarily and dryly disposed of. The quality of critical faculty and knowledge exhibited may be judged by the fact that while Beattie and Falconer and McPherson and Knowles are in the list, Collins, Keats, Shelley, Landor, to name only a few, are omitted from the English portion, and Hawthorne, Emerson, and Cooper from the American, while Lowell is reduced to the dimensions of a note.

A new edition of Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets' (Bohn's Standard Library, Scribner & Welford) meets a real need. Cunningham's edition tampered greatly with the text, though with the laudable purpose of correcting its material errors and lessening its inherent defects; but in this way he impaired much of its value. He inserted matter omitted by Johnson himself, and rearranged paragraphs, besides changing names and dates. The present editor, Mrs. Alexander Napier, has restored the text of Johnson's revised edition of 1783, and has made all the needed corrections, verified quotations, and given explanatory matter at the foot of the page, with credit for what has been taken from other commentators. Mr. J. W. Hales furnishes an introduction, in which he points out the real value of the work as historical, being in the main a summary of what the eighteenth century thought about its own literature. In the appendices is some new matter, especially in the interesting note contributed by Dr. Kopernicki and M. Pauli of the Jagolonienne University of Cracow, upon the Scotch settlers in Poland, from whom a tax decimation was levied by the Diet in 1650 in aid of Charles II., realizing £10,000. The general belief in 1620 was that there were 30,000 Scotch families in that kingdom, of whom the major part must have been peddlers, a class well known by the proverb, "Scotch Peddler in Poland." Decrees regarding them are given as early as 1585, and in the records of Warsaw Scotch names are given from 1573. Many returned home (the example of the Skene family is cited in detail), and to these Lithgow refers when he says: "Poland was the mother of our commons, the first commencement of our best merchants' wealth, or at least the most part of them." Among those who remained was a Gordon branch, who now assume the title of Marquis of Huntley, and are settled north of Cracow. The note contains many interesting quotations and details on this obscure historical point. So far as we have observed, the editor's work has been very faithfully done, and her information is abreast of the latest minute researches into the biographies of the eighteenth-century writers, and she has consulted the best authorities upon the older poets who came into Johnson's survey. The edition is in three well-printed volumes.

The new edition of Dr. Burckhardt's learned work on 'The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy,' translated by S. G. C. Middlemore, in a single closely printed volume (Macmillan), signalizes the estimation in which this most elaborate and thoughtful account of the disintegration of the mediæval spirit and the rise of modern ideals in Italy is held by scholars. It is an indispensable work for the study of the period, and its publication in a cheaper form is to be welcomed.

A new edition of Mr. Robert Waters's popular 'Life and Writings of William Cobbett' has just been published by the Worthington Company. The readability of it has been much enhanced by the appendix, containing several charming letters to the author from one of Cobbett's daughters, a lady of the old school, in her eighty-first year. These afford, also, biographical data of some importance by way of correction. Cobbett's posterity seems to be both hardy and numerous.

The second part of the Prolegomena to the eighth edition of Tischendorf's 'Novum Testamentum Græce,' prepared by Dr. Caspar R. Gregory, has lately been issued by J. C. Hinrichs, Leipzig (New York: Westermann). It consists, besides some addenda to the preceding catalogue of uncial codices, of a catalogue of the miniscule codices in which a continuous text of the New Testament occurs, and those here noticed number 2,800, while 200 others have been seen by Dr. Gregory; and a catalogue of lectionaries, also very extensive. The late lamented Ezra Abbot was an associate in this enormous labor.

The weighty utterances of Bishop Potter in the domain of politics and in the forum of the scholar's conscience should make a large demand for No. 23 of *Sun and Shade* (Photogravure Co., 137 West Twenty-third Street, New York), in which the first plate is an excellent portrait of this divine. Another of the plates continues the Gettysburg series with a view of Spangler's Spring. Of the remainder, the scene from Yucatan most deserves mention.

St. Nicholas, which, but a short time ago, wisely adopted larger type for its "Letter-Box," is, in its September issue, guilty of a serious lapse into evil typographical ways. "A Page of Sketches by a Young Contributor" consists of a number of drawings, the descriptive legend of which is so microscopic as to defy any but a very myopic eye. Two lines in particular, which few adults will have the hardihood to decipher, are among the smallest we have ever seen in print, and we shudder to think how many youthful eyes have attempted the task.

The Astronomische Gesellschaft of Leipzig is an association of astronomers and friends of astronomy, with the object of advancing that science, particularly in such directions as require systematic coöperation. At its second meeting, in 1865, the Society organized a system of meridian-circle observations, according to a definite programme, to obtain accurate positions of all the stars of the 'Bonner Durchmusterung' down to the ninth magnitude, included in a zone 82 degrees in breadth, whose northern limit is the parallel ten degrees from the north pole. The execution of this programme, involving perhaps the greatest amount of astronomical routine work ever undertaken, was begun at once, thirteen observatories coöperating, eleven European and two American. Many years later, the programme was extended into the southern skies, making the entire zone 103 degrees in breadth. The eminent German astronomer, Dr. Arthur Auwers of Berlin, has the general direction of this great work, which has now so far advanced that publication is already begun. The first two quarto volumes have reached us, the work of Dr. Krueger at Helsingfors and Gotha, and of Prof. Lewis Boss at the Dudley Observatory, Albany. The latter volume contains the customary catalogue-data for more than 8,000 stars, and the former for nearly 15,000. Besides Albany, the other American observatories coöperating in the completed programme of the Gesellschaft are at Cambridge and Washington.

In Gottfried Keller, whose death occurred at Zürich on July 15, German literature has lost a writer who, in freshness of imagination and originality of language, if not in constructive power, excelled most contemporary novelists. As he inclined to depict the exceptions rather than the normal type of humanity, Keller perhaps stopped short of the highest goal of literary greatness; but some of his productions at least, above all the 'Leute von Seldwyla,' the 'Züricher Novellen,' and the inimitable 'Legenden,' will always remain revelations of human nature at large. Since the days of Haller no Swiss writer has exerted such a powerful influence upon German literature as Keller; a fact which, taken together with the Böcklin craze raging all over Germany, is as creditable to the intellectual activity of Switzerland as it is significant for the literary and artistic stagnation of the new German Empire.

—The September *Atlantic* has, first and last, a great deal of history in it. Mr. Justin Winsor leads off with a disquisition on how to write and how not to write historical narrative, and leaves the reader with a mind full of uncertainty and an expectation of endless rewriting of the past. History, if we read the somewhat gnomic sentences correctly, is, in the writer's view, in a state of perpetually unstable equilibrium, and will continue to fall about our heads as soon as built. In interesting juxtaposition with this is the all-comprehensive "Development of Modern European Historiography," by Prof. Jameson, in which we are taken through the successive stages of historical composition, shown how one age differed from another in glory and method, and what particular course was adopted in each epoch and all European countries, so that we have a bird's-eye view of what European historical

works have in fact been. To what extent Mr. Winsor's opinion is borne out by this survey the reader must judge. Mr. John Fiske deals with the special topic of the "Disasters of 1780," and offers a practical illustration of at least one new way of writing American history, and a most stimulating one. We find yet further on in the number an account of Mme. de Montespan and her immediate family, made up mainly from the memoirs of the time by the way of abundant quotation, with a thread of gentle comment tending to conciliate the reader and direct attention to the personal qualities of mind and manner of this group of persons, to interest us in their fortunes, and especially to mark out the strain of family tradition in all the members—that "Mortemart brilliancy" which was recognized by every one in them and in the young people they brought up, so that Mme. de Maintenon, praising a granddaughter of Mme. de Montespan, could say, "Elle s'exprime en Mortemart." The personal delineations in this paper are remarkably cut, and the literary *finesse* of the writer is wholly successful. Mr. Lowell's lines on Fielding give poetic distinction to the number.

—First to arrest the eye in *Scribner's* are Mr. Zogbaum's spirited illustrations of the cruise of the United States squadron to Lisbon, in which various aspects of ocean weather and of the interior life of the men aboard ship are effectively drawn. The text of this paper is something more than a log of the voyage, and is written, not without success, in the impressionist style. The illustrations with which Mr. Donald G. Mitchell adds interest to his charming account of country-houses also are prominent, and are well selected to reinforce the comments of the writer on the historical examples of country-house architecture on our eastern coast North and South. He confines his attention, it should be said, to the real and abiding country-house, not the villa for the summer, but one that is meant to be inhabited the year round. He writes in his always agreeable style, and with a love of country living which alone would account for the wide knowledge he displays of the American manor and wayside houses of the older time. The right of the citizen to his own property gives occasion for a general view of the gradual encroachment of public interests in matters anciently considered wholly private, with respect to property, and more particularly for some brief discussion of the recent, already famous decisions of the Supreme Court which seem to open ground for an indefinite development of the control of the Legislature over private business. The writer shows a decidedly conservative tone of mind. Mr. Thomas Stevens writes of the African river systems, Prof. Shaler of the influences of geography upon the early races, and C. Emma Cheney upon Heligoland, a short but sufficient description of this miniature community. Mr. W. C. Larned defends Millet from some recent criticism, and in the region of literature we observe one of Mr. T. R. Sullivan's carefully studied stories, and a poem by Mr. Scollard, in which he reaches the extreme point of talent and technique in the latter-day poetic manner; but to be really memorable in that sort one must invent a new *genre*.

—The prominent paper in *Harper's* is the first in the promised series upon American colleges, the subject in this instance being Harvard and the author Prof. Norton. There is but little detail in the paper, which is less a description of the University as it is than a general view of its lines of development in the last twenty years in connection with the collateral development of the nation. Prof. Norton sees in the many changes which have taken place under the administration of President Eliot the growth of a distinctive American ideal of the University, and in his judgment progress has already proceeded so far that we have no occasion to lament any serious deficiencies in the general scheme of study. He points out the undesirable results of the tendency to multiply small institutions of learning instead of concentrating endowments upon those already in existence, and he notices the fact that the college-bred class does not keep pace in numbers with the increase of the population. He also declares that, notwithstanding the large funds of the College, five millions more are needed to allow it to do all that it is capable of doing; but he exhibits the multiplicity of studies, the richness of the collections, the growth of the new graduate department, the excellence of the physical régime, the improved standard of conduct among the students, the democratic character of their life, and the comparatively low necessary cost of education. He estimates that if a student obtains an average scholarship, $236, an equal sum of his own is all that is really required for college expenses, exclusive of clothes. This strikes us as certainly a minimum. He calls attention to the fact that a degree can now be earned in three years. His remarks upon the influence of very rich students and the benefit of their residence to themselves are noticeable. The only unfavorable comment he has to make is upon the lack of architecture in the college buildings, and upon the comparatively low degree of attention bestowed on those studies which cultivate the imagination directly. The view taken is an optimistic one, and suggests no doubt of the wisdom of the changes already made, not even the reduction of the course, which has seemed to many a concession to the practical and materialistic spirit whose operation in American life Prof. Norton has most distinctly considered disproportionate. The entire paper must be regarded as a defence and eulogy of the new Harvard of the time.

—The *Century* contributes a clerical paper to the discussion, always more or less active, of the meaning and importance of socialistic ideas which have an alarmist signification to a certain group of people with philanthropic sympathies. Prof. Shields writes it, with some assistance from Bishop Potter. The attempt is made to define different phases of socialism, to show their relations with "the Church," and to argue in favor of unity of the Protestant sects in an "American Catholic Church" as a means of exerting a social influence for the regeneration of "the State." The paper is conveniently divided into headings, among which we find a group: "Christian Doctrine of Social Distinctions," "Christian Doctrine of Property," "Christian Doctrine of Poverty." This intimates that civil polity is a part of religion, and makes the same assumption that is involved in the occasional letters of the Pope to the world at large, in which he declares the "Christian doctrine" of liberty of the press and of the duty of the masses to their established rulers, etc.; but scrutiny of the "Christian Doctrine of Property," for example, as pronounced by the present authority, does not show us any close connection between corporate rights, land tenure, or the like, and the Sermon on the Mount, the Lord's Prayer, or St. John's Gospel, or any other of the sources of our "religion." The customs of the Jewish law or the moral maxims of Christ supply a rule of life, but a "doctrine of property" is another thing. We are told, for example, that "the voice of Divine Wisdom . . . calls upon rich men to weep and howl for the miseries that are to come upon them in the day when the cries of laborers whose hire is kept back by fraud have entered into the ears of the Lord of Sabaoth," and exhorts laborers to treat their employers as brethren, "not with eye-service as men-pleasers, but in singleness of heart, fearing God, and having his blessing when they suffer wrongfully." But the Day of Judgment threatened the rich and "the blessing of God" as a comfort to the victims of the sweating system are far-off things, and hardly competent to a "doctrine of property." It is not so long since this same "Christian doctrine" meant, being interpreted, compensation to slaveholders. In brief, State policy as a part of religion was long ago left behind, and the present discussion shows no aptitude of the clerical mind for statecraft. The notion that "the Church," as such, contains a system of civil polity in its "doctrine" which is capable of regenerating society by "organized" Church unity of action, is one of the most dangerous ideas that ever begot tyranny in the past, and there is no reason to think that it would be a less serious misfortune to-day if the Church had power. In our civilization the idea has no place. As for the "Christian Doctrine of Social Distinctions," the very phrase is satire on what Christians have made of Christ.

—The session of the Harvard Summer School of Geology, now about closing, is the most successful in point of numbers of any that has been held since the first camping school in Kentucky, in 1875. An elementary class of sixteen students—men and women—was given instruction in the Museum at Cambridge for four weeks in July, with lectures, laboratory work, and local field excursions. This is adapted particularly for teachers who wish practice in methods of study and presentation. An advanced class of twenty students—men only—spend six weeks in moving about the country, from Utica, N. Y., to Martha's Vineyard, Mass. The class gathered at Utica early in August to study the New York series of palæozoic rocks, these lying horizontal in normal sequence, well exposed in many ravines and generally fossiliferous. A week was then given to Catskill, where the same rocks are tilted, crumpled, and broken. Peekskill, in the highlands of the Hudson, was the next stopping-place, chosen for its excellent sections of crystalline and intrusive rocks. The class then proceeded to Meriden, Conn., to examine the Triassic formation, with its sheets of intrusive and extrusive lavas, all tilted and greatly faulted. The work closes at Gay Head, Martha's Vineyard, where cretaceous and tertiary strata are exposed in the shore cliffs, overlaid by glacial deposits. Four instructors share the teaching in this class, each one taking the party for a week or more at some locality familiar to him, so that its problems can be presented in the manner most advantageous to the students. A third division of the school is attended by several more advanced students, accompanying the field parties by which certain professional work of the instructors is carried on in different parts of New England.

—In the *Revue Bleue* of July 26, M. Maurice Albert calls M. Philippe Daryl to account for saying, in his 'Renaissance Physique,' that the English game of foot-ball is identical with the Roman *follis*. Perhaps one should say almost identical, for M. Daryl admits that the *follis* was struck with the fists; nevertheless he maintains that it was practically the same game

as foot-ball, and was played by persons of all ages, quoting in support of his contention Martial's line :

"Folle decet pueros, ludere folle senes."

This is an extremely careless quotation, for Martial is by no means recommending the game as suitable for everybody, but only as a gentle sport fit for old men and boys. This appears plainly from the line that comes next before the one which M. Daryl quotes. The passage runs :

"Ite procul juvenes; mitis mihi convenit aetas;
Folle decet pueros ludere, folle senes."

The *ludus follis* of the ancients was in fact, as coins show, a game analogous to the Italian *gioco di pallone*, with perhaps a distant resemblance to shuttle-cock. The *follis* was a ball filled with air, very light, and often decorated with feathers. Clement of Alexandria and Galen recommend the game as proper for such as cannot bear much fatigue, for elderly people and convalescents. It is obvious that they could not have meant anything like modern English foot-ball. This latter game, M. Albert Maurice holds, is the same as the Spartan *harpaston*, which Lucian says was played in the time of Lycurgus, and which became a favorite amusement of the Romans down to the time of the end of the Empire. Galen describes this game minutely. A struggle for the ball was its characteristic feature, as its name denotes, and sprains and bruises, dislocation of joints, and broken bones were its concomitants, as now.

—The announcement of the death of Mme. Ackermann calls for a word of obituary notice, if it be only to remark that, in spite of the modern note of despair that is characteristic of her verse, she died one of the most obscure and least read of poets. Louise Victorine Choquet was born in Paris, November 13, 1813. In her youth she passed through many phases of religious belief, but by the year 1840 she had settled down into steady-going atheism and pessimism. About this time she met Prof. Paul Ackermann and married him, and they lived at Berlin till his death in 1846. Then she returned to Paris, where she published a volume of *contes* in 1855, and soon after retired to Nice, where she lived for the rest of her days in seclusion. While there she published 'Poésies,' 1877 ; 'Pensées d'une Solitaire,' preceded by an autobiography, 1883 ; and 'Ma Vie,' 1885. Her audience was never large, but it numbered good intellects, among whom she was accounted the most remarkable woman of letters since George Sand. She was a most austere pessimist—a "puritan atheist," Anatole France calls her, "a saint of atheism." In her eyes marriage was a loathsome crime, and to bring children into this world of misery the most wretched of sins. Anatole France relates that once, while he was visiting her, she broke completely off a lifelong friendship, and drove a companion of her childhood out of her house, because the poor lady, who was sitting beside the fire, handed the tongs to an infirm old gentleman in a manner "*trop instinctive.*" Her verses breathe her spirit. It remains only to say that, like many another pessimist of old time or of our time, she passed through this worst of all possible worlds surrounded by many comforts.

THE EARLY DIARY OF FRANCES BURNEY.—I.

The Early Diary of Frances Burney. 1768–1778. Edited by Annie Raine Ellis. 2 vols. London: George Bell & Sons.

'THE EARLY DIARY OF FRANCES BURNEY' must interest every student either of character or of society. The book is the portrait of a woman endowed with rare genius; it is the graphic picture of a society at once so like and so unlike the world of to-day that its true features are with difficulty understood by the Englishmen or Americans of the nineteenth century.

Frances Burney's eminence among the novelists of England is indisputable, yet it is often but grudgingly acknowledged by the modern readers of 'Evelina' or 'Cecilia.' They say, and with truth, that she has nothing like the finished style or the fidelity to nature to be found in many of her successors. She has not the epigrammatic turn of Miss Edgeworth; she does not paint the comfortable dulness of English parsonages or country houses with the exactness of Miss Austen; she has little, according to modern taste at any rate, of the grace of Mrs. Gaskell; she does not claim the force of Miss Brontë and her sisters, nor does she make the slightest pretence to the learning, the thoughtfulness, or the philosophy, whatever be its worth, of George Eliot. She is simply, at any rate in her best and earliest works, a bright, clever girl, who, full of spirit and sympathy and gifted with keenest observation, sketches off men and women as they passed before the gaze of her thoughtful eyes.

Her claim to distinction is, however, undeniable. It rests in part upon the effect produced by her works upon her own generation. In matters of oratory, of acting, of literary style—in all pursuits, in fact, which aim at exciting human interest and appeal to human emotions—success is its own vindication. A speaker who sways his audience at his will is, say what you like, an orator. A player who enthralls pit and gallery alike, who fills the spectators with amusement, who arouses their sense of terror, of pity, or of sympathy, is, in despite of all critics, a true actor. An unknown and anonymous novelist whose tale becomes the talk of the day, who is admired at once by every ordinary reader, and also by men such as Johnson, Burke, Garrick, and Sheridan, is above criticism. A wise critic will, in the case of such a writer as Miss Burney, analyze the novelist's powers, and describe, if he can, the nature and limitations of her genius, but he will show himself ignorant of his art if he doubts for a moment the validity of her claim to a high rank among the writers of England.

But, in truth, her title to fame rests on an even more solid basis than the admiration of contemporaries. She was the first and the most "original" (in the strictest sense of the word) of the long line of female novelists whose tales form one of the peculiar glories of English literature. She drew nothing from any predecessor. She had, we may suppose, though this is not certain, read Richardson and Fielding; but neither of these authors was exactly a model for a young lady's sketches of family life and society. She was, in the main, left to the guidance of her own genius, and she wrote not so much naturally (for you may find stilted sentences even in 'Evelina') as from nature. The comparison may seem far fetched, but in more points than one she may be compared with Dickens. Neither the author of 'Evelina' nor the author of 'Pickwick' followed any model; each trusted to natural power of expression and to a natural gift for observation; each had the keenest eye for the drolleries and the oddities of life; each was endowed with keenness of sympathy. Each—and this is no trifle—looked at existence mainly from the point of view of a Londoner, and each added to the immediate effectiveness, but detracted from the truthfulness, of their portraits by the exaggeration of quaint traits and personal peculiarities. Each, in spite of this tendency towards caricature, was guided by a natural refinement of feeling which prevented caricature from partaking of coarseness.

Miss Burney in one respect has been far more fortunate than Charles Dickens, or, indeed, than any other novelist whom we can at this moment remember, except Scott. Most story-tellers live rather in their stories than in the history of their own lives. We know Dickens from 'David Copperfield'; we know Miss Brontë from 'Jane Eyre' and 'Villette'; we know George Eliot from 'Clerical Sketches' and the 'Mill on the Floss'; our real knowledge of these writers is in reality diminished by reading their letters or their biographies. Most persons feel that Dickens and George Eliot, at any rate, to speak of no others, would be known to us much better had no one ever undertaken to write their lives. With Frances Burney it is different; the more that is known of her diaries the better for her fame. The diaries of Madame D'Arblay are fully as good reading as her novels. 'The Early Diary of Frances Burney' is as charming a piece of writing as can be found in English literature. It tells us what Frances Burney was like, and "Fannikin," to use the pet name given her by Mr. Crisp, is more lovable and more interesting than either Evelina or Cecilia. Fanny, moreover, when we see her writing her diary, or corresponding with Daddy Crisp, explains the authoress of 'Evelina.' It takes no great acuteness to trace in her earliest diaries the gifts which turned, by little more than a happy chance, in the direction of literature, and made Fanny the earliest and, in many senses, the first among the female novelists of England. It is worth while to consider for a moment what these gifts were.

Nature gave her the power of literary expression. No doubt this power is itself the result of other qualities; still, style, strange though the fact be, seems almost to be a gift of its own. When Frances was not more than sixteen, she wrote with a grace and ease which many writers never attain through the practice of a lifetime. That this was so is proved conclusively by the dedication of her journal "to a Certain Miss Nobody." The idea itself is humorous. The whole reads like a piece of Thackeray's 'Roundabout Papers.' The last paragraph is a sufficient proof that this statement is no exaggeration:

"I will suppose you, then, to be my best friend (tho' Heaven forbid you ever should !), my dearest companion—and a romantick girl, for mere oddity may perhaps be more sincere, more tender, than if you were a friend in propria persona—inasmuch as imagination often exceeds reality. In your breast my errors may create pity without exciting contempt; may raise your compassion without eradicating your love. From this moment, then, my dear girl—but why, permit me to ask, must a *female* be made Nobody ? Ah ! my dear, what were this world good for, *were* Nobody a female ? And now I have done with preambulation."

Let the reader note, too, that this "Miss Nobody" is always turning up in the earlier pages of the diary ; that the journal is not meant for the eye of any one but Fanny herself, and that the references to Miss Nobody are invariably introduced so as to add a certain sense of grace and ease and humor to the writing. When these things are duly weighed, we shall safely conclude that Fanny was born with as natural a turn for the use of the pen as falls to some geniuses for the use of the pencil. But the study of her diaries betrays much more to a sensible critic than Fanny's natural literary talent. A person may possess the

power of expression and yet have no thoughts which are worth being expressed. Now, Frances Burney had, besides the gift of putting her thought into words, a power of natural and, so to speak, humorous observation which has hardly been possessed in the same degree by any novelist except Dickens. Every page of her diary affords proof that she was constantly noting and constantly recording the humors of life. In the main this was due to turn of character; it was fostered, however, by two circumstances, the one peculiar to Miss Burney's position, the other belonging to the time in which she lived.

Her early life was passed amid musicians, actors, artists, authors; it was a life of "respectable Bohemianism," if such an expression does not involve a contradiction. The bright, silent, observant, and reflective girl saw in her father's house a great deal more of men and manners than is seen by most young ladies. Garrick, Johnson, actors, singers, and authors, were all on more or less friendly terms with Dr. Burney. Arthur Young, to whom there is more than one reference in the diaries, was a household friend. Garrick was always coming in and out, joking and playing with the pleasant daughters of his friend. The atmosphere that surrounded Fanny was literary and theatrical.

The receiving and writing of letters, again, was, at any rate in the circle in which the Burneys moved, a real interest and employment. We must remember what letters were in 1768, the date when Fanny's diaries begin. They really told news—things and events of true interest, which friends in the country like Crisp would not know except for his correspondents. Papers, magazines, reviews, constant visits to London, were, we must remember, quite unknown to ordinary English ladies and gentlemen a century ago. Johnson's voyage to the Hebrides was looked upon as at least as remarkable a performance as would to-day be a journey by a leading man of letters to an out-of-the-way part of Russia. A lady from the country who visited London, or a young woman who went from London into the country, had something of real novelty to tell her friends at home; and her friends, not being provided with an immense supply of light literature, were heartily glad to read her letters. We may be quite sure that any one who had a talent for narrative, and especially for reporting conversations, was pressed or compelled to become a letter-writer. Now, Fanny's power of narrating conversation in a vivid form was equal to that of Boswell. At every turn this gift reappears. The whole account, to take one example, of Mr. Barlow's courtship of herself, or of Mr. Seaton's attentions to Hetty Burney, which somehow just failed of culminating into a courtship, is as lively as a novel. We know exactly how Mr. Barlow blundered in his endeavors to force his attentions upon Frances, and how Mr. Seaton excited expectations which were ultimately disappointed in the mind of Hetty. The manner, the address, the very words of both gentlemen, are recorded in Fanny's diary. We can well understand why it was that Daddy Crisp presses for her letters, or how it happened that a young lady who had never published a line could describe society in letters to and from Evelina with a skill not often attained by experienced novel-writers.

The passion, indeed, for letter-writing which marked the generation to which Miss Burney belonged was so strong that it left a permanent mark upon the prevailing form of narrative. Modern readers are surprised that Richardson, Rousseau, Miss Burney, and others should have thought that a correspondence was a suitable form in which to tell a tale of romance. The letters which, for instance, tell the tragedy of Clarissa Harlowe impede the narrative, and a modern reader finds it difficult to understand how, even by a stretch of imagination, Lovelace should be supposed to occupy every spare moment in the writing of letters. The explanation is simple: people of education did in the last century give up a great deal of their time and thought to letter-writing. Events which interested a family were really related in the family correspondence. Authors who threw a tale into an epistolary form no doubt exaggerated the tendency to put down all the events of domestic life on paper, just as a dramatist exaggerates for the purposes of the theatre the habit of giving expression to feeling or thought in speech. But though it is not true that men give expression in words to all their thoughts and feelings, yet it is true that a great deal of thought and feeling is reproduced in speech; and just so, though it is not true that domestic correspondence ever tells the whole life of a man or family, still, towards the end of the last century, it was true that letters contained a great deal of family and even of public history. If Trollope had lived a century ago, letters would have played a far greater part than they do in his novels. Letter-writing has become a lost art; an age of post-cards cannot understand an age of letters.

The mere form of Miss Burney's novels, indeed, strikes the novel-readers of to-day as awkward and unattractive. They are marked at once by a stiffness and also by a simplicity very unlike the easy expression and the subtlety of sentiment which mark the novels of the nineteenth century. The ceremonious manner in which Evelina addresses her guardian, and the pomposity of the moral sentiment in which her guardian replies to his ward, strikes us as unreal and affected. There is, however, far less of affectation in Evelina's language than we should naturally suppose. The formality which surprises us was the formality of the times, not of Evelina or of Evelina's creator. There is mixed with this formality of style a very curious simplicity of idea. The jokes which amuse Evelina and her friends, and which convulsed the readers of 'Evelina' with amusement, are not the sort of humor which would amuse the young ladies whose portraits are given us by Trollope or Miss Yonge. Yet who can really doubt that Miss Burney, with the formality of her style and with the simplicity of her ideas, possessed a touch of genius never found in a single page of Miss Yonge's natural but pointless narratives of every-day life? Fanny Burney has the one supreme power of giving life to her narrative. The whole description, for example, of the private theatricals at Barborne Lodge is a vivid picture of country society in the eighteenth century. Fanny has nothing remarkable to tell, but somehow, when you have read her account of the actors and their performances, you feel at once that a scene of bygone times has been brought before your eyes. But to see Frances Burney at her very best, she should be narrating conversation; she belongs intellectually to the family of Boswell. She could not hear people talk without picking out all that was pointed in their conversation, and putting it down. One cannot help even now pardoning the unhappy Mr. Barlow all the distress he caused Fanny, for the sake of the picture which Miss Burney has left us of her interview with this most awkward and unappreciated of lovers. The conversations between them are too long for citation, but any one who will read them—and they are easy reading enough—will fully understand how Miss Burney became, from the moment she published 'Evelina,' one of the first novelists of the day. All that is good in 'Evelina' had been noted down in her diary, or at any rate in her memory.

Yet literary skill, extraordinary powers of observation, and a keen sense of humor, were not the only qualities which gave an indescribable charm both to Miss Burney's writings and to herself. She is utterly free from sentimentality. She never preaches the duty of sympathy, but every line in her diary betrays the fact that she was full of feeling. This characteristic was oddly expressed by her stepmother in a conversation with Arthur Young:

"Talking of happiness and misery, sensibility and a total want of feeling, my mamma said, turning to me, 'Hers's a girl will *never* be happy! *never* while she lives!—for she possesses perhaps as feeling a heart as ever girl had!' Some time after when we were near the end of our journey, 'And so,' said Mr. Young, 'my friend Fanny possesses a very feeling heart?' He harped on this some little time, and said he would call me *feeling Fanny*. It was *characteristick* he said, and a great deal more such nonsense, that put me out of all patience, which same virtue I have not yet sufficiently recovered to recount any more of our conversation, charming as part of it was, *which* part you may be sure I had my share in. How else *could* it be charming?"

The joke, which, be it remembered, is only recorded for Miss Nobody, cut, as jokes often do, rather deep. Arthur Young was right. "Feeling" was characteristic of Fanny. Even now it is difficult to read without emotion the narrative, written for no eye but her own, of her misery at her sister's expected death, and of her joy at Susette's unhoped-for recovery. "My sweet Susette is almost well. I think of nothing else but to thank God Almighty enough which I am obliged to run out of the room to do twenty times a day—for else I cannot breathe—I feel as if I had an asthma except when I am doing that."

RECENT FICTION.

The Mistress of Beech Knoll. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Dominant Seventh: A Musical Story. By Kate Elizabeth Clark. D. Appleton & Co.

A March in the Ranks. By Jessie Fothergill. Henry Holt & Co.

The Lawton Girl. By Harold Frederic. Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Maria: A South American Romance. By George Isaacs. Translated by Rollo Ogden, with an Introduction by Thomas A. Janvier. Harper & Bros.

Pactolus Prime. By Albion W. Tourgée. Cassell Publishing Co.

The House of the Wolfings. By William Morris. Boston: Roberts Bros.

'THE MISTRESS OF BEECH KNOLL' is distinctly an advance beyond the author's previous books, and deserves commendation as showing a progress which, if it continues at the present rate, may culminate in a really good novel. The present volume is hardly that, but is a pleasant story. If its four hundred pages of lightness and sweet do not constitute a very solid or racy banquet, it is at least purged in great measure from the cheapness of its predecessors.

In musical stories the music or the story usually suffers from the yoke-fellowship. 'The Dominant Seventh' is no exception to the rule, containing, as it does, much sound sense, catholicity of judgment, and poetic feeling in

relation to music, and being, as a story, fantastic, overstrained, and disagreeably self-conscious. Ferranti, the hero, who makes his appearance with Paganini-like diablerie, proves in the end so sober and wealthy and steady-going a sort of citizen that one perforce thinks of the time-honored circus-rider who begins as a reeling inebriate and ends as the spangled pet of the fancy. As such Ferranti is a *lusus naturæ*, summoning up, with his violin-playing, ghosts to frighten young ladies, and lying down, at last, a veritable lamb. The characters have an irritating way of talking at the public and not to one another, which induces in the reader a mood of injustice to the real intelligence and breadth underlying but not shaping the story.

Miss Fothergill has a decidedly interesting way of writing which holds the attention through even 500 pages. On a review, however, of one's state of mind during the reading, it turns out that it was always on a tiptoe of expectation as to what developments would arise, and how the incidents so brightly and graphically told would weave themselves into the story. When the book is closed, one first fairly perceives that there was no plan or construction, no real evolution of character—though there is a great deal about a great many different characters—and no excuse for existence for a large part of the scenic effect. What saves the book and makes it preëminently readable is its style, which knows no stagnancy, and a certain modern boldness in its point of view, which puts a fearless finger upon the affairs and the relations of life. The book is, perhaps, too much like a piece out of real life, in its inconsequence and its unlinked happenings, to be really good art, and it is interesting somewhat as a day in a crowd is interesting, from what one picks up here and there of mirth, of prettiness, of pathos, leaving one at the end of the day rather dissatisfied and a little dizzy.

'The Lawton Girl' belongs to the "industrious and idle apprentice" type of novel; the walk through life of these time-honored heroes being fitted to conditions as modern as this morning's paper. The industrious apprentice wins the race and the girl, and obtains, but nobly fails to use, the means of punishing his not at all formidable rival. Viewed as a novel it is rather dingy reading; but where is the novel to-day which is only a novel? To review a work of fiction now is to expose to public view one's theories upon everything rather than art; in this particular case, upon the social question, upon reform clubs, trusts, and strikes. We must avow that Mr. Frederic has not thrown any light on the last two questions. His evil characters are from the outset so obviously weighted in a downward direction that the form of temptation is purely a matter of detail. In their hands the simplest matter of barter would become fraud, so that their perdition in the intricacies of a trust proves nothing against that form of competition. In the social question there is more of positive dealing with the topic. The story of the Lawton girl, betrayed and forsaken, returning to her own town to live down, among her own townspeople, her former life, has something real and hopeful in its ring. The solution of the problem may not be accepted, but it is clearly stated and fairly met. It is discouraging to find that an industrious apprentice should tell his professional secrets, very nearly overthrowing the ends of justice. Perhaps it matters the less, since in the end he elects to let the villains go unpunished, though how he reconciles this to his conscience we fail to see. His reform club, sad to say, is dropped as soon as it has hired a place of meeting, and is not at all what a well-conducted reform club in a novel should be. Some very amusing observations are put into the mouth of one of the characters, a young woman, in relation to business matters, showing a woolliness that is partially typical, it is to be feared.

'María,' as Mr. Janvier points out in his graceful introduction, is worthy the attention of English-speaking Americans because it is a specimen of the literature of a people whom we are apt to think of as wholly unliterary and dependent upon Spain for their books, namely, our Spanish-speaking sister republics of Mexico and South America. The very interesting fact mentioned by Mr. Janvier, that a catalogue of books published in Mexico before the year 1600 includes 116 titles, will be, we fancy, startling to most Americans north of New Orleans. We open Mr. Isaacs's novel, then, with the feeling that it has a pedigree, and that it is a new-found relative to ourselves. We find a tender little idyl of love and sorrow, and, yet more notably, a picture of country life and family life in Cauca, which is quite new in English literature, but which becomes at once familiar and home-like through the unerring touch of nature and the delicacy of Mr. Isaacs's art.

'Pactolus Prime,' like others of Judge Tourgée's books, is to be considered less as a novel than as the cry of one seeking justice. Here it is the bitter wail of the negro, reviewing the wrongs done him from the days of slavery to the present time, and denouncing the white man for his share in them—for worshipping in the name of Christianity a "White Christ"—for making white immorality the same as black religion, and for denying the negro, after nominally freeing him, the barest political and educational justice. Pactolus Prime makes the startling statement that if the slaves from the beginning of slavery down to the emancipation were to be paid for their labor at the rate of ten cents a day, the nation would now be in their debt for more than ten billions of dollars. He inveighs against the mode of distribution of funds proposed in the happily snuffed-out bill for national aid to education—the money being given by the Government proportionably to the illiteracy of the State, the State in turn conferring it per capita, so that the money falls to the more numerous whites, even though the blacks are the illiterates. These things may be found in the daily papers, but the hopeless agony in the lot of the black seeking to obtain among men the place of a man, this is what the book sets powerfully before us.

To any one who longs to steal away from the nineteenth century and steep himself in the atmosphere of a warlike and heroic past, there can be no better suggestion offered than to read Morris's 'House of the Wolfings.' We defy any one to rise from a perusal of its pages and not have to summon himself with an effort back into a distant to-day, far from the vivid present of the time of strife betwixt Goth and Roman; of mighty leaders in war; of doughty women leaving their looms to ride through tangled woods and bring tidings of the foe; of a little lad weeping because his warrior friend has gone to the war without fashioning for him the promised clay horse; of dwelling-halls hung with fine tapestries, and maidens tending the sacred lamp; of glades where the kindreds meet and hold council of war. Nay, further, even the Valkyr kissing the warrior and saving him from death that they may live and love, and the seeress daughter born to them, all are more present to us than the present itself. If there be ever a lapse into another day, it is only through what Pater, in writing of Morris's earlier works, calls "the charming anachronisms of a poet who, while he handles an ancient subject, never becomes an antiquarian." If he had not kept the subject "always close to himself" (to quote Pater once more), we should not find him saying of a warrior long spared to his house, that "it was neighborly done of the Father of the Slain to forbear his company so long"; nor (of a faint light in the woods), that "it might scarce be told whether that light were the memory of yesterday or the promise of to-morrow"; possibly not (of the same place), that "for all the darkness, no man could go there and not feel that the roof was green above him." An admirable estimate of the present book, by the *Athenæum*, appended to this edition, refers to Aristotle's assumption that invention and not singing is the indispensable basis of poetry. Who shall say whether Morris is the better inventor or singer in this beautiful work—in a song that is so laden with story, a story which, whether prose or verse, is such pure singing?

KOHUT'S FERDINAND LASSALLE.

Ferdinand Lassalle: sein Leben und Wirken. Auf Grund der besten und zuverlässigsten Quellen geschildert von Dr. Adolph Kohut. Leipzig: Otto Wigand. Pp. ix., 210.

ALTHOUGH Lassalle has been dead for more than a quarter of a century, he is to-day, in many respects, "the most live man" among German publicists and politicians. Parties representing the most adverse and antagonistic aims and tendencies, and public men of the most diverse types, from Bismarck to the Social-Democrat Bebel, appeal alike to him for the endorsement of their political opinions and programmes. Indeed, the recent rescripts of the German Emperor, which led to an international conference for the regulation of the labor question and the improvement of the condition of the laboring classes, were the fruit of the seed sown by Lassalle thirty years ago and the official recognition of one of his pet projects.

The inscription on his tombstone in the old Jewish cemetery at Breslau, which characterizes him as "Denker und Kämpfer," sums up succinctly his rare combination of moral and intellectual qualities. He was a remarkably clear and acute thinker and an extremely energetic and quite irrepressible agitator, a scholar of large grasp and endowed with fine metaphysical faculties, and yet no pedant, but an eminently practical man of the world. With all his love of books and profound knowledge of them, there was in him no taint of the German *Stubengelehrte*, and no stagnant smell of Dryasdust in his always elegant garments. As a student of seventeen he devoted himself with enthusiasm to the study of Hegel's system of philosophy, and it may be regarded, perhaps, as a mark of youthful ardor and assurance that he claimed to understand it. He was fond of playing at bandy with the toughest problems of Hegelian dialectics over his beer-mug, and showed a skill in solving them that excited the astonishment and admiration of his fellow-worshippers at the shrine of Gambrinus.

It may have been his real or imaginary success in comprehending Hegel that led him to tackle Heraclitus, whom his countrymen surnamed the Obscure on account of the unintelligibleness of his teachings. Lassalle was a thorough Hegelian, and found in his master's method not only a key to the oracular and sententious utterances of the Ephesian philosopher, but also a passe-partout to every system

of speculation and a pick-lock to all the mysteries of the universe. He regarded Heraclitus as an early predecessor and prototype of Hegel, and it must be confessed that there is a strong spiritual kinship between the ancient Greek and the modern German. Whatever may be said of Lassalle's point of view and of the correctness of his conceptions and interpretations, his book, 'Die Philosophie Herakleitos des Dunkeln von Ephesos,' was a brilliant intellectual achievement, which not only produced an immense sensation at the time of its publication, in 1858, but has remained to the present day a standard authority on the subject.

Lassalle was an exceedingly fascinating character, and seemed to cast a spell of enchantment over all who came within the sphere of his personal influence. He was on terms of intimate friendship with Alexander von Humboldt, the famous jurist Friedrich von Savigny, the distinguished Hellenist August Böckh, Varnhagen von Ense, Bismarck, Hans von Bülow, Heine, Freiligrath, Marx, Herwegh, Rodbertus, Wuttke, Garibaldi, Mazzini, and many other men of note. With most of these persons he carried on an active correspondence, the greater part of which has not yet been collected and published. The letters exchanged with Hans von Bülow appeared in 1885; but there must be a mass of unprinted material of this kind in existence which would be an invaluable contribution to contemporary history. He characterizes Von Bülow very justly as "a powder magazine always to be guarded against explosion," while Von Bülow speaks of him as the "Amphitryon of the future."

Lassalle foresaw with remarkable distinctness and definiteness the political drift and ultimate destiny of Germany. In 1859 he published a pamphlet, entitled 'The Italian War and the Mission of Prussia,' in which he urged Prussia to take advantage of the favorable circumstances to incorporate Schleswig-Holstein and to form a national union of the German States, with the exclusion of Austria, on a democratic basis of representation. He reverts to this plan repeatedly, as for example in his pamphlet, 'Fichte's Political Testament and the Most Recent Present' (1860), and in an address, 'The Philosophy of Fichte and the Significance of the German Popular Spirit,' delivered May 19, 1862, in which he declared "the constitution of a united Germany under the hegemony of Prussia" to be "the highest and most important mission of the time."

Bismarck held frequent political conferences with Lassalle, to whose opinions he evidently attached great weight, and it is impossible to determine with which of these men the measures now identified with the late Imperial Chancellor originated. It is certain that in the meagre records of their conversation which have been preserved, Lassalle appears as the leading spirit. But even admitting that the intellectual initiative rightly belongs to him, it is doubtful whether he would have had the iron energy and persistency necessary to carry these ideas into complete effect and embody them in permanent institutions. He was a brilliant, popular, and forensic orator, and would have made his mark in parliamentary debate, especially if he had had the good fortune to be in the Opposition; but it is questionable if he would ever have been a successful statesman. He was a friend of the working-classes and an honest advocate of social reform; but his aristocratic tastes and instincts, which he would not use the arts of the demagogue to conceal, often threw suspicion upon the sincerity of his democratic convictions. We may suspect that he would never have developed into a Socialist of the Liebknecht-Bebel type, and that, had he lived, he might have prevented this element from gaining its present ascendency.

Lassalle was both vain and foppish, priding himself immensely on his personal beauty, which he sought to render more effective by devotion to his wardrobe. Perhaps the greatest surprise of his life was that a plain Russian girl of nineteen, Sophie Soluzeff, should reject his suit and refuse his hand in marriage. Such conduct was utterly incomprehensible to him, and filled him with wonder like the sudden violation of a familiar law of nature. He was eloquent in his denunciations of duelling, but lacked the moral courage to put his own teachings on this subject into practice. As a boy of twelve he challenged to mortal combat one of his playmates, whom he regarded as a rival for the affections of a school-girl; and he lost his life in an affair of honor which grew out of his relations to Helene von Dönniges. He used to speak rather contemptuously of woman as a mere "episode"; but it was these episodes which made up the most stirring scenes in the drama of his life and turned it into tragedy.

Lassalle's enormous conceit crops out very comically at times, and in a manner utterly impossible to any one endowed in the slightest degree with a sense of humor. Thus, he says in a letter to Von Bülow: "I have written something that will make you almost die of laughter, although it is a mere trifle. I was just in the mood!" The reference is to his brochure against Julian Schmidt, a coarse diatribe which could only cause a judicious friend to grieve. Again, in his controversy with Schulze-Delitzsch, he exclaims: "I write every line that I write equipped with all the culture of my century"; and in another book he disposes of the same adversary in this style: "The moment I put this work to press, you may consider yourself dead; the moment it has found a few thousand readers, you may consider yourself buried."

Dr. Kohut's volume gives, in the main, a satisfactory sketch of Lassalle's brief and brilliant career, and a just estimate of his influence and achievements. It contains no new material, with the exception of half-a-dozen or more letters of the Countess Hatzfeldt, and unimportant communications from the Hungarian Gen. George Klapka and the Swiss Col. J. P. Becker, hitherto unprinted; but the old material has been woven together into a clear and consecutive narrative. The biographer professes to be "free from all partisanship and prepossession," and this is, for the most part, true. Nevertheless, his strong and pardonable prejudice against Helene von Dönninges prevents him from giving due consideration to her published account of her 'Relations to Ferdinand Lassalle.' This fatal "episode" deserves a fuller and fairer treatment than it has yet received, since, apart from the romantic interest of the tragic story, it brings out in bold relief the strong and weak points of Lassalle's character.

Le Morte Darthur. By Syr Thomas Malory, faithfully reprinted from the original edition (1485) of William Caxton. Edited by H. Oskar Sommer, Ph.D. Vol. II., Introduction. London: David Nutt.

THE first volume of Dr. Sommer's reprint of Caxton's 'Morte Darthur' was duly noticed by us and cordially welcomed. It is a faithful reprint of Caxton's text, page for page, line for line, 861 pages, on heavy white paper, with ample margins—a royal volume. The apparatus of a complete critical edition was to have been given in a second volume; but Dr. Sommer found that it enlarged in the working up, and he has divided it for two volumes. The second volume, now published by David Nutt, contains the bibliographic and the linguistic apparatus; discussions of the sources and of the style are reserved for a third volume.

Many interesting facts are presented in the bibliographical part. Nothing is known about Sir Thomas Mallory except the mention of him in the 'Morte Darthur.' Dr. Sommer cannot ground the later references to him as a Welshman, or the hypothesis that he was a priest. The single perfect copy of Caxton's edition, which had been in the library of the Earl of Jersey at Osterley Park, was sold in May, 1885, for £1,950. The British Museum bid £1,800. "It is very much to be regretted," says Dr. Sommer, "that the English nation lost this splendid specimen of Caxton's printing, containing, as it does, the traditional history of their King Arthur, a national epic." It became the property of Mrs. Abby E. Pope of Brooklyn, N. Y., who seems to have been just as ready to give Dr. Sommer access to it as Earl Spencer or the authorities of the British Museum would have been.

Dr. Sommer explains his title-page. Caxton followed the MSS., which had no title-pages. Wynkyn de Worde introduced them after the death of his master. Wynkyn de Worde's 'Morte Darthur' of 1529 is the first text ever printed with illustrations throughout. "They are very coarsely executed woodcuts." This is the edition from which the later reprints have been derived, with two exceptions. The last of the black-letter editions, Stansby's (1634), which has been copied in most of the modern reprints, is from East (1585), which is from Wynkyn de Worde (1529). The preface of Stansby informs the reader that the phraseology of the volume is corrected in many places, where King Arthur or some of his knights "swear prophane, and use superstitious speeches, all (or the most part) of which is either mended or quite left out"; "so that, as it is now, it may passe for a famous piece of antiquity, revived almost from the gulph of oblivion, and rescued for the pleasure and benefit of the present and future times." Many a good round oath from the mint of Shakspere has been lost for ever by King James's prohibition of profanity, but one can find Mallory's oaths intact in Dr. Sommer's Caxton. Dr. Sommer gives a few early references to 'Morte Darthur'; one, from Ascham's 'Schoolemaster' (1570), presents a Puritanic view of it, as one of the books "made in Monasteries by idle Monkes or wanton Chanons," the whole pleasure of which standeth "in open manslaughter and bold bawdrye." And after specifying deeds of Sir Launcelot, Sir Tristram, and Sir Lameracke, the 'Schoolemaster' goes on: "This is good stuffe for wise men to laughe at, or honest men to take pleasure at. Yet I know when God's Bible was banisht the Court, and Morte Arthure received into the Princes Chamber." One might pass this as *schulmeisterisch;* but if Dr. Sommer had made later collections, he would have given us very much the same tone from Ben Jonson. "He had no Arthurs," says Jonson of young Lord Beaufort,

> "Abortives of the fabulous dark cloister,
> Sent out to poison Courts, and infest manners;
> But great Achilles', Agamemnon's acts,
> Sage Nestor's counsels, and Ulysses' sleights,
> Tydides' fortitude, as Homer wrought them
> In his immortal fancy, for examples
> Of the heroic virtue."

And even Shakspere sets *Hotspur* railing about "the dreamer Merlin and his prophecies, . . . and such a deal of skimble-skamble

stuff." But perhaps Milton's favorite, "our sage, serious Spenser, whom I dare be known to think a better teacher than Scotus or Aquinas," will outweigh the whole theatre; and he knows no happier source than these romances to point a moral or adorn a tale.

On page 28 begin the notes on the language of 'Le Morte Darthur.' This book, composed in 1474, printed in 1485, belongs to the date of transition from Middle to Modern English. When examined by grammar rules drawn from Shakspere for Modern English, and Chaucer for Middle English, it seems to be very irregular and mixed. A grammar might be made from the 'Morte Darthur,' and taken as a standard, which would make the language of Chaucer or Shakspere irregular; but Dr. Sommer does not attempt that. He gives brief notes of the most characteristic examples of the orthography, phraseology, and syntax of his volume. The orthography he attributes to Caxton and his printers, believing that they did not follow Mallory's manuscript. The new printers were without standard. The manuscripts had variant spellings. Mastery of orthography seems to have been an ability to recognize, remember, and use all these different spellings. The more ways a man could spell a word the better speller he was. The modern English *means* is spelt *menes, meane, moyne, moyan, moyane; realm* is spelt *reame, royame, reaume, royalme, realme, royaume;* and so they go. The proper names exhibit greater variety than the common names, so that readers generally do not recognize their identity, but multiply the characters, making the scene swarm with heroes as the sky with stars; and the best of the editors heretofore often duplicates or triplicates the real characters. The different spellings of Gromere Gumorson furnish Sir Edward Strachey, editor of the Globe edition, with three heroes for one, those of Gratian three more, those of Pertilope or Pertolepe two more, and so on.

There are nine pages of notes on the phraseology and syntax. A note refers us to a forthcoming work by Dr. L. Kellner, in which there is an elaborate study of Caxton's syntax, "a most valuable contribution to the study of the English tongue." A list of various readings between Caxton's edition and Wynkyn de Worde's of 1529 is given, about 10,000 in number. Then comes a list of names and places, "the first complete and critical Index to 'Le Morte Darthur' ever compiled." There are nearly 1,000 names in the text. With each name references are given to the passages in which it occurs, and the gist of what is said in them, so that we have an authoritative biography of the person or facts about the place, very interesting and convenient for reference.

Next comes a glossary of 46 double-column pages, the first ever compiled to 'Le Morte Darthur.' Dr. Sommer is preparing a Caxton Dictionary for all the works printed by Caxton, and he uses his general material pretty freely in this glossary, so that it is in effect a small etymological dictionary. He gives the different spellings that occur in the text, and precise references. There are very few words that are wholly unknown to the general reader, but the various spellings and novel shades of meaning are very often enlightening for the history of the word, and make the glossary a treasury of facts such as the student of language delights in.

The third volume, to contain Dr. Sommer's discussion of the sources of Mallory's tale and a treatise on his style by Mr. Andrew Lang, is being actively pushed forward. It will be looked for with lively interest.

A Manual of Anatomy for senior students. By Edmund Owen, M.B., F.R.C.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

Mr. Owen has undertaken a difficult task—more difficult, perhaps, than he realized, notwithstanding his combined service as practising surgeon and anatomical teacher, viz., to furnish the senior student, emancipated from the dissecting-room, with a "volume which shall supply him with such anatomical information, free of wearying detail, as is essential for his successful and intelligent work in the medical and surgical wards and in the special departments of his hospital." To present within the compass of a volume of convenient size the "whole range of anatomy" in its medical and surgical relations, including a considerable number of operative procedures, would appear to most persons impossible, and we cannot but think the author would have done well to follow the example of Harrison Allen (whose comprehensive treatise he does not mention), since the indispensable brevity is commonly attained at the loss of adequate explicitness. For example, ligation of the innominate artery is well characterized as a "desperate operation," yet it is disposed of within half a page.

Owen's style is commonly direct and clear, although the occurrence of the following sentences in consecutive paragraphs is confusing, to say the least:

"Broca showed that the motor centres for speech are in the region of the left island of Reil." . . . "Broca showed that in aphasia [resulting from paralysis of the motor centres of speech] there is some serious disturbance with the third left frontal convolution near the island of Reil."

The prevailing gravity is relieved by occasional paragraphs like the following:

"When the central nervous system is upset, not only may digestion be impaired or lost, but jaundice may occur; as an example of this, reference may be made to the brief clinical report of the lady in 'Twelfth Night,' who, concealing her too great love, pined in thought, and was, in consequence, overcome by a 'green and yellow melancholy.'"

"One of the greatest living sculptors affirms that the two sides of the head and face are never symmetrical—unless in the case of professional beauties and of others of a like intellectual capacity."

The following deserves consideration from directors of college gymnasiums:

"The left ventricle is dilated and hypertrofied when, Sisyphus-like, it is struggling to force upwards its contents which are ever rolling backwards through an incompetent aortic valve; but these conditions sometimes occur independently of valvular disease, as in the case of athletes and others who are suddenly called upon for violent exertion."

The paragraph, beginning, rather startlingly, "*Cut-throat*," enumerates as liable to severance so many parts with formidable names that the would-be self-destroyer might well hesitate before doing violence to them:

"The man who draws a razor across his throat with suicidal intent, being probably right-handed, gashes the left side. If the brunt of the shock is received by the thyroid cartilage [projecting part of the "Adam's apple"], as often happens, no serious harm may ensue. But if he happen to hit off the thyro-hyoid space, there is little to hinder the progress of the blade. Thus, in addition to the skin, platysma, anterior jugular vein, cutaneous nerves, and deep fascia, the anterior part of the sterno-mastoid may be traversed, and, more deeply, the external carotid, or its superior thyroid or lingual branch, and the corresponding vein. The sterno-hyoid, omo-hyoid, and the thyro-hyoid muscle and membrane, and the superior laryngeal nerve might also be cut, and possibly the incision might pass into the pharynx, wounding also the epiglottis."

In a strictly medical review, the caution near the top of page 419 might well be transcribed for the benefit of some "brilliant" young operators, who would perhaps be encouraged to gentleness also by an occasional change of place with their patients.

There are about two hundred illustrations, unnumbered, frequently undescribed, and varying greatly in excellence. A few are credited to their sources (among them the preposterous representation of the cerebral convolutions that disfigures the later editions of "Gray"); there is no way of determining how many are original, although certain very inelegant diagrams may be presumed to be such. The introduction of the simple instruments on pp. 114, 393, and 414 is not easily explained. Many of the illustrations fail of their highest usefulness by reason of malposition with regard to each other. What architect would represent an "exterior" with the front of the house at the right, and a corresponding "interior" with the front at the left? What geographer would give an outline of the Isthmus of Panama as if the observer occupied the usual position at the south, and an enlargement of a small portion thereof as if the observer were at the north? Yet in the present volume on one page a skull faces to the right, and on the opposite page a brain faces to the left; the admirable figure on page 413 loses much of its value from the fact of its needless and almost fatuous reversal of position as compared with the more comprehensive view on page 385.

The terms employed are for the most part familiar and of moderate length; in several cases there is a commendable, though perhaps unconscious, reduction of polyonyms to mononyms, *e. g.*, of *pons Varolii* to *pons*, of *dura mater* to *dura*, and of *platysma myoides* to *platysma;* but there are also several examples of the common anatomical fault for which the term "pœcilonymy" has been proposed, viz., the employment of two or more names for one and the same part otherwise than expressly as synonyms; surely the student's apprehension is not facilitated by the indiscriminate use of *tract, column*, and *fasciculus*, of *vagus* and *pneumogastric*, of *brain* and *encephalon*, of *central fissure* and *fissure of Rolando*.

There is no table of contents or list of figures, but the index is quite complete; most, however, would look for *appendix* or *vermiform appendix* rather than for *vermiform process*, which alone occurs in the text as well as in the index.

History of New South Wales. Vol I. By G. B. Barton. London: Trübner & Co.

United Australia. Sydney: Government Printer.

In 1888 the colony of New South Wales completed the first hundred years of its existence, and the Government determined to commemorate the event by preparing a history of this period, based on the public records, and selected Mr. Barton to take charge of the work. He has begun his task in a creditable manner, and although, from the nature of the case, this first instalment is somewhat voluminous, it is nevertheless decidedly interesting.

The evidence as to the first discovery of the great continent, known in the sixteenth century as *Terra Australis*, is clouded with many a doubt, and will always remain so. The Dutch christened the land New Holland, after their usual custom in such cases, and the name Australia seems to have been first used by that geographical churchman Richard Hakluyt, in a memorandum published, with others of his posthumous papers, in Dr. Purchas's 'Pil-

grimes' in the year 1625. What is certain is, that very little was known about the country till towards the end of the last century, and even in Capt. Cook's day it was supposed that Van Diemen's Land was not separated from the mainland. It was in 1770 that Cook sailed into Botany Bay, and he brought back to England a favorable account of the apparent fertility of its shores, while his companion, Mr. (afterwards Sir Joseph) Banks, was even more strongly impressed, and for years thereafter incessantly urged the British Government to occupy the territory. In fact, it is largely to his sagacious persistency that England owes her Australian colonies.

Soon after peace had been declared with the United States in 1783, the loyalists who had abandoned or been driven from their homes, began to press upon Parliament their claims for damages, and a plan was drawn up by one James M. Matra, and approved by Sir Joseph Banks, for the establishment of some of these sufferers at Botany Bay. If his proposal had been adopted, the colony of New South Wales would have been a great gainer, and Canada would have lost a number of excellent colonists, whose descendants may be found to-day in almost every town and settlement of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia; but public opinion at the time was not favorable to colonizing experiments at Government expense. What finally turned the scale in Banks's favor was the crowded condition of the prisons, the unfortunate inmates of which could no longer be turned over to the tender mercies of Virginia planters, and it was owing to this state of things that in May, 1787, the "first fleet" set sail with some 750 convicts and a military escort, the whole under the command of Capt. Phillip, who was commissioned as the first Governor of New South Wales. This fleet arrived at Botany Bay in January, 1788, and shortly afterwards Phillip discovered the magnificent harbor of Port Jackson, a few miles to the northward, and the colonists were finally landed there and laid the foundations of the present city of Sydney.

More convicts followed this first batch almost every year until 1841, by which time the total number transported had reached 83,000; but in 1792 the British Government consented to send out free settlers, and allowed them to contract for the labor of the convicts as the Virginia planters had done, so that after that year there was a small leaven of presumably honest colonists. The convicts, however, formed a large majority, and it is encouraging to those who are dreading the effect of immigration on this country to learn that the descendants of these unpromising colonists are, in defiance of the doctrine of heredity, now held up to us as examples of law-abiding citizens and pure politicians. It should be remembered, however, that until 1827 there were in England more than 150 offences punishable by hanging or transportation, among them such heinous crimes as "destroying a tree, plant, or shrub in a garden," so that it may well be that the earlier convicts were superior to the criminal classes of to-day.

In spite of such discouragement as resulted from the character of the people under him, Gov. Phillip was an enthusiast in regard to the future of the colony, and he wrote in one of his earliest despatches: "Nor do I doubt that this country will prove the most valuable acquisition Great Britain ever made." The "most valuable acquisition" came very near slipping through his fingers, however, for the French, under La Pérouse, reached Botany Bay a few days after he had landed, and, finding the ground already occupied, sailed away, much to his satisfaction. Nowadays the occupation of any barren rock in the Pacific may endanger the peace of Europe, but at that time very little attention was paid to the new colony, and Mr. Barton states that the 'Annual Register' for 1789 devotes more space to the "much-talked-of fight between Perrins of Birmingham and Johnson of London" than to Phillip's despatches. One observer, indeed, there was who was deeply stirred by the news of the founding of the colony. Dr. Erasmus Darwin, the worthy grandfather of an illustrious grandson, wrote some verses on the occasion, entitled "Visit of Hope to Sydney Cove," in which he drew a prophetic picture of the great city that now covers the beautiful shores of Port Jackson. In this case, at least, he was not what Byron called him in the 'English Bards,' "a mighty master of unmeaning rhyme." In fact, he seems to have possessed the gift of prophecy in rare measure, for in the 'Botanic Garden,' published in 1791, he wrote the remarkable lines:

> "Soon shall thy arm, unconquered steam! afar
> Drag the slow barge or drive the rapid car."

For some years the young colony was in serious danger of starvation, owing to the non-arrival of supplies from England. Very few of the convicts happened to be farmers, and consequently their efforts at cultivation were not crowned with success, while the difficulty of penetrating the brush delayed the discovery of the splendid farming lands further in the interior. Most of the cattle which had been brought in the ships strayed away in 1788, and were supposed to have been killed and eaten by the natives, but they were found in 1795, when they had multiplied into a great herd, in the rich pastures along the Nepean River at a considerable distance from the coast. In Phillip's time the country a hundred miles from the coast was as little known as is the vast interior of the continent to-day; but he set a good example to later explorers, and, as the increasing population stimulates the demand for farming land, railways are being built into what was considered an uninhabitable wilderness, and irrigation is changing the face of nature.

It is a long step from Gov. Phillip's struggles to provide food for his people to Sir Henry Parke's despatch of October, 1889, in which he invites the Prime Minister of Victoria to join New South Wales in a scheme of Australian Federation. In a volume entitled 'United Australia,' the Government of New South Wales has collected the comments of the English press on the proposal. While the writers differ widely, the majority seem to regard this as the first step towards the "manifest destiny" of Australia—that is, a united government independent of the mother country in all but name. Not a few, however, still cling to the dream of Imperial Federation, and find in this proposal some encouragement of their hopes.

The Life of Carmen Sylva, Queen of Rumania. Translated from the German. By Baroness Deichmann. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. 1890.

THE literary talent of "Carmen Sylva," born the Princess Elizabeth of Wied in 1843, may fairly be reckoned a gift of inheritance. The family of Wied has been distinguished throughout this century by an intellectual and scientific strain. Prince Maximilian, the author of an extensive account of a journey in the United States, particularly among the Mandan and other Indian tribes, and the gatherer of the Prince Hermann of Wied collection now in this country, was her great-uncle. Her father, Prince Hermann, wrote some volumes of half-mystical, half-rationalistic philosophy on the nature of the soul, which sufficiently attest a real interest and concern in the higher phases of mental culture. The home in which the future Queen of Rumania grew up was thus one where literature was a tradition, and it possessed other advantages—a beautiful situation on the Rhine, the quiet solitude of the country, and the neighborhood of the villagers, with their sick and poor to be cared for by the benevolence of the castle. The narrative in this biography of the girlhood of the Princess is in certain ways the more attractive portion of the work. The child was brought up and educated under her mother's charge, instructed in the ancient and modern languages, and early developed a taste for original composition in prose and rhyme. She is described as having been passionate, reserved, and independent, and evidently led a life of much mental excitement; but she also learned early the lessons of sympathy and helpfulness to others, and formed the habit of conscientiousness which has made her life laborious and useful. The illness of her brother, Prince Otto, a year and a half her junior, who was born with a painful organic disorder, from which he suffered until his death in his seventeenth year, is a pathetic incident in the story; and between his mother's devotion and his own sweet and gentle nature, this experience must have counted for much in forming the character of so sensitive a person as Elizabeth. The glimpses of this domestic life, which are given in a few extracts from her father's and her own letters, afford the pleasantest impression of the members of the family and of the habits and character of their ordinary days. They lived usually at Neuwied and Monrepos, though from time to time they sojourned at Paris or other places for health or pleasure.

After the death of her brother Otto in 1862, Elizabeth was more especially taken charge of by the Grand Duchess Helen of Russia, a near relative, under whom in the following year she made acquaintance with the world of society at St. Petersburg, and with whom for five years she travelled, with intervals of returning home, in Russia, Austria, Italy, and in the usual resorts of fashion. Her father had died in 1864, when she was twenty-one, and now in 1868 she had shown no disposition to marry. With the sense of duty which characterized her, she wished to become a teacher. Her mother insisted that she should "follow a strict course of study and pass her examination as a teacher before her plan could be practically carried out." She meant to found a school, and apparently no discouragement other than this requirement had been put in her way. While these schemes occupied her mind, Prince Charles of Rumania asked her hand. She was intimately acquainted with his sisters, and the two families were old friends, but there is great naïveté in her sudden answer to her mother, who made the unexpected announcement and asked her if she did not wish time to consider. "No," she said, "he had better come at once; I know I shall love him much." It is to be said that she had had some hours' conversation with him that day during what she supposed was a chance encounter at Cologne. They were immediately married and went to Rumania.

Her life in Rumania is a story of benevolent and literary activity. A good deal of court ceremonial glitters in the pages, but this belongs mainly to great occasions, her welcome, the coronation of the two as King and Queen in 1877, the rejoicings over the return of the

army, and similar festivities. She led a working life, except for the illness which from time to time interrupted her labors. She threw herself with enthusiasm into her new sphere, learned the language with her usual facility in that sort of acquirement, and set to work founding societies, especially to help the poor and to encourage women's handicrafts. She took an orphanage already founded under her special protection, started schools of embroidery, associations to give rough sewing for poor women, which have proved very successful, and to encourage all branches of native industry, particularly weaving, a home for nursing sisters, soup-kitchens, and many other similar enterprises. She won the hearts of the people especially by her efforts to care for the wounded in the war, by providing hospitals, and constantly attended at the side of the sick soldiers. She followed these pursuits with more energy after the death of her only child, a daughter, in her fourth year, which was her most serious sorrow.

With all this she continued to cultivate her literary gifts, which latterly brought her fame as "Carmen Sylva." She always had the habit of writing verses, but it did not become a serious pursuit until after her mature life began and her faculties had been stimulated by studies in Rumanian literature, and encouraged by the intellectual and literary society which gathered about her at Bucharest and at Sinaia, her country retreat. Her works consist of original and translated verse in German, novels written partly in collaboration with another, a little collection of 'Pensées' in French, and some few poems in the latter language. The quantity of her production has been remarkable in view of the other occupations of her life. The routine of her day is described in a passage too long for quotation. She "rises at five" and works until eight, and only three hours are reserved for herself. Receptions began at ten and often lasted until seven, since she lived with open doors to any who wished to see her. Sometimes there was reading and often, apparently, work, as she "likes to be surrounded by many workers." To her husband she was always unoccupied: "he must never notice," she says, "that I am at work. When he calls or I hear his footsteps, pen and paint-brush are thrown away till he does not want me any more. . . . I think that I am first a wife, then the mother of my country, and then a poetess." This was at Bucharest in 1884. The same impression of constant employment and blending of duties with intellectual pleasures pervades the volume. Many pretty scenes could be chosen to give a taste of the variety and frequent picturesqueness of this life, but none more characteristic than the following little description of her visit to the Church of Curtea de Arges, for which she had illuminated a Book of the Twelve Gospels of the Passion, in memory of her child:

"When I went to fetch my Book of the Gospels I found the church full of the common people. The Bishop carried it out and placed himself before the door of the church with it. I turned over the pages for the people, who kissed my shoulders, arms, and hands, and, crossing themselves, blessed me and kissed the book. Women, children, and soldiers all crowded around us in the wonderful church-door. Add to this the sunset, which tinted the distant mountains violet and pink, the nearer hills golden."

The German purity of the opening chapters blends with the Rumanian color at the end, and there is, throughout, the charm of a high ideal of aristocratic life in the best sense. Passages of her poetry, which are most intimately expressive of her emotions in the different places and under the different trials of her life, add a certain natural and affecting element; and the whole story is presented with that effect, experienced in the biographies of poets below the first, which leads men to say of them that the true poem is the life.

Things Japanese: being notes on various subjects connected with Japan, by Basil Hall Chamberlain. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

THE value of a work like this, which is an encyclopædia of old and new Japan, depends upon the reputation of the compiler as an authority upon the subjects of which he treats. In this case the qualifications of the author—we may say, rather than compiler—are ample. Prof. Chamberlain is a kinsman (grand-nephew, we believe) of Capt. Basil Hall, who interested Englishmen, and Americans even more, by his writings on far Oriental travel and on American life and customs. Mr. Chamberlain spent most of his youth and early manhood in southern Europe, and soon learned how languages were made, dissected, and mastered. Coming to Japan, after Satow, Aston, and Hepburn had constructed the linguistic apparatus so time-saving to Europeans, Mr. Chamberlain became so thorough a master of Japanese that the native authorities of the University appointed him professor of Japanese and philology. Besides his various linguistic handbooks in both languages, he has shown his literary taste and capacity in his translation of the Kojiki, or oldest scriptures of Japan, his 'Classical Poetry of the Japanese,' and his comparison of the Aino and Japanese geographical nomenclature. His critical powers are of a high order, and he spares with his wit neither the ultra-sentimental admirer of things Japanese, nor the natives who wish to abolish their past by edict. He shows that "all the causes which produced the Old Japan of our dreams have vanished." It was "like an oyster, the opening of which killed it." "Feudalism is gone, isolation has gone, beliefs have been shattered, new idols have been set up, new and pressing needs have arisen. In the place of chivalry there is industrialism, in the place of a small coterie of aristocratic native connoisseurs there is a huge and hugely ignorant foreign public to satisfy. All the causes have changed, and yet it is expected that the effects will remain as heretofore."

Reckoning with the fact that Old Japan is dead, and considering that the only decent thing to do with the corpse is to bury it, Prof. Chamberlain sends forth his little book as an epitaph recording the many and extraordinary virtues of the deceased—his virtues, but also his frailties. For, quite contrary to the usual epitaphist, the author shows where the sinner as well as the saint is buried. With kindness and criticism that make true appreciation, he calls things by their right names and speaks his mind freely. He shows that in their language and literature the Japanese are without the spark of genius; that their intellectual debt to China is enormous; that even in their poetry, of which they are so proud, there is little thought that can be transferred to a foreign language and bear comparison with the world's best literature. Yet wherever there is an art, a custom, an idea, a product beautiful or worth perpetuating, the author points out its merits and pleads for its life. As yet, "the Japanese have no appreciation of our literature. They esteem us whimsical for attaching so much importance as we do to poetry, to music, to religion, to speculative disquisitions. Our material greatness has completely dazzled them, as well it might." Our wonder-world of irresistible genii and magicians in the arts and instruments of war and peace is as marvellous to the Japanese as Old Japan can ever be to us.

Beginning with a preface in which thirteen collaborators are named, a colored map, and a capital introductory chapter, the author gives us nearly four hundred pages of choicest information on the very subjects about which intelligent persons in or out of Japan desire to have knowledge. Almost all of the articles have been written by Prof. Chamberlain himself, and the smoothness and compact fulness of the text reveal to the student in the same field that repeated interviews, questions, and examinations must in divers instances have been necessary before the shapely sentences were wrought. With most of the articles are given lists of books recommended, or papers in periodicals which treat further of the themes. In addition to these bibliographical notes *passim*, there is an article of seven pages of books on Japan, in which Dr. Rein's are very properly put first, a certain American work second, and Hildreth's (though written in the Boston Athenæum Library nearly thirty-two years ago), is fifth on the list. As to the history of Japan, this student and searcher of native script and tradition and of all foreign writing can find nothing to recommend. Even the Germans, Kaempfer, Siebold, and Rein, he criticises for lack of critical faculty, and believes, what all students are coming slowly to believe, that all Japanese history must be reconstructed. The line of Mikados, "unbroken from ages eternal," may then be thankful if they can find standing-room for any known ancestors prior to the third century of our era.

We have only to name titles to show the value and comprehensiveness of the work. By a rough count we find about one hundred and forty articles, but by the cross-references of the excellent index we discover nearly eight hundred allusions or side lights upon these themes. The subjects most fully treated are Ainos, amusements, architecture, art, Buddhism, climate, demoniacal possession (by fox, badger, etc.), dress, education, esotericism, flowers, geography, history and mythology, interviewing Japanese people, lacquer, language, law, literature, marriage, missions, mourning, music, names, newspapers, poetry, porcelain and pottery (twenty pages), printing, proverbs, race, Shinto, tea, theatre, time, Tokyo, trade, woman, writing, zoölogy. In general the topics relating to Old Japan have the briefer treatment, while those which embrace both the new and old are set forth at greater length. The defects of the book are seen in the line of American contact with Japan. While to Perry are given two pages—with genuine British interpretation and comment—Townsend Harris is not mentioned, even in the index. In the chapters on railways and telegraphs, not a hint is given of the object-lesson on telegraphy and railroading given by Perry at Yokohoma in 1854, nor of the American railway equipment in Yezo.

The book is well printed, and the proof-reading has been so well done that slips of the pen and printer's errors are extremely rare. The work forms a welcome addition to the list of the author's fruits of scholarship which have already appeared in both English and Japanese.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, A. English Lyrics. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Bain, F. W. Dmitri: A Romance of Old Russia. D. Appleton & Co.

Boldrewood, R. The Squatter's Dream: A Story of Australian Life. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Carter, J. H. Thomas Rutherton. New York: H. C. Nixon.
Cunningham, Sir H. S. The Heriots. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Debans, C. Catherine's Coquetries: A Tale of French Country Life. Worthington Co.
Kennedy, J. A Stem Dictionary of the English Language, for Use in Elementary Schools. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Kipling, R. Plain Tales from the Hills. 3d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Kipling, R. The Courting of Dinah Shadd, and Other Stories. Harper & Bros. 30 cents.
Linton, Mrs. E. L. Sowing the Wind. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Masson, Prof. D. Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. X. Literary Theory and Criticism. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Ransome, Prof. C. Short Studies of Shakspere's Plots. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Ryan, Marah E. In Love's Domains: A Trilogy. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Schubin, O. "Oh Thou, My Austria!" Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
St. Johnston, A. A South-Sea Lover. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Stock, St. George. Cicero pro Roscio. Part I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Waters, R. Life of William Cobbett. 3d ed. Worthington Co.
White, Prof. H. S. Selections from Heine's Poems. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Younghusband, Capt. G. J. Frays and Forays. London: Percival & Co.
Zubof, R. I. Viera. The American News Co. 50 cents.

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ACADEMY AND HOME FOR TEN Boys.—(Sixty-fifth year of Academy, Eleventh of Home.) Thorough preparation for college or for business. Absolutely healthful location and genuine home, with the most refined surroundings. Good Gymnasium. Highest references given and required.
J. H. ROOT, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Hamden.

RECTORY SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—$325 to $375. Homelike influences combined with firm discipline and thorough school system. Extensive grounds, gymnasium, boat-house, etc. Send for circular. Rev. H. L. EVERETT, M. A., Rector.

CONNECTICUT, Hartford.

WOODSIDE—*Home and College-Preparatory* School for Girls will reopen September 17. Address Miss SARA J. SMITH, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Lyme.

BLACK HALL SCHOOL—*A FAMILY* and preparatory school for boys; highest references from parents and from members of the Faculty of Yale University. CHAS. G. BARTLETT, A.M., Prin.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven.

1660-1890.—*HOPKINS GRAMMAR* School. Prepares thoroughly for Colleges and Scientific Schools. For Catalogue address GEORGE L. FOX, Rector.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven, West End Institute.

MRS. CADY'S SCHOOL FOR YOUNG Ladies. Institute Course of Study and College Preparatory Course. Admits to either Smith, Vassar, or Wellesley by certificate. Circulars. Early application necessary.

CONNECTICUT, New Haven, 136 Sherman Ave.

THE ELDERAGE.—*FAMILY SCHOOL* for Young Ladies, pleasantly located in the suburbs of the city. The Misses BANGS, Principals.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

MISS BAIRD'S INSTITUTE—A Home School for Girls and Young Ladies.—Number of boarding pupils limited to 20. Excellent advantages in Music, Art, and the Languages. A new gymnasium, with the most improved appliances. Pleasant grounds, healthful location. Pupils boarded through the summer months. Board and tuition in the English branches $300 per scholastic year. Send for circular.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

NORWALK MILITARY INSTITUTE.—Thorough teaching, careful training, moderate charges. Superior building, gymnasium, bowling alleys. F. S. ROBERTS, Principal.

CONNECTICUT, Norwalk.

MR. E. H. WILSON'S SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Thorough preparation, not merely for entrance to college, but for work in college.

CONNECTICUT, Pomfret Centre.

THE MISSES VINTON'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen Tuesday, October 7. Number limited.

CONNECTICUT, Waterbury.

ST. MARGARET'S DIOCESAN School for Girls.—Sixteenth year. Advent Term begins (D. V.) Thursday, Sept. 18, 1890. The Rev. Francis T. Russell, M.A., Rector. The Rev. John H. McCrackan, M.A., Junior Rector.

DELAWARE, Wilmington, Franklin Street.

THE MISSES HEBB'S ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and girls reopens September 22, 1890.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

NORWOOD INSTITUTE.—*SELECT* School for Young Ladies. Elevated and beautiful location; large grounds; home training and privileges. Special advantages in Music and the Modern Languages. Pupils prepared for college or for the Harvard examination for women.
Ninth session opens September 29.
Mr. and Mrs. WM. D. CABELL, Principals.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

THE COLUMBIAN UNIVERSITY—College, Medical School, Dental School, Law School, Scientific School. For catalogues, address DR. JAMES C. WELLING, President.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, Washington.

SEE MARYLAND, HYATTSVILLE.—Melrose Institute.

ILLINOIS, Chicago.

UNION COLLEGE OF LAW.—*FOR* catalogues or information address as above.

ILLINOIS, Highland Park.

NORTHWESTERN MILITARY ACADEMY.—Col. H. P. Davidson, Supt. Reopens Sept. 17; 23 miles from Chicago. Graduates commissioned in State Militia.

Schools.

ILLINOIS, Rockford.

ROCKFORD SEMINARY FOR YOUNG Women.—42d year. Full College and Preparatory Courses. Special advantages for Music and Art. Resident physician. The Seminary has a fine gymnasium building, generously equipped for the Sargent system of work, and the official records show that delicate girls make a marked gain in strength while pursuing regular courses of study. Catalogue, with full particulars as to entrance requirements, furnished upon application. Correspondence with regard to admission in fall of '90 or later is invited. Address
SARAH F. ANDERSON, Principal, Lock Box 10.
Please mention the *Nation*.

ILLINOIS, Woodstock.

TODD SEMINARY FOR BOYS AND Youth.—42d year commences Sept. 17, 1890. Boys from 8 to 18 years preferred—prepared for college or business. A delightful home—manners, morals, and health carefully guarded. Address
Rev. R. K. TODD, A.M., Principal.

LOUISIANA, New Orleans, 247 Prytania Street.

MRS. F. D. BLAKE AND MRS. L. Polk Chapman's French and English Boarding and Day School for Girls reopens Oct. 1, 1890. Students prepared for college. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

MAINE, Portland.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN A. BELLOWS School for Young Ladies reopens September 16, 1890. Address 91 Danforth St., Portland, Me.

MARYLAND, Annapolis.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE.—*102D SES-*sion commences September 17. Eight Departments and four courses of study. Buildings heated by steam. Terms moderate. For Catalogues, address the President. THOMAS FELL, LL.D., Ph.D.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 1214 Eutaw Place.

MISS RANDOLPH'S SCHOOL, LOcated in the most beautiful part of the city, opens Sept. 25, with a very able corps of teachers. Students prepared for college. Principals—Miss S. N. Randolph, Mrs. A. L. Armstrong.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 915 and 917 N. Charles Street.

SOUTHERN HOME SCHOOL FOR Girls.—Mrs. W. M. Cary, Miss Cary. Established 1842. Summer address, Bar Harbor, Me.

MARYLAND, Baltimore, 122 and 124 West Franklin Street.

EDGEWORTH BOARDING AND DAY School for young ladies will reopen Thursday, September 18. Mrs. H. P. LEFEBVRE, Principal.

MARYLAND, Catonsville.

ST. TIMOTHY'S ENGLISH, FRENCH, and German Boarding School for Young Ladies reopens September 18, 1890. Principals—Miss M. C. and S. R. CARTER.

MARYLAND, Ellicott City.

MAUPIN'S UNIVERSITY SCHOOL.—Ninth session opens 18th September. For terms, address GEO. WM. MAUPIN, M.A., Principal.

MARYLAND, Hyattsville.

MELROSE INSTITUTE—*BOARD-*ing and Day School for Girls.—On railroad, six miles from Washington, thirty-four miles from Baltimore. Reopens Sept. 24, 1890. Circular on application.

MARYLAND, Reisterstown, near Baltimore.

THE HANNAH MORE ACADEMY for Girls—Western Maryland Railroad.—Long noted for healthfulness, careful training, and thorough instruction. Rev. ARTHUR J. RICH, A.M., M.D.

MARYLAND, St. George's.

ST. GEORGE'S HALL FOR BOYS. Prof. J. C. Kinear, A.M., Prin., offers superior advantages and comfort with moderate terms. Circulars sent.

MARYLAND, St. Mary's County, Charlotte Hall.

1774-1890.—*CHARLOTTE HALL* SCHOOL.—Situation unsurpassed. English, Classical, Mathematical, Commercial, and Military Courses. Board and tuition, $160 for 10 months. Address R. W. SILVESTER.

MASSACHUSETTS, Amherst.

OAK GROVE, HOME SCHOOL FOR Young Ladies, reopens September 18, 1890. Building remodelled and enlarged. Pupils admitted to Smith and Wellesley on our certificate.
Miss VEYLING W. BUFFUM, A.B., Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Berkshire, Berkshire Co.

CRESTALBON FARM.—*A Home-School* for six boys. Preparation for college or business. For circular, address EDWARD T. FISHER.

MASSACHUSETTS, Pittsfield, Berkshire County.

ENGLISH AND CLASSICAL SCHOOL for boys. Address
J. E. PEIRSON, A.M., Principal.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston.

BOSTON UNIVERSITY Law School, Address the Dean.
EDMUND H. BENNETT, LL.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 259 Boylston Street.

CHAUNCY-HALL SCHOOL (62d Year), For boys and girls.—Preparation for the Mass. Institute of Technology is a specialty. Reference is made to the Institute Faculty. The location of the school building, on Copley Square, is especially attractive and is very near the Institute.
Preparation also for college (with or without Greek) and for business. Special students received.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 324 Commonwealth Avenue.

*THE MISSES GILMAN WILL RE-*open their Home and Day School for Young Ladies October 1.
Circulars on application.

Schools.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, Kearsarge Avenue.

ROXBURY LATIN SCHOOL.—246TH year. Fall term opens Monday, Sept. 15. Examinations for admission will be held on Friday, Sept. 12, beginning at nine o'clock. Boys can be received into either the Classical or the Scientific Course, and will be placed as high as their present attainment warrants. Examinations for advanced standing Saturday, Sept. 13, at nine. GEORGE F. FORBES, Acting Head Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 76 Marlborough St.

MISS BROWN AND MISS OWEN reopen their Home and Day School for Girls Oct. 1. Certificate admits to Smith and Wellesley.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 18 Newbury Street.

MISS ABBY H. JOHNSON'S HOME and Day School for Young Ladies reopens October 1, 1890.
Superior opportunities for the study of Language, Literature, History, and Philosophy.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 112 Newbury Street.

THE MISSES HUBBARD'S SCHOOL for Girls will reopen October 1, 1890. A limited number of boarding scholars will be received.

MASSACHUSETTS, Boston, 5 Otis Place.

MR. HALE'S SCHOOL PREPARES for Harvard College and the Institute of Technology, on the same course of study. Physical Science, Mathematics, and Modern Languages the prominent features.

MASSACHUSETTS, Brookline, Cypress Street.

MISS LEWIS'S SCHOOL FOR GIRLS. —Three miles out of Boston. Fall term begins Oct. 1, 1890.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, 8 Garden Street.

BROWNE & NICHOLS'S SCHOOL FOR Boys reopens Sept. 24. Entrance and Condition Examinations Sept. 23. Preparatory department full; a few vacancies in Classes I, II, and IV. Address the Principals at Rockport, Mass.
GEORGE H. BROWNE. EDGAR H. NICHOLS.

MASSACHUSETTS, Cambridge, Larch Street.

HOME FOR BOYS.—DR. ABBOT AD- mits not more than four boys into his family, to fit for college or educate privately. Separate tuition, with best of care in all respects. Charming location with fine tennis-court. F. E. ABBOT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, Concord.

HOME SCHOOL FOR BOYS.—SIX boys received into the family to prepare for College or business. Charming situation. Tennis, rowing, and canoeing. French spoken in the family. Separate tuition and best care of health of pupils.
JAMES S. GARLAND, A.B., Harv., 1866.

MASSACHUSETTS, Duxbury, Powder Point.

POWDER POINT SCHOOL.—PRE- pares for scientific school, college, or business. Laboratories. The boys are members of the family.
FREDERICK B. KNAPP, S.B. (M.I.T.)

MASSACHUSETTS, Greenfield.

PROSPECT HILL School for Young La- dies,—21st year. Regular and Special Courses. Beautiful and healthful location. Our certificate admits to Smith. Science, Art, Music. J. C. PARSONS, Prin.

MASSACHUSETTS, Plymouth.

MR. KNAPP'S HOME SCHOOL FOR Boys.—Twenty-fourth year begins Oct. 1, 1890. Mrs. Knapp, Prin.; H. B. LEARNED (Harv.), H'd Master.

MASSACHUSETTS, Quincy.

ADAMS ACADEMY, PREPARA- tory and Boarding School for Boys.—School Year begins September 17. For all information address
WILLIAM EVERETT, Ph.D.

MASSACHUSETTS, South Braintree.

THE THAYER ACADEMY.—FIRST Term, fourteenth year, begins September 17, 1890. For information address
J. B. SEWALL.

MASSACHUSETTS, Springfield.

MR. AND MRS. JOHN McDUFFIE, Successors to Miss Catharine L. Howard in her School for Girls. Address MRS. JOHN MCDUFFIE, care of Miss Catharine L. Howard.

MASSACHUSETTS, West Newton.

WEST NEWTON ENGLISH AND Classical School.—Thirty-seventh year begins Wednesday, Sept. 17, 1890. A family school for lads and misses; prepares for college, scientific school, business life. For catalogue and particulars, address NATH'L T. ALLEN. At home first week in August and after Sept. 10.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC IN- STITUTE.—Courses in Civil, Mechanical, and Electrical Engineering, Chemistry, and Physical and Political Science. Large and finely equipped laboratories and workshops. Address
H. T. FULLER, Ph.D., President of Faculty.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

JOHN W. DALZELL'S PRIVATE School for Boys, at 66 West St., opens Sept. 10. Preparation for College. Send for Catalogue.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

MRS. THROOP'S SCHOOL FOR Young Ladies and Children. College preparatory. Reopens Oct. 1. $600 per year.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

THE HOME SCHOOL.—MISS KIM- BALL'S Day and Boarding School for Girls is finely located in the delightful city of Worcester. Pleasant, cheerful home. College-preparatory and special courses. Desirable home for motherless girls. Address HOME SCHOOL.

Schools.

MASSACHUSETTS, Worcester.

THE HIGHLAND MILITARY ACA- DEMY begins 35th year Sept 17. Classical, Scientific, Business. JOSEPH ALDEN SHAW, A.M., Head Master.

MICHIGAN, Orchard Lake.

MICHIGAN MILITARY ACADEMY. —A College Preparatory School of the highest grade. Location thirty miles from Detroit, and unsurpassed for beauty and healthfulness. For catalogue, address Col. J. S. ROGERS, Supt.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, Portsmouth.

MISS A. C. MORGAN'S SCHOOL FOR young ladies reopens Sept. 24, 1890. J. G. Whittier says: "A better, healthier, and pleasanter place for a school could scarcely be found in New England."

NEW JERSEY, Beverly.

TRINITY HALL.—YOUNG LADIES' Home-School of the highest order. Solid culture in English, Music, Art, and Languages. Careful training in manner, mind, and heart. Twenty-third year begins September 25. For circular address the Principal, RACHELLE GIBBONS HUNT.

NEW JERSEY, Bridgeton, Seven Gables.

MRS. WESTCOTT'S BOARDING School for Young Ladies, in South Jersey, prepares for any college. Climate mild and dry. Gymnasium. Illustrated circular.

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.

ST. MARY'S HALL, THE OLDEST Church School in the country for Girls, will begin its 54th School Year on Sept. 29. For Catalogue apply to the Principal, Miss CHARLOTTE TITCOMB, or to the Bishop of New Jersey, the President.

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.

BURLINGTON COLLEGE.—A School for boys. Prepares for college or business. Opens Sept. 30. Address Rev. C. W. DUANE, Prin.

NEW JERSEY, Englewood, Dwight Place.

MISS CREIGHTON AND MISS FAR- RAR'S School for Girls. Near Palisades of the Hudson.

NEW JERSEY, Freehold.

FREEHOLD INSTITUTE.—ESTAB- lished 1844. College preparation a specialty. Family school for boys, Primary, High School, and Classical Courses. Gymnasium. A. A. CHAMBERS, A.M.

NEW JERSEY, Lakewood.

ALL-THE-YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL for Boys. Address HEAD MASTER, Lock Box 785, Philadelphia P. O., Pa.

NEW JERSEY, Lakewood.

LAKEWOOD HEIGHTS SCHOOL.— A thorough and attractive school for boys. Opens Sept. 30. JAMES W. MOREY, A.M., Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Morristown.

MISS E. ELIZABETH DANA'S School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 23. Terms, board and tuition in English, Latin, and Greek, $600. Circulars on application.

NEW JERSEY, Mount Holly.

MOUNT HOLLY ACADEMY FOR Boys.—Near Philadelphia. Healthful, helpful, homelike. Education with formation of character. College Prep., English, and Business Courses. $350 per year. HENRY M. WALRADT, Yale, Prin.

NEW JERSEY, New Brunswick.

RUTGERS COLLEGE PREPARA- tory School. Boarding school for boys and young men. Prepares for the best colleges, scientific schools or business.
E. H. COOK, A.M., Ph.D., Head Master.

NEW JERSEY, Short Hills.

BAQUET INSTITUTE,—ENGLISH, French, and German Boarding and Day School for young ladies and children. Mlle. HARRIET S. BAQUET, Principal.

NEW YORK, Albany, 42 Lancaster St.

THE ALBANY HOME SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF is adapted to the training and oral instruction of the deaf. Boarding or day pupils. Special training for very young children. Send for circular. Miss A. M. BLACK, Principal.

NEW YORK, Albany.

THE ALBANY ACADEMY.—77TH year. Prepares boys for any College or Scientific School. Twenty reliable boys placed in small groups in private families. HENRY P. WARREN, A.B., Prin.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn.

BROOKLYN HEIGHTS SEMINARY. —Boarding and Day School for Girls. 40th year opens Sept. 25. Address for circulars, 138-140 Montague St.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn, 140-142 Columbia Heights.

THE MISSES ELY'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen October 1, 1890.

NEW YORK CITY, 231 E. 17th St.

ST. JOHN BAPTIST SCHOOL FOR Girls.—English, French, Latin. Professors and lecturers. Prepares for college. Reopens Sept. 24. Terms $300 to $400 per year.

NEW YORK CITY, 9 East 49th St. (formerly 15 East 49th St.)

DRISLER SCHOOL REOPENS MON- day, September 29.
Circulars containing full information on application.

Schools.

NEW YORK CITY, 6 and 8 East 53d St.

THE REED SCHOOL.
Miss Julia G. McAllister, Principal (*succeeding Mrs. Sylvanus Reed, who continues as visitor*). 27th year begins Oct. 1.

NEW YORK CITY, 148 Madison Avenue.

MRS. ROBERTS AND MISS WALK- ER'S English and French School for Young Ladies and Little Girls. Wednesday, October 1. No home study for pupils under 14.

NEW YORK CITY, 343 Madison Avenue.

BARNARD COLLEGE FOR WOMEN. —Degrees given by Columbia College. Fall entrance examinations begin Sept. 29. Free scholarship of $150 offered to the student that passes the best examinations for admission to Freshman Class. Botanical and Chemical Laboratories, admitting special students. Circulars upon application to Secretary.

NEW YORK CITY, 348 Madison Avenue.

MISS JAUDON'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen Oct. 1. Number of boarding pupils limited. Class for little children. Preparation for Harvard Examinations and Barnard College.

NEW YORK CITY, 423 Madison Avenue.

J. H. MORSE'S SCHOOL FOR BOYS reopens Oct. 1. Full Primary, Intermediate, and Academic Courses. Until Sept. 15 the Principal's address is Cotuit, Mass.

NEW YORK CITY, 624 Madison Ave., near 59th St.

THE BENTLEY SCHOOL FOR BOYS. —Principal, William Jones, A.B., Harvard. July and August, Far Rockaway, L. I.

NEW YORK CITY, 1961 Madison Avenue.

CLASSICAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.— Unusual advantages for boarding pupils. Certificate admits to Wellesley and other Colleges. Reopens Oct. 1. Miss NORTH and Miss BARNES, Principals.

NEW YORK CITY, 525 Park Ave., cor. of 61st St.

ACADEMIC CLASSES FOR GIRLS.— Open Oct. 1. Preparation for the Harvard Examinations, Barnard, and other colleges for women; number limited to fifteen; special attention to English, elocution, and physical culture; daily instruction and practice in Delsarte gymnastics. For circulars and other information, address LOIS A. BANGS, or MARY B. WHITON, A.B.
References—The Hon. Seth Low, Pres. Columbia College; the Rev. L. Clark Seelye, D.D., Pres. Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; Truman J. Backus, LL.D., Principal of Packer Institute, Brooklyn; James G. Croswell, Head Master of the Hackley School for Girls, N. Y.; Edward B. Bartlett, Brooklyn; Mrs. George F. Canfield, N. Y.; Frederic R. Coudert, LL.D., N. Y.; Edmund C. Stedman, N. Y.

NEW YORK CITY, 32 West 40th Street.

THE COMSTOCK SCHOOL.—ESTAB- lished 1862. Boarding and Day School for Girls. Reopens Oct. 1. Miss DAY, Principal.

NEW YORK CITY, 55 West 47th Street.

MISS GIBBONS'S SCHOOL FOR Girls will reopen October 1. Three boarding pupils will be received into the family.

NEW YORK CITY, 50 West 104th St.

THE RIVERSIDE SCHOOL FOR Girls, removed to 50 West 104th Street, corner Manhattan Avenue. Miss Emily A. Ward, Principal. College preparation. Spacious quarters for resident pupils. Reopens September 17.

NEW YORK, Claverack.

CLAVERACK COLLEGE AND HUD- SON RIVER INSTITUTE.—Healthfully and beautifully located in the Hudson River Valley. Affords superior advantages for thorough and systematic education to young men and women. Careful attention given by a strong faculty of experienced professors and teachers to intellectual, social, moral, and physical culture. A Conservatory of Music and Art of high grade. 87th year opens Sept. 15. Send for illustrated Catalogue. Rev. A. H. FLACK, A.M., President.

NEW YORK, Clinton.

KIRKLAND HALL.—A Home School for Younger Boys. College Preparatory Course, Business Course. Terms, $350. Address KIRKLAND HALL.

NEW YORK, Glen Cove.

DOSORIS SCHOOL—A HIGH CLASS school for boys; $600 to $750 per year. Summer session June 16 to September 15. Terms, $75 per month. B. F. O'CONNOR, B.L., Ph.D., Director.

NEW YORK, Kingston-on-Hudson.

GOLDEN HILL PREPARATORY School for Boys. Sixth year begins September 24. JOHN M. CROSS, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Long Island, Garden City.

THE CATHEDRAL SCHOOL OF ST. Paul.—Endowed school for boys. Seventeen miles from New York. Ten resident masters; seven visiting instructors. Prepares for any college or scientific school. Has graduates in the leading colleges. Military drill under a U. S. Army officer. Through the munificence of the late Mrs. A. T. Stewart the building is one of the finest school buildings in the U. S., and every department is thoroughly equipped. Excellent laboratories for individual work in Chemistry and Physics. English required throughout the course. Location unsurpassed in healthfulness. CHAS. STURTEVANT MOORE, A.B. (Harvard), Head Master.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.

RIVERVIEW ACADEMY.—55TH Year. Prepares thoroughly for College, the Government Academies, and Business. Military drill. BISBEE & AMEN, Principals.

Schools.

NEW YORK, Saratoga Springs.

TEMPLE GROVE LADIES' SEMINARY.—Superior facilities for the higher Sciences, Philosophy, Languages, Music, Painting, esthetic and social culture. 36th year begins Sept. 17. C. F. DOWD, Ph.D., Pres.

NEW YORK, Syracuse.

MRS. ALFRED WILKINSON'S School for Girls. Reopens September 17, 1890. Refers to Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, George Wm. Curtis, Hon. Wayne McVeagh, Rev. Edward Everett Hale, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Hon. Andrew D. White.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown-on-Hudson.

MISS BULKLEY'S BOARDING AND Day School for Girls will reopen Wednesday, September 17.

NORTH CAROLINA, Asheville.

RAVENSCROFT SCHOOL.—PREPARATORY Boarding and Day School for Boys. Head Master, Ronald MacDonald, B.A., Oxford.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

EDEN PARK SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.—Tenth year. This school is remarkable for its beautiful location, high patronage, home life, unsurpassed advantages for modern languages, music, etc., etc. For circulars, address Mme. FREDIN, as above.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

BARTHOLOMEW ENGLISH AND Classical Home and Day School for Girls. Board and tuition $500 school year. G. K. BARTHOLOMEW, Ph.D.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, Academic Department.—Coeducational. Eight complete courses, four years each; Classical, one course: Letters, two; Science, four (Chemistry, Physics, Biology, and Astronomy); Civil Engineering, one course. The laboratories are well equipped. Tuition is free to residents of Cincinnati, and $60 per year to non-residents. Academic year begins September 18, 1890. For catalogues and other information, address the Dean. H. T. EDDY, Cincinnati.

OHIO, Cincinnati.

MISS ARMSTRONG'S SCHOOL FOR Girls, Liddesdale Place, Avondale. Family limited to eighteen. Circulars sent on application.

OHIO, Columbus, 151 East Broad Street.

MISS PHELPS'S ENGLISH AND Classical School for Young Ladies. Special advantages in Language, Literature, Music, Art, Home and Social Culture. Fall term begins September 25, 1890. New school building.

PENNSYLVANIA, Bryn Mawr.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, A COLLEGE for Women, ten miles from Philadelphia, offers graduate and undergraduate courses in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Mathematics, English, Anglo-Saxon, French, Old French, Italian, Spanish, German, including Gothic and Old High German, Celtic, History, Political science, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and lectures on Philosophy. Gymnasium, with Dr. Sargent's apparatus complete. Fellowships (value $450) in Greek, English, Mathematics, History, and Biology. For Program address as above.

PENNSYLVANIA, Bryn Mawr.

MISS BALDWIN'S DAY, BOARD- ing, and College Preparatory School for Girls reopens Sept. 30. For circular address Miss F. BALDWIN.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chambersburg.

WILSON COLLEGE FOR YOUNG Women. For Catalogue or advice on preparation, address Rev. J. EDGAR, Ph.D., Prest.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chester.

PENNSYLVANIA MILITARY ACA- DEMY.—Twenty-ninth session opens Sept. 17. *A MILITARY COLLEGE.* Civil Engineering, Chemistry, Architecture, Arts. A Preparatory Course of one year. Circulars of

Col. C. E. HYATT, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, North Wales.

NORTH WALES ACADEMY AND School of Business.—Twenty-first year September 10. Board and tuition, $240. Graduates, either sex, enter Freshman class of colleges. Smith or Wellesley College graduate assistants. S. U. BRUNNER, P. O. BOX 41.

PENNSYLVANIA, Ogontz, Montgomery County.

OGONTZ SCHOOL FOR YOUNG LA- dies, removed in 1883 from Chestnut St., Philadelphia, to Ogontz, the spacious country seat of Jay Cooke, will begin its forty-first year Wednesday, September 24. For circulars apply to PRINCIPALS.

Principals—Miss Frances E. Bennett, Miss Sylvia J. Eastman. Principal Emerita—Miss H. A. Dillaye.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Germantown.

FRANKLIN SCHOOL, A CHARTERED institution for Boys and Young Men, offers advanced preparation for the best Colleges and Schools of Science, and extended courses in History, English Literature, French, German, Drawing, Elocution, and Vocal Music. An excellent system of physical culture (founded on Delsarte). Fine building and extensive grounds. Circulars and full information sent on application. GEORGE A. PERRY, A.M., Head Master.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1350 Pine St.

MISS ANABLE'S BOARDING AND Day School for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 25.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Germantown, 202 and 204 West Chelten Avenue.

MISS MARY E. STEVENS'S BOARD- ing and Day School. 22d year begins September 24, 1890.

Prepares for Bryn Mawr and other Colleges.

Bryn Mawr entrance examinations held in the school. Certificate admits to Vassar.

Schools.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, Chestnut Hill.

MRS. COMEGYS AND MISS BELL'S English, French, and German Boarding School for young ladies reopens Sept. 29, 1890.

Students prepared for College. Ample grounds for outdoor exercise.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 4313 and 4315 Walnut St.

A THOROUGH FRENCH AND ENG- LISH Home School for Twenty Girls.—Under the charge of Mme. Henrietta Clerc and Miss Marion L. Peeke. French warranted to be spoken in two years. Terms $300 a year. Address Mme. H. CLERC.

PENNSYLVANIA, Swarthmore.

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE OPENS 9th month, 4th, 1890. Thirty minutes from Broad St. Station, Philadelphia. Under care of Friends. Full college courses for both sexes leading to Classical, Engineering, Scientific, and Literary degrees. Healthful location, extensive grounds, buildings, machine shops, laboratories, and libraries. For full particulars address WM. H. APPLETON, Ph.D., President.

SOUTH CAROLINA, Columbia.

SOUTH CAROLINA COLLEGE FOR Women.—This institution will open its session Oct. 1, 1890. The institution includes the South Carolina Presbyterian Institute, for Preparatory and Academic instruction, and the South Carolina College for the higher education of women. For all its departments it has a Faculty of sixteen professors and teachers, unexcelled in ability and experience.

Columbia is one of the finest health resorts of the South, having the climate and salubrity of Aiken and Summerville, and of Thomasville, Georgia. For circulars, address the President, Rev. WM. R. ATKINSON.

TENNESSEE, Nashville.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 11, 1890.

The Week.

THE result of the election in Maine on Monday is a great personal victory for Speaker Reed. Indeed, it is not too much to say that it is one of the greatest personal victories ever achieved by a politician in our history. Although the Republicans have only lost the Portland district once since the election of Abraham Lincoln, it has always been close. The highest majority which Mr. Reed has ever received since he was first made the Republican candidate was in the last Presidential year, when he had 2,433 more votes than his Democratic opponent, and this opponent was a rather weak candidate. On Monday he led the Democratic nominee by about 4,500 votes—almost twice his majority of two years ago. It was to be expected that he would be reëlected, as he has never been beaten when he ran before. It was also reasonable to expect that the local pride which a district always feels in seeing its Representative become a great partisan leader, would give the Speaker a good majority this year, especially when his own personal appeal for a vote of confidence was reinforced by earnest appeals from several other leading Republican Congressmen who took the stump in his behalf. Moreover, the Republicans had all the advantages of a good organization and plenty of money, while the Democratic campaign seems to have been left to run itself. Good judges have therefore anticipated a considerable majority for Mr. Reed, but neither friend nor foe expected so overwhelming a victory. It would be ridiculous to depreciate its importance or significance.

Through the remainder of this Congress Mr. Reed will absolutely control the action of the House. He will dictate the final form which the Tariff Bill shall take in the Conference Committee. If the Republicans elect the next House, he will be made Speaker without any opposition. If the Democrats secure a majority next November, he will be the leader of the minority on the floor. In either case he will be a candidate for the Presidency. Already the signs of his "boom" are visible in the work of a "literary bureau" which has begun sending out by the thousand a newspaper supplement of four pages containing a mass of matter eulogizing the Speaker, several copies of which have been received at this office from different parts of the country. The opponents of high tariffs and force bills and all the other materialistic and centralizing tendencies of the time in the Republican organization have no reason to be dissatisfied with the elevation of Mr. Reed to the leadership of his party. He represents that party as it exists to-day better than any other man, and it is always to be desired in a representative government that the head of a party should be its real leader. He typifies the Republican party of 1890, and furnishes the best possible test for passing national judgment upon that party. If the people of the United States, upon sober reflection, endorse that party, they will make him again Speaker of the House next year, and they should elect him President in 1892. It is needless to say that we do not anticipate any such result.

The most interesting feature of Mr. Reed's speech at Portland on Thursday evening was his slap at Mr. Blaine in return for the latter's recent snub of him. It will be remembered that in his Waterville speech Mr. Blaine did not so much as once mention the Speaker of the House, the great figure on the Republican side in the Maine canvass. At Portland Mr. Reed had his innings. "Since 1874," he said in his defence of the Force Bill, "*when the Republican party first faltered in its great duty* of preserving liberty and equality before the law for all citizens of the United States, a Republican House of Representatives has been rare." This is an allusion to the Force Bill which was pushed by Mr. Lodge's exemplar, Gen. Butler, in the session of 1874-75, and defeated through the opposition of Republicans. It is true that among these Republican opponents were also James A. Garfield, Joseph R. Hawley, and many other prominent men; but all their efforts would have been in vain had they not been supported by James G. Blaine, who as Speaker permitted and encouraged the filibustering tactics which killed the bill. Speaker Reed might as well have said, in so many words, "since 1874, when, under Mr. Blaine's leadership, the Republican party first faltered in its great duty."

The official returns of the Kentucky election last month come to hand just as the country is digesting the result of the Vermont election on Tuesday week, and they are equally significant of the drift of the tide in politics. Vermont is always carried by the Republicans, but their majority at the recent election was the smallest ever known, even in an off year. Kentucky is always carried by the Democrats, but their majority at the recent election was the largest ever known in an off year. The total Democratic vote was 161,712, which was never before exceeded except in Cleveland's record of 183,800 in 1888, while the Republican ticket received only 107,005, against 155,184 for Harrison two years ago. The Democratic majority in Kentucky has thus almost doubled, as compared with the last Presidential election, while the Republican majority in Vermont is cut down one-half, as compared with the same year.

It is amusing to read the comments of Republican organs upon the result in Vermont. Says the Boston *Journal:* "There were no general issues at stake, and in consequence the vote was a very light one. The apparent decrease, therefore, in the Republican majority has no political significance." In like manner the Philadelphia *Press* says: "There was no great national issue at stake which called upon the party to make a record in the election. There was nothing to arouse the voters to a sense of their duty when the result of the poll was only a question of the size of the majority." But what "general issues," as the *Journal* calls them, or "great national issue," as the *Press* puts it, were at stake in 1886, the last previous election in a non-Presidential year, or in 1882, or in 1878, or in 1874, or in 1870? Was there in any one of those off years a single national issue to compare in importance with either the McKinley Tariff Bill or the Lodge Force Bill? Yet in 1870 the Republican plurality in Vermont was 21,309; in 1874, 20,325; in 1878, 20,065; in 1882, 21,373; and in 1886, 20,522; while in 1890 it has sunk to only 14,000. In every one of these previous elections, when the issues at stake were far less important, Republican organs asserted that the large Republican majority was full of significance, and it is absurd to say now that it does not mean anything when the majority is unprecedentedly small. The truth is, as the Burlington *Free Press* lately remarked, that "the Republicans of the country at large have got into the habit of looking to the Vermont election as a significant indicator of the strength of parties and set of the political current among intelligent and thinking men throughout the Union"; and, having formed this habit, there is no reason in the world for not deeming the recent election as significant as any of its predecessors.

We have read with care the reports of the recent election in Arkansas published in the *State Register*, the Republican organ at Little Rock, on the following day, and we must say that they furnish no fair basis for the claim so industriously made by Republican organs at the North that the Democrats won by force and fraud. Despatches from a number of counties were printed, and most of them were of this tenor: "The election passed off quietly"; "the election here was peaceable"; "the election in this county passed off quietly"; "the election here passed off quietly"; "the election was the most quiet and peaceable we ever had." The only exceptions to this sort of reports are in the Third Ward of Little Rock, where the Republicans claim to have been cheated out of hundreds of votes; in Conway County, where the *Register's* correspondent says, "we have no hopes of a fair count"; and in Ouachita County, where a band of armed men warned the negroes in one township against trying to vote the Republican ticket, and drove from the polls some who disregarded the warning. On the other hand, we find in Democratic papers reports from

various counties that the Democrats gained largely, both among the negroes (members of that race having been nominated upon their local tickets in a number of cases) and among the white Republicans, one despatch mentioning as "a notable fact that some of the most conservative white Republicans have left their party on account of the pending Force Bill, and say that as long as that and similar enactments are held over the South they will stay out." On the whole, we can see no reason for any candid man to doubt that the Democrats carried Arkansas fairly by a large majority. Any other result would, indeed, have been most extraordinary. When the Republican majority even in Vermont is cut down one-half since the last election, it is inconceivable that Arkansas should show Republican gains

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The intensely bitter attack which a Republican Congressman, Mr. Kennedy of Ohio, made upon Senator Quay on the floor of the House last week is the latest revelation to the country of the volcanic internal condition of the Republican party. Mr. Kennedy spoke from manuscript, and the circumstances attending the delivery of the speech all point strongly to the suspicion that he made his attack with the knowledge and approval of the Speaker, and of Mr. Burroughs, whom the Speaker had left to fill his place in the chair. The *Tribune's* Washington correspondent gives indirect sanction to this view by saying: "Whatever criticism may be passed upon Mr. Kennedy on the score of taste, or the lack of it, in choosing the present moment —after the Republican majority in the Senate has made pledges to proceed in December next to the consideration of the Elections Bill, and to dispose of it one way or other—in order to arraign Mr. Quay for the part he took in the disposal of that matter, there is no denying the fact that he represents a large, almost an overwhelming, majority of Republicans in the House in their judgment of Mr. Quay's course with reference to it." But Mr. Kennedy did not sit in judgment upon Mr. Quay's course towards the Elections Bill, but upon his record as a public thief. Does the *Tribune* mean to say that an "overwhelming majority of the Republicans of the House" are so enraged with Quay for defeating the Force Bill that they agree with Mr. Kennedy when he denounces Quay as a "branded criminal," whose "silence is a confession of guilt," and who stands "a convicted criminal before the bar of public opinion under such circumstances that he should be driven from the head of a party whose very life his presence imperils"?

The more mature feeling of the Republicans at Washington about Mr. Kennedy's attack on Quay is, according to the *Tribune's* correspondent, "one of hot and almost universal indignation, as well as profound regret." There has accordingly been "a long and earnest consultation" about it among the Pennsylvanians, who are "especially indignant." What does the reader suppose they have determined to do about it? Ask Kennedy to retract? Show him that his charges were false? Get Quay to bring suits against his slanderers? Get Senator Cameron and Wayne MacVeagh to clear him? Not by any means. What this "hot indignation" and "long and earnest consultation" have produced is "the draft of a resolution to expunge the speech from the *Record*." But expunging the speech from the *Record* does not recall the speech. It does not take out of the memory of the public the fact that a member of Congress in good standing, and a stanch Republican, is convinced that Quay is a man of very bad character, and so thoroughly convinced of it that he could not help giving public utterance to his belief. Therein lies the trouble of the occasion. The Pennsylvanians can expunge from the *Record* as much as they please, but they cannot pluck the rooted sorrow from Quay's brain. They cannot raise him in the estimation of a single human being who now considers him a scoundrel. They cannot undo his robbery of the State Treasury. They cannot make his past life clean or respectable. They cannot wipe out the disgrace to the State of ever having had such a sorry scamp as a political leader, and, fouler still, of having sent him to the United States Senate. They cannot give back to Don Cameron the money he advanced to save him from ruin or suicide. They cannot enable Wanamaker to get up and tell his Sunday-school that he paid over the campaign funds in 1888 to a man whom he knew to be honorable, just, and true in all his dealings. No, indignant Pennsylvanians, none of these comforts are within your reach. You can forgive or shelter your man, but you cannot rehabilitate him. You can doctor the *Record*, but you cannot doctor the culprit.

We observe that the *Tribune* continues to refrain from giving any opinion as to the fitness of Mr. Delamater for the Governorship of Pennsylvania, and from advising the Republicans of the State as to their obligation to support such a candidate after he has been forced upon the party by a man like Quay, and put upon a platform which would make his election an approval by the party of Quay's methods in public office and politics. These are matters which are seriously disturbing the minds of many loyal Republicans in Pennsylvania, as will be seen by any one who will read the address which eminent members of the party have just put forth in Philadelphia. Many of the men who have signed this document are not Mugwumps, but, as they take pains to say in its opening paragraph, "have been, since the birth of the party, earnest Republicans who have given its policy and plans their constant approval and support." Why they are unable to do so now they state as follows:

"No more serious, clear, or unavoidable issue than this could be presented to the people. Mr. Quay is the acknowledged, unblushing champion of political corruptionists. He is silent under a recent responsible and repeated charge of the embezzlement of public money; he selects Mr. Delamater as candidate for Governor, and a pliant convention ratifies his selection; the party platform endorses Mr. Quay, and Mr. Delamater stands on the party platform and on no other. The conclusion is irresistible that the election of Mr. Delamater will have as its main and most potent result the public approval of Mr. Quay, and his permanent intrenchment in the Republican party of the State as its acknowledged leader and counsellor, the representative of its principles and the exponent of its policy."

It is interesting to note that the Republican organ of Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia *Press*, does not call the signers of the address Mugwumps, but says they are "nearly all of high business or professional standing; and while all are novices in politics and totally misguided, the motives of some—however mistaken—are to them doubtless sincere enough." It goes on to say that these "novices in politics" have been misled into giving their countenance to an attack upon the protective tariff. "It will have no effect upon the leaders of this movement," says the *Press*, "to tell them they are aiding the destructive tariff policy of the Democratic party; that is what they want to do." Will it have any effect upon you, Mr. *Press*, to ask you what you were doing when you said in 1885 that Quay's nomination for State Treasurer "would take the lid from off the Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb"? Were you "aiding the destructive tariff policy of the Democratic party" then, or what were you doing? Had the tariff any more to do with what you were saying then than it has with what these "novices in politics" are saying now? Would it not be much better for you if you were to stand dumb before the revelations which have come because the lid *has been* taken from the Treasury, than to talk what you and every one of your readers know to be nonsense?

The more Mr. Blaine and the *Tribune* discuss our commercial situation the more intricate, inscrutable, and, in fact, incomprehensible it becomes. The *Tribune* said on Friday that "in no year for the last quarter of a century have our exports in gold amounted to more than $64,000,000"; that is, exports from the United States to all parts of the world, we presume. Now, according to Mr. Blaine's recent showing, our losses in the trade with the West Indies, Central and South America, last year amounted to $143,000,000, which, as we understand him, we either paid in gold or have not paid at all. But suppose we did pay these $64,000,000, there still remains a balance of $79,000,000 unsettled. Now, it is quite certain that we got the goods which this amount represents: Mr. Blaine admits that the rascals unloaded them on us. If, therefore, we have not paid for them, is there not a balance of $79,000,000 in our favor—that is, have we not got $143,000,000 worth of produce for $64,000,000? It may be this calculation is not correct. The reciprocity plan, as Mr. Blaine and the *Tribune* set it forth, cannot be mastered at once by an ordinary intelligence, and it may be, therefore, that we have fallen into some error. If so, we shall be glad to be set right. The puzzle is increased by the fact that our total net exports of gold and silver in 1889 were only $68,346,042, totally

insufficient to settle our American balance. But besides this we had a balance of about $7,000,000 against us in Austria-Hungary, of about—we use round numbers—$12,000,000 in China, of about $20,000,000 in France, of about $20,000,000 in Germany, and of about $200,000,000 in Great Britain. How, in the name of Reciprocity and all the Protectionist gods, was all this settled? If not settled, how will it be settled? Has $259,000,000 of gold "left the country" in 1889? If it has, we shall never say a good word for gold again.

The Raum scandal has already become so intolerable that Republican newspapers are beginning to demand the removal of the Pension Commissioner. "With all the attempts made to gloss over Gen. Raum's administration of the Pension Office," says the Boston *Record*, "this much is clear: he is in the hands of the pension agents in Washington, and that is reason enough why we should have a new Commissioner, and not a soldier of fortune either. Raum went into it to enrich himself and take care of his relatives, while the only way to keep the Pension Bureau from scandal is to have an honest and stiff-backed man at the head of it." The demand for Gen. Raum's removal from the Pension Office in September, 1890, recalls the fact that it was in September, 1889, that Corporal Tanner was forced out of the same office, his letter to the President bearing date of the 12th of that month. At this rate there will be a chance for two more appointments and removals of commissioners like Tanner and Raum before the end of Mr. Harrison's term.

Mr. Andrew D. White read a paper before the Social Science Association at Saratoga on Thursday on the "Government of American Cities," in which he denounced very sensibly the theory that the city is a political body, to be governed as such, instead of a corporate body owning property to be managed as such. But he concluded that the last-named theory could not be acted on in this country. So he proposed "a compromise," in which there should be a Mayor and Common Council elected by the votes of all the citizens on a general ticket, to represent politics, and he would then have another body elected by property-owners to be called "the Board of Control," to represent property, and have a vote on all expenditures except those for education. As regards the first part of the plan we do not see how it would exclude politics from city administrations in the smallest degree; and as regards the second, Mr. White probably forgets that this very scheme, with this very name, was carefully propounded by Gov. Tilden's Commission in 1877 as a constitutional amendment, passed one Legislature, and was killed in the next by order of Mr. Conkling. There is much less chance of its passing now than then. Politics cannot be excluded from the administration of any American city under an elective system, except through what we may call a change of heart on the part of the intelligent classes of the community. In New York this class, under the name of Republicans, has encouraged in every possible way for over thirty years the notion that a city is a political body, and municipal elections political elections, and has actually subscribed money and paid lewd fellows of the baser sort for propagating this theory. Small blame to the poor ignorant foreigners for embracing the doctrine with eagerness, and rushing into the arms of Tammany. It is this state of mind we must change in order to have real and lasting municipal reform. We have in New York already as good a board of control as could be created, and we have more Common Council than we have any need of or than is good for us. What we want is a shame or sorrow among the well-to-do and intelligent over the condition of city affairs, and a strong determination that this great national disgrace shall cease from among us.

The probability of another famine, or, at all events, great scarcity and resulting suffering in Ireland, owing to the failure of the crops, is now acknowledged on all hands. The Tories themselves admit it, and admit that something must be done by the Government to make head against it. One of its first consequences will undoubtedly be a demand for a further reduction of the "judicial rents," and as this will probably be refused, there will be another crop of evictions and the now usual accompanying agitation and resistance and tumult both in England and Ireland. There is nothing new about this failure of crops and resulting inability to pay rent. It has been one of the usual episodes of Irish agricultural history for the last hundred and fifty years, owing in part to the uncertainty of the climate. Until Mr. Gladstone took the Irish question up, however, these things excited no attention in England, and [illegible] landlords had it all their own w[illegible] The fact is, however, that the soil of Ireland never has been able to maintain a landed gentry besides the actual cultivators of the soil, except by keeping the cultivators' standard of living down to the lowest point, and extracting the rent at the point of the bayonet. In other words, Irish farmers, taking one year with another, cannot pay an economical rent, and the English public is gradually having its eyes opened to this fact through the painful process of the home-rule agitation.

The outcome of the London dock strike has been and is very interesting. It drove the dock companies, most of which were on the verge of bankruptcy, into a compromise with the strikers, the main feature of which was a slight advance in wages, combined with regular instead of occasional employment. The system previously pursued had been to summon from the large crowd of "casuals" who hang round the gates, as many men as were needed for any particular job and pay them by the hour. For this was substituted regular wages paid to a certain number of men, whose condition was thereby undoubtedly improved, and the strike had probably the effect of improving the manners of the dock officials towards them. The result was treated as a great triumph in all labor circles, and Tom Mann, the agitator who managed the strike, became a personage of immense importance. The men employed by the companies were, however, naturally found much less manageable than they used to be, and the problem of keeping the shipping business in the port of London more difficult than ever. The dock companies cannot now guarantee to ship-owners the prompt loading or discharge of their cargoes, because Tom Mann may at any moment make some fresh exaction, or interpose some fresh objection to their way of doing business.

Some of the other consequences of the success of the strike are very instructive. The "casuals" were a heterogeneous mass of unskilled labor, composed partly of broken-down or characterless men who had lost their footing in regular callings, and partly of that drift, from the agricultural districts, of adventurers tired of farm and village life, over which all the lovers and admirers of the older England are now sending up such a loud lament. The dock companies dived into the crowd without discrimination, took the first comers, and, one way or another, diffused such wages as they had to offer through the whole body in the course of the year. Now, however, Tom Mann's men have announced their intention of closing their union—that is, limiting it to a certain number, and refusing admission to all new comers, who may, he says, if they cannot do anything else, go on the poor rates for subsistence, for all he cares.

The success of the London dockers' movement has done much to beget and diffuse all over the kingdom notions of the wildest character as to the possibilities of Socialistic legislation. The Trade-Union Conference held in Liverpool last week, undoubtedly under the influence of the dockers' strike, threw to the winds the old-fashioned conservatism and sober common sense which have hitherto distinguished English workmen from their brethren in France and Germany. The reforms there talked of would, in fact, involve a reorganization of society with "labor on top." Tom Mann, and John Burns the London Socialistic agitator, were the leading spirits of the gathering, and spouted more nonsense than we have ever heard from Powderly. Doubtless their threats will produce among many people in England the belief which the earlier deliverances of the Knights of Labor created here, that a great social revolution is imminent, in which the world will be ruled by Walking Delegates who hardly know how to read or write. Nothing of the kind is likely to happen. What will result from these great labor disturbances which we are witnessing all over the world, until the reaction comes, is simply a great increase of timidity among capitalists, much shifting of capital from one country to another, a considerable reduction in the average of profits, and a great aggravation of that difficulty of finding secure investments which already fills the lives of parents, trustees, and small annuitants with so much anxiety.

THE BLAINE EXPLOSION.

THERE is no doubt that Mr. Blaine's plan of "reciprocity" is rapidly taking hold of the minds of Republican voters, and has already borne fruit in the Aldrich amendment, which is simply a monstrous and unconstitutional way of putting it into execution, inasmuch as it proposes to commit the imposing and removing of taxes to the President alone. The reason why this monstrous and unconstitutional expedient has to be resorted to in order to get over the difficulties which lie in the way of securing reciprocity by treaty, is to be found in the extraordinary kind of instruction as to the nature of foreign trade which the Republican leaders have been supplying to the masses during the last twenty-five years. The protectionist gospel preached during that period has been indeed as wonderful a mass of absurdities as can be found in the history of the human mind. That the explosion of these absurdities should at last have begun, no matter from what quarter the impulse may come, must be a source of rejoicing to every lover of his kind or of his country.

Foremost among them was the doctrine, which Mr. Blaine actually preached so late as 1888, that foreign trade was a pernicious thing for the United States, even if it were attainable, and that Mr. Cleveland did wrong in suggesting it as a relief for some of our present financial troubles. But this doctrine, queer as it is to preach in a country whose sails in the first half of the century swarmed on every sea, was the natural sequence of the doctrine that foreign trade was a thing which individuals would or could carry on year after year at a loss unless the Government interfered to stop their folly. The success with which this ridiculous notion was spread through the country was due to two things—the complete absorption of Eastern capital and capitalists since the war in railroads and protected manufactures, and the growth in the West of an immense population which had no experience of foreign trade and knew nothing about "abroad," and which was absorbed in domestic trade and agriculture. If the farmer had been also the direct exporter of his produce to the European markets, the true nature of the situation would doubtless long ago have dawned on him. But he sells to middlemen, who find the foreign market for his goods.

As matters have stood, nobody of much popular weight and influence has had a direct interest in exploding the delusion that men, if let alone, would trade with foreigners in such a way as to ruin their own country, and that foreigners could come here and unload great quantities of goods on us against our will, for which they would take pay only in gold, and go off leaving us without a dollar of that metal in our pockets. Mr. Blaine's story the other day, about the loss of $143,000,000 in our West Indian and South and Central American trade in 1889, could only have been told to a nation which had for a quarter of a century sat in economical darkness, and which had completely lost familiarity with the machinery of foreign commerce. Of course, all the houses engaged in this trade in our great seaports saw the absurdity of it perfectly, and have been laughing in their sleeves over it for the last fortnight, as a droll illustration of the American politician's demagogy; but they are not in politics. They are in business, and they know they are a class whom the people have been taught to despise and hate as in some mysterious way enemies of the country. So they keep very still, and let the politicians' tongues wag. The other class which could expose this curious folly is the college professors, but the high-tariff men have managed, with great dexterity, to discredit them also since the war, as unpractical and visionary and theoretical, and as too ignorant of the art of making money to be worth attention. The newspapers have been easily quieted, by being either "owned" or "muzzled;" so the preachers of absurdity have had free course.

That the first rays of light should come from Mr. Blaine, as one of these preachers, and that the Home-Market Club of Boston should be willing to flash them around New England, is surely a most encouraging event. For this "reciprocity" plan, whatever its crudeness, has the great merit of teaching the voters, by the discussion it creates, that foreign trade is not necessarily an unprofitable or pernicious thing; that it consists in barter; that the foreigner who sells us goods does not insist on being paid in gold, and could not get the gold if he tried; that it is a wise thing to exchange with foreigners things in the production of which we have an advantage, for things in the production of which they have an advantage; that men are not such idiots as to pursue steadily a losing business unless they are restrained and directed by a tariff; and that imports, whatever they are, must always be paid for in American labor, and constitute, *per se*, an effectual demand for American labor.

That all this should be acknowledged even in the columns of the *Tribune*, is surely "the Lord's doing and it is marvellous in our eyes." That the friends of "reciprocity" should be sensitive about having this spoken of as "free trade" is natural enough, considering the way they have been talking about free trade and free-traders for the last twenty years. They have, as part of the policy of protection, invented and spread a lot of myths about the character and designs of free-traders, and about the nature of their doctrines, which were better fitted for use among Russian muzhiks than among the citizens of a free democracy. These myths have been a disgrace to American intelligence, and have for a long time made Americans hang their heads for shame when they found themselves in the society of educated men from other countries. If reciprocity puts a stop to them, it will do much for the credit both of the American press and platform.

POWDERLY'S GREAT CONSPIRACY.

MR. POWDERLY has furnished a complete vindication of the New York Central Railway for its course in the recent strike, by putting in evidence before the State Board of Arbitration copies of a remarkable correspondence between himself and Lee, the Knight who was the local leader of the strike. Why he should have revealed this correspondence is a mystery, for it convicts both himself and Lee of conspiring secretly to organize the employees of the Central Railway Company against the management, in order to make it possible to "tie up" not merely that road, but all other railways in the country, either in 1892, the Presidential election year, or in 1893, the year of the proposed World's Fair. Incidentally, Powderly's letters reveal a condition of affairs on the Reading Road previous to the last strike there which vindicates that company also for the course it took to crush out the "noble and holy order" from among its employees. In fact, the correspondence shows Powderly to be a pernicious meddler in the affairs of railway companies, devoting all his energies to encouraging the men to be false to their employers, and consequently unworthy of trust and unfit for employment in any position of responsibility.

The first letter in the published correspondence is dated at Scranton on February 3 last. It was addressed to Lee, and shows in every line that he was at that time engaged in organizing the Central's employees for a strike—six months before it was ordered. Powderly advises Lee "to go cautiously, feel your way carefully, and secure yourselves in your footholds firmly before stepping into unknown depths in order to secure more advantages." "Remember," he says, "that you are coping with one of the greatest corporations in America, and that can bring to its aid in a struggle millions of dollars where organized labor cannot bring as many cents." As an evidence of the folly of striking at an inopportune time, he gives this most instructive glimpse of the power of the Knights on the Reading Road previous to the strike there a few years ago:

> "The men on the Reading Railroad actually controlled the entire management, and had everything their own way. They grew restive, and allowed incendiary counsels to prevail. *It was no uncommon thing for them to stop a train on the main track and talk to an up-train in order to settle some little matter.* That sort of thing could not last, and when they finally struck it was at the wrong time for the men, and just the time to suit the company."

That is the ideal condition of a railway from the Powderly point of view—the men "controlling the entire management and having everything their own way," and stopping trains on the main track whenever they wish to "settle some little matter." This was the model he was holding up for Lee to attain on the Central. Lee replies that he will do his best, saying under date of February 10: "We will associate our efforts to the end that none but our coolest and wisest members shall be selected to carry out the work of our district organization, *men who will always work for the best interest of the order, and endeavor to hold the respect of the officers of the railroad company.*" Lee photographs his character perfectly in that passage. He stands revealed as a man who was working secretly

against the interests of his employers, yet endeavoring at the same time to retain their confidence. Powderly thoroughly approves of this kind of service, for in a letter to Lee, dated April 17, he says:

"This is your plan: Go on with the work of organization, do it as quietly as possible, work hereafter under secret orders, and divulge nothing to the outside world as to movements or work done. Put organizers to work on the West Shore Road and all along the entire Vanderbilt system. When you can induce a young man to quit the service of the company, do so. Have as many as think of going elsewhere this spring do so in a body, if they can be relied on to do it that way. Have them give as a reason, if asked, that they are offered better wages and inducements elsewhere."

Lee endeavored to the best of his ability to carry out these instructions, but he was so zealous for the order, and so negligent of his duties to the company, that he got into trouble, as his letter of July 31 shows:

"We are having a very serious time of it here. The New York Central corporation are crowding us very hard, laying off men right and left, and *the worst of it is, the men who have been promoting the best interest of the organization are the ones selected for dismissal.* It looks to me as if the company wants to have the men strike at this time in order to break up the organization, as it would be a very easy matter for them to defeat us now, as there is nothing doing on the road. I have received notice to-day that my services are no longer required by the company, and a few others who were at different times before the officers of the company while acting as representatives of the organization have been let go also."

The insolent and arrogant corporation had actually asserted its right to manage its own affairs, and had had the audacity to dispense with the services of Mr. Lee and other Knights who had "been promoting the best interests of their own organization" by attempting to put it in charge of the company's business. Powderly at once replied in a letter, dated August 2, which displays him as a strategist of no mean order. After advising Lee to avoid a strike at that time at all hazards, because the company was never so well prepared for it, he says:

"Caution your men to continue as before, make no noise, no stir, or show of strength, and, if possible, act on the following suggestion: You have in the order a number of young men who would just as lieve take Horace Greeley's advice and 'go West' as not; select a number of these who would be willing to take positions elsewhere; have them correspond with our brothers and sisters in the West and secure positions there; then have them go one by one to their superintendent and ask for higher wages, shorter hours, better conditions, or, in fact, anything that may be required by the employees of the road. Their demands will be refused, of course, and then let them state that they are unwilling to work for such a corporation when they can better themselves. When a number of good men quit in that manner it will cause the company to think that it will not do to trifle with them, and prevent the discharge of other men.

"*This you must do secretly, and by all means postpone and keep back all indications of trouble until the return of Mr. Depew from Europe. Remember that he is a possible candidate for the Presidency, and will go to any lengths, where his own personality is concerned, rather than have a strike on his road, for that would injure his chance irreparably.*"

Perhaps Mr. Depew will enjoy reading that closing passage when he arrives from Europe this week. It is not the first hint that has been made that the Knights had been using his Presidential aspirations as a basis for getting control of the affairs of the railway of which he is the President, undermining the discipline of its employees, and honeycombing its service with "politics" in its worst and most dangerous form.

But Powderly was unable to hold the strike back till Mr. Depew returned, though he made a final appeal to Lee on August 6, two days before the strike was ordered, and in it he let a very large cat out of the bag by saying:

"Brother Lee, it is madness for the men of the New York Central to think of striking. They cannot win, and you know it as well as I do. Only the enthusiastic who never count the cost will say that a strike on a system of railways can succeed in these days.

"The New York Central management know that if organization can be kept up among the men until the World's Fair, they will not be able to refuse the men any just concession. They desire to break your power before you have succeeded in organizing other roads, and with a defeat now they know that the chances for a reorganization before 1893 is an impossibility, and that the men will always be at their mercy.

"*The year 1892 will be Presidential year, 1893 the World's Fair, but the patience of the workingman will not hold out to remain organized quietly while doing his part to organize other parts so that they will be as one man when these years come.*"

It is very plain from this deliverance that the Central Railway, by its prompt and vigorous course, has suppressed not merely a conspiracy against its own management, but a far larger one against all the railways of the country for 1892 or 1893. In the same way that he was counting on Mr. Depew's Presidential aspirations for success on the Central, Powderly was counting on the political influences of a Presidential year, and on the greatly increased demands of travel for the World's Fair, for success in a great "tie-up" in 1892 or 1893. The country owes a vote of thanks to the Central management, and to Mr. Webb in particular, for the crushing defeat they have administered to this pernicious creature. They had the sagacity to discover the conspiracy in its inception, and the courage and shrewdness to fight it in the most deadly way. Lee's letters are ample proof of this, and ample justification. The company fortified itself at every point. It not only discharged the conspirators at the moment when their work was in its most critical state, but it secured protection in advance, which enabled it to overcome easily all attempts to carry through by violence what had failed by conspiracy. Mr. Webb's precaution in engaging in advance the services of Pinkerton men was one of the wisest as well as most justifiable steps taken. The company had the best of reasons for mistrusting the public spirit of the police authorities at Albany, and the event justified their mistrust. When they were called upon to protect the company's property, they failed, and it was then that the engaged Pinkerton force was used, and not till then. If they had not been secured in advance, the great advantage of a prompt display of force by the company would have been lost.

FEDERAL OWNERSHIP OF RAILWAYS.

THE recent strikes have revived some discussion of the question of Federal ownership of railways. Under this title, Prof. Ely, in the *Independent*, makes a severe criticism upon our present system. It is comparatively easy to do this, for our system, as we all know, is vulnerable at many points. But whether a change of ownership would not be for the worse is not to be decided merely by a statement of grievances, however ably done. Some of Prof. Ely's criticisms are applicable to all business: for example, that advertising and solicitation cause large and unnecessary expenditures each year. So it is often stated that travelling salesmen add greatly to the expenses of merchants; but if these and other outlays were abolished, would prices to consumers be any lower? All our experience answers, in the long run no. Competition must be our main reliance for price and quality in trade, and competition is yet active—too active—in transportation. When all our roads are combined in one huge system, it will be time enough to take up the new question; at present there is no prospect of it. The consolidations of which we hear so much are not of competitive roads or systems, but such as make existing systems more compact and, indeed, more competitive. To combine the Chicago and Atlantic with the Erie is one thing; to amalgamate that road with the Lake Shore or with the Pennsylvania would be quite another—a point too much lost sight of.

But more questions can be suggested in a column than can be discussed adequately in a book, and space forbids our following Prof. Ely into the general subject. One part of it deserves a word or two, and that is the relation of a railroad's earnings to its expenses. Prof. Ely very properly speaks of a large number of the deaths and injuries upon our American roads as unnecessary, and so in a sense they are, for money could remove the causes of most of them. "Appliances for the protection of employees are inexpensive, comparatively," says the Professor. It is to be regretted that our writers upon railroad matters are for the most part unfamiliar with the operating of railways as a business. We do not find these economists making general assertions about the conduct of blast-furnaces; why should not a study of details be as necessary in transportation? Now, there are in the United States in round numbers one million freight and work-cars without improved couplers and air-brakes. To put these improvements upon these million cars would cost about $80 each, a round total of eighty millions of dollars. This is a sum as large as all the dividends paid by all our roads in 1889. And this is only one item. "Accidents and deaths at railway crossings are entirely needless," continues the Professor. True enough; but how are these deaths to be prevented? Only by the abolition of such grade crossings, by carrying the railway under or over all common roads and streets. What this would cost it is impossible to state in exact figures; it is, however, an underestimate to put the sums required by all of Prof. Ely's conditions as equalling our present railroad capitalization. English railways have no gra[de] crossings, have an elaborate and exp[ensive] system of interlocking signals, and [are] but railways in America cost $[x] mile, and in England (partly

Parliamentary expenses) between three and four times as much. We can in the United States have every improvement for the safety of men and trains if we will pay for it.

Neither Government nor private owners can draw from a railroad's treasury more money than there is in it. These enormous expenditures—dismissed in a sentence or two in the *Independent* articles—if insisted upon, must be met otherwise than from present earnings, for present earnings are limited by the present rates imposed upon the traffic. In England the freedom from accidents at crossings is secured by the much larger capitalization; the returns upon this larger capital being obtained by freight charges on the average about three times higher than our own. Private owners cannot be expected to double the cost of their roads so long as rates will not pay interest on the increase, though improvements should be made as profits grow larger. If the Federal Government should be the owner, the same problem would confront it. The expenditures could not, under the conditions, be met from the present receipts, and the only result would be additional taxation. "Charges for traffic should be high enough to pay all expenses and make payments to sinking funds." If the experience of Germany, France, and England goes for anything, charges high enough to cover returns upon our increased capitalization (under the higher standard of construction called for) must be double those now collected. Will the Western corn-grower consent to this? And if not, shall we tax users and non-users of railroads alike for the deficiency? For at least, under our present plan, our railroads are supported by collecting tolls from each one in exact proportion to the services rendered; while under our cheaper construction of plant, these freight rates in the United States are the lowest in the world. Really it is a question of finance, whether under Federal or private ownership. We cannot eat our cake and have it.

It is stated in the articles referred to that the sentiment in favor of Government ownership is growing, because favored alike by Farmers' Alliances and Knights of Labor. True, but for directly contrary reasons. The Knights want higher pay, and the farmers lower freights. Who would make up the certain deficit? Suppose that both these classes succeeded, and that a combination of Congressmen from the wheat, corn, and cotton States with those from labor States, knowing that their political future depended upon it, compelled the payment of higher wages and at the same time the reduction of rates on these staples to reach the seaboard and foreign markets. How would the farmers east of the Mississippi like to see the values of their farms, already low, brought still lower by a reduction in rates on competitive products from the trans-Mississippi States, while at the same time taxes are laid upon them, directly or through the town-house, to make up for interest upon Government bonds issued for purchase of improvement, and perhaps also for excess of operating expenses over earnings? One of the writers in the *Independent* apparently has fallen into exactly this error. He says, speaking of Government operation of railways: "The nation has already done the thing proposed. The nation appoints a 'receiver.' In many instances such men are now carrying on railroads more successfully than their owners carried them on. They make both ends meet, as their owners could not." Usually receivers make both ends meet by not paying bond-interest and other debts which were obligations upon the owners; so in the case of Government ownership, an increase in the tax budget may not be counted in when considering the question of success, exactly as the increase of the budget in England is sometimes ignored in discussing Government telegraph in that country. The point involved in this discussion is simple—that, admitting the faults of our present system, the remedy is largely a problem of ways and means with which the question of Federal ownership is not necessarily connected.

AUSTRIAN PERPLEXITIES.

It is easy to speak of Austria in a despairing strain, and it has been so for centuries; yet perhaps never before in the history of her endless strifes of nationality with nationality has their hopeless character been so manifest as at the present time, when the "reconciliation" triumphantly effected last January is shown to be, as indeed it was predestined to be, a complete failure. That the task was attempted at all was due solely to the initiative of Francis Joseph, but even his imperial authority and great personal popularity could give force only for six months to the covenant entered into between the Germans and the Czechs—that is to say, between Count Taaffe, the Austrian Premier, whose boast it is that he is able to govern without the Germans; the Liberal Germans, who would, if they could, govern without the Czechs, and who hate Taaffe; and the conservative Old Czechs, who hate alike the Liberal Germans and the radical Young Czechs.

The septuagenarian leader of the Czechs, Dr. Rieger, has experienced the mortification of being disowned by a large class of his countrymen, in whose behalf he has labored so long, and in whose interest he offered the concessions to the German element of Bohemia, which alone made the January conferences possible. He has wearily resigned his leadership; but, as a last patriotic offering, he has undertaken a pilgrimage to Vienna, in order to induce Count Taaffe to undo the work of those conferences and begin anew the task of reconciliation between the Germans and the Czechs. In vain—thus he is said to have pleaded before the Austrian Premier—did the compact entered into six months ago provide for the equality of the German and Czech languages in Bohemia, one or the other of which had been made the official medium, according to the preponderance of the German or Czech element in the various districts. N[illegible] the exclusive reign of the Czech cial language of the subjects of the crown of St. Wenceslas, would definitively satisfy his countrymen. Count Taaffe, according to the usually well-informed Prague *Bohemia*, is said to have expressed his willingness to accede to this demand, provided the Czechs would guarantee that it should be their last, and that the Germans of Bohemia would consent to a reopening of negotiations. The obvious objections to this plan are that the Germans, having faithfully kept their part of the agreement, can see no reason for entering into a new one; and that even if they did, they could not be sure that the Czechs would remain satisfied for a longer period than another six months. The Young Czechs, moreover, utterly refuse to recognize Herr Rieger as their spokesman, and openly proclaim adhesion to "Bohemian State right," *i. e.*, complete autonomy similar to that of Hungary, as their programme. This condition of things is at last beginning to attract the serious attention of the Hungarians, who, as a rule, are rather indifferent to the internal quarrels of Cisleithania. The *Pester Lloyd* in particular, which, although printed in German, is thoroughly Magyar in its tendencies, admonishes the Government, in view of the faithlessness of the Czechs, to restore the Germans in Bohemia to the position from which they were "forcibly ousted."

The party wrangles which perplex the Austrian Government are naturally not without their bearing on the foreign relations of the empire. In a conversation with the editor of the *Correspondance Slave*, Herr Rieger is quoted as having traced the origin of the January conferences to the influence of Germany, who until recently had abstained from interfering in Austrian affairs, but is now beginning to consider the Slavic policy of Count Taaffe as in some measure a menace to her own interests. Some color was lent to this theory by the ostentatious manner in which the Emperor William, during his last visit at the Austrian Court, snubbed Count Taaffe, while bestowing marked attention on Herr von Tisza, the late Hungarian Premier; but whatever the truth of Herr Rieger's assumption, it is certain that the newspapers of Germany are commenting upon the turn of affairs in Bohemia in a tone of increasing interest and concern.

Quite recently, too, an incident occurred in the Tyrol which illustrates the difficulties the Austrian Government is encountering in dealing with its disaffected subjects. The new Governor of that province, Count Merveldt, signalized his accession to office by dissolving an educational organization of Italian-speaking Tyrolese known as "Pro Patria," which was in affiliation with the Roman association "Dante Alighieri," supposed to harbor anti-Austrian sentiments. This act of the Tyrolese Governor was seized upon by the opposition party in Italy as a pretext for making an anti-Austrian issue and a protest against the Triple Alliance. Ricciotti Garibaldi's resignation of his seat in the Chamber of Deputies afforded the opposition party an opportunity of carrying

while in Trieste, had come in conflict with the Austrian authorities, was chosen as their standard-bearer. The Government party opposed to him Count Antonelli, a nephew of the former Papal Secretary of State, and although, after a most exciting contest, Antonelli was elected, he received but 5,362 votes, against Barzilai's 4,519. So large a vote cast by Italians on an anti-Austrian issue was a most unpleasant reminder to the Austrian Government of the vitality of the Irredentist movement, and of the necessity of employing caution in dealing with its Italian-speaking subjects.

Where race antagonism is complicated with religious fanaticism, as in the struggle between the Liberal Germans and the Slovenish clergy of Carinthia and Carniola during the recent elections to the local diets, there is less excuse for want of decision on the part of the Government. Then the political agitation descends to incredible depths. The Vienna *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* relates that during an altercation between a Liberal landed proprietor and the priest of Tainach, in Carinthia, the latter suddenly attacked his antagonist with a knife, and, when a peasant attempted to interfere, with the exclamation, "How dare you threaten with a knife! Is the one murder at Arnoldstein not sufficient for you?" the priest turned his fury against him. But such excesses are merely the logical outcome of the anti-Semitic agitation which disgraces the Reichsrath and the municipality of Vienna under the very eyes of the Imperial Government.

Austrian Liberals may well look with serious misgivings on the future, as they reflect that the time cannot be far distant when the conservative hand which for more than forty years has guided Austrian affairs will be no longer at the helm. Francis Joseph, who has passed his sixtieth year, has endeared himself to his subjects by his unaffected simplicity, his capacity for hard work, his dignified bearing in misfortune; and the late Crown Prince Rudolph, in spite of his vices, shared in his popularity. But little is known of the probable heir to the throne, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the son of the Emperor's brother, Karl Ludwig, who, it is understood, will not avail himself of the right of succession. The names of Franz and Ferdinand have an ominous sound in Liberal ears, and their bearer is popularly supposed to have inherited the bigotry of the late Duke of Modena together with his millions.

Nothing would be more fallacious than to conclude from this survey of Austrian affairs that the empire is tottering to its ruin. There is safety in the very multiplicity of its problems. Czechs, Germans, Poles, Ruthenians, Magyars, Slovaks, Serbs, Italians, and Slovens, Liberals, Feudalists, and Clericals may wrangle, but they cannot part company. The Slavic tribes still prefer German arrogance to Russian despotism, and Vienna, in spite of the enthusiastic welcome to the singers from the German fatherland, has no wish to become a provincial city of United Germany. Fortunately, the Austrians possess at bottom an inexhaustible fund of *Gemüthlichkeit*—a disinclination to borrow trouble, a capacity for living, politically as well as otherwise, from hand to mouth; and all, the Magyars excepted, are proud of their Kaiserstadt. And Vienna consoles itself for the gigantic growth of Berlin, the threatened commercial rivalry of Buda-Pesth, the unpatriotic refusal of the Vienna Vororte to be merged in the municipality of the metropolis, with its beautiful Ringstrasse, its unsurpassed Burgtheater, its brilliant newspapers, its splendid cafés, and its excellent eating. To-day, as when Schiller wrote his famous distich, and in days long before his, no matter what the political complexion of the empire, Vienna enjoys a "perennial Sunday."

THE BRITISH MUSEUM LIBRARY.

LONDON, August, 1890.

No library in the world offers better facilities to investigators than that of the British Museum. Foreigners who have worked there value its advantages even more than Englishmen themselves. During the past twelve years the Library has undergone many changes which have greatly increased its usefulness. The introduction of the electric light in 1879 extended the number of hours per day during which the reading-room (the chief working-room of the reading public) is open. In 1881 the printing of the great Catalogue was begun. This vast undertaking is rapidly progressing, most of the entries comprehended in the letters A—K and V—Z being now in print. A number of useful special catalogues have been published, notable among which are a Subject-Index of works received in the Library during the past five years (1885); a catalogue of about 18,000 books in the lower gallery of the reading-room, comprising works most frequently ordered by readers (1886); and a third edition of the List of Books of Reference in the Reading-Room (1889).

The preface of the last-mentioned work contains a good short history of the Library, together with some interesting statistics concerning the reading-room. It states that 103,971 persons used the Library in 1873; in 1888 the number had increased to 188,432, a rise in the daily average from 356 to 620. The opening of the newspaper-room in 1885 absorbed an average of 39 readers daily. The new manuscript-room also diverted many from the overcrowded reading-room. There has been an increase in the average number of books demanded by each reader; in 1873 the number was three, while at present it is four. The above-mentioned preface concludes as follows:

"By the introduction of electric light, the great extension of the working hours, and the increased facilities afforded both for ascertaining and for readily procuring the best books on every subject, it may fairly be claimed that the reading-room has not failed to keep pace with the growing requirements of the 188,000 readers who visited it in 1888."

This account of the progress of the reading-room has nothing to say concerning certain regulations made during the last five years, which seem to be decidedly out of harmony with the liberal spirit displayed by the authorities of the British Museum in former years. In 1886 or 1887 a regulation was made prohibiting the use of manuscripts in the reading-room, unless special permission was obtained for every manuscript or collection of manuscripts used. This innovation aimed either to secure the better preservation of the manuscripts, or to decrease the attendance in the overcrowded reading-room, perhaps both. The former end might have been secured either by reserving a table in the reading-room for the use of manuscripts, or by increasing the number of rare manuscripts inaccessible in the reading-room. As for the other presumable object of this new rule, it is doubtful whether the latter has diminished the attendance in the reading-room. If a person wishes to refer casually to a manuscript, he generally retains his seat in the reading-room while visiting the manuscript-room. If, on the other hand, a person uses manuscripts exclusively or largely, he prefers to be in the manuscript-room from the outset: no rule is needed to keep him out of the reading-room. The present arrangement apparently benefits no one, and it presses heavily upon the historical scholar who has to collate manuscripts with printed books, or who wishes to look up occasional references to manuscripts. Every time that he meets with such a reference he must either waste many precious minutes in visiting the manuscript-room, or he must appeal in writing to the head of the manuscript department for permission to consult the parchment in the reading-room.

Another rule of recent origin reads as follows: "Owing to the increasing numbers of readers, seats in the reading-room cannot be reserved. Should readers be absent for more than one hour from the seats which they have taken, such seats will be considered available for incoming readers." Readers are often necessarily absent from their seats more than an hour while in the reading-room itself consulting the catalogue and books of reference. Sometimes, in the course of his work in the reading-room, a reader finds it necessary to spend an hour in the newspaper-room, the manuscript-room, or the large room (reserved for rare books). It is very inconvenient for him to give up and then redraw all his books every time that he finds it expedient to make such transient investigations in other parts of the building. Moreover, it is very difficult to enforce such a rule, because the attendants cannot generally tell whether a seat has been vacant an hour or not. Conscientious readers who observe this rule are greatly inconvenienced, especially historical students using a wide range of sources; while literary triflers, tippling penny-a-liners, who spend a large part of the day in the neighboring Plough, or other public house, may break the rule with impunity.

I subjoin two more regulations of recent origin:

"Very great difficulty in supplying books from the Library is occasioned by an abuse of the privilege allowed to readers to have several volumes at one time. It is desired that order tickets placed in the baskets will be strictly limited to works required for immediate use."

"Readers cannot as a rule be supplied with novels written within five years of publication; and any reader requiring for special purposes to consult a recent novel, must state his reason in writing."

The first of these rules probably does neither harm nor good. The second may have become necessary, owing to the presence of certain readers (mainly ladies) who came to the Library merely to read the latest novels. But it is questionable whether they feel the new rule more than certain scholars who make legitimate literary use of recent works of fiction.

The trouble is that the reading-room and its corps of employees have become too small. The main purpose of the new regulations is to make more room for bona-fide scholars. It is doubtful whether this end has been secured. The new rules do more harm than good; they are more irksome to industrious investigators

than to the motley crowd of idlers and loungers that infests the reading-room. The general tendency of these regulations is to restrict the freedom of the best class of readers. The pre-eminent excellence of the British Museum over other libraries of Europe used to be (and perhaps still is) the very liberal spirit of its regulations, the great freedom allowed to readers, the admirable facilities afforded for investigation in every field of learning. It is to be regretted that the policy of the Library seems to be slowly drifting away from the old standard of unrestricted freedom. The overcrowding of the reading-room should, if possible, be remedied by other expedients. One of the principal officials of the British Museum* recently admitted that "it is perhaps only from the acquisition of additional space for building purposes that any relief can be looked for in the future."

VENICE AND LIBERTY.

LENDINARA, August, 1890.

IT is some years since I have spent sufficient time in Venice to note in detail the changes for the better effected, but this year I have been able to do so and with real satisfaction. The vital question of the "conservation of the Lagoon," which the Venetian republic treated as a question of life or death, has been successfully resolved by the united forces of the State, the province, and the municipal authorities. As the old "conservators" put it, the safety of the Lagoon depends (1) on the width and depth of the ports, *i. e.*, the spaces between the long dunes or Lidi which divide the Lagoon from the Adriatic Sea so that the tides can ebb and flow freely at their natural will; (2) on the depth and width of the internal canals. When the ports are neglected, no large ships or steamers can enter the canals; when these are obstructed by the introduction of the refuse of the city, the drifting of soil from the islands, or the sands of the sea, or the mud of the drains, the ships get stranded, the air fouled, and, sooner or later, the city would be no longer "ocean's nursling," but an inland town surrounded by mud and marsh, malaria and desolation. Without entering into the much vexed question of the immission of fresh water rivers into the Lagoon, it suffices that the necessity of their exclusion is now universally accepted. In 1880 the Italian Parliament voted 1,000,000 lire for the excavation of the Port of Lido. This proved to be insufficient, and another million was assigned; but this also was not sufficient for the dykes and counter dykes—the sea depth to be eight metres, that of the internal canal ten metres. The Naval Secretary, Benedetto Brin, affirmed that, anxious as he was to promote the prosperity of the arsenal, he could not conscientiously give commissions for ironclads to be constructed there until assured that the vessels, completed and armed, could pass through the grand canal of Malamocco, necessitating nine to ten metres minimum depth. So the provincial and communal authorities and the Chamber of Commerce united their energies to those of the State, and in the arsenal of Venice have been constructed and thence launched the splendid ironclads *Sicilia* and *Morosini*—the former the longest, the latter the second in length, of the first-class war ships of the Italian Navy. The port of Venice is classed in the first category with regard to the military defence and safety of the State. It is also one of the three great naval departments into which Italy is divided, Naples and Spezia forming the other two. And as in Leghorn is centred the academy for the education of naval officers (the royal naval schools of Genoa and Naples have been closed), so in Venice is centred the royal naval school for naval-machine officers and stokers.

The High School of Commerce, so called, though it serves chiefly for the education of consular agents, is flourishing in its splendid residence of Ca Foscari, whence I witnessed, at the invitation of the new "Liberal" syndic, a capital regatta, the rowers almost all new men, while the old prize-winners served as umpires and told, half sadly, of the days when they, too, were young and strong. The Society of the Bucentoro put in a splendid appearance, with their gayly decked galleys, splendidly manned and rowed, keeping order along all the Grand Canal from the railway station to the Public Gardens, and clearing the way quite as effectually, and certainly in politer fashion, than the firemen, who pumped water on the few unlucky gondoliers who ventured near the winning-posts.

The great cotton factory, founded with Italian capital, is a somewhat incongruous building for Venice; but as it is erected on the banchina of Santa Maria, it does not intrude itself on the eye. It is so far successful, and a proof that the Venetians have not lost their old zest for industry as well as art. The "art of glass" flourishes in its native home, Murano, where I revisited the old works of the Venetian Murano Company, to find, alas! but one old acquaintance among the masters. The good old Abate Zanette, who, as director of the Industrial Artistic Museum of Murano, did so much to procure specimens and promote the study of the lost methods of the art of glass, is dead, but his nephew, now director of the V. M. glass-works, seems to inherit his artistic sense and certainly his passion for the lovely art.

The repairs of the grand old cathedral San Donato are completed, and, joy of joys, so are the restorations of St. Mark's and those of the Ducal Palace. The eternal scaffoldings are removed; the repairs, skilfully executed, have not marred the old-world beauty of the columns and façades, though whether they will have Mr. Ruskin's approval, none can venture to say. He has already most severely abused the steamers, water omnibuses, and what they call "trams," which, quitting the bridge at the station every quarter of an hour, touch at every landing place, and put you down at the Public Gardens, all for one cent (ten centimes); but these modern conveyances not only increase the traffic of the city, but add health and strength to the people. For six cents another set of steamers take to and from the Lido the poor people of Venice, who frequent the popular baths in the open sea; bathing-dresses, sheds, and attendance all included. And they go in shoals, enjoy the sea and sandy shores and their frugal breakfast under the trees which have grown bravely near their baths. Once, with my party of two boys and two girls, who had passed their hard "exams" with full "prizes and gold medals," we went with "the people," and enjoyed the bath better than those at the grand establishment, where you have to wait and scramble often for more than an hour. Special omnibuses also convey the sick poor children, affected by scrofula, of Venice proper and other communes of the province to the baths, and, after a fortnight of sea-water, fresh air, and good food, the beneficial effects are visible. Not only for these "miserables" does the city take thought. The new laws on public health are strictly applied; the death-rate diminishes annually, and the reports show that the city stands third on the list of healthy cities in Italy. Cholera and smallpox have made their ravages, but the latter disease is being sturdily grappled with.

The energetic measures taken to combat the terrible scourge of northern Italy, the pellagra, are gradually but surely producing beneficent effects. With the exception of the city and district of Venetia proper, Chioggia and Cavarzere, the entire province was devastated. Among the agricultural populations entire families were afflicted. It is now generally admitted that the prime cause of the disease is the exclusive use of maize, eaten at morning, noon, and evening, plainly boiled with little or no salt, with no corrective of fish, fowl, flesh, eggs, or fruit, and often washed down with brackish, fetid water, the whole year through. The province of Venice, through its provincial council, nominated a commission to study the causes and possible remedies, insisting on the necessity of sub-commissions in all the communes. The report was highly lauded by the international jury of the Exposition held in Milan in 1887. The appalling misery of the agricultural population brought to light during the inquiry showed too clearly that the first cause was too universal to be attacked at its source, as to do this it would be necessary at least to feed all the children and young people on white bread and soup, and insure the purity of drinking-water. All that could be done was to enjoin on the districts most afflicted the establishment of temporary ambulances where those patients declared by the parish doctors to be tainted with pellagra could, by good diet for a certain time, be cured in the first stage. Once successfully battled with in this, the patients generally recover, though a return to their former misery in time leads to a relapse; but if only attacked in the second stage, the patients soon return to the temporary hospitals, and, after one more "outing," generally end in the madhouse. But of the fifty communes very few chose to go to the expense of the temporary hospital, although the department of the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce offered pecuniary assistance.

Now that the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate have agreed on the disputed points of the grand "reform bill of charitable institutions" which became law on the 15th of last July, enormous sums as well as large adaptable edifices and land will become the property of the respective communes and provinces. To what more beneficent use can these lapsed gifts of the pious testators be put than to the formation of temporary ambulances for the cure and prevention of this, one of the most terrible maladies to which northern Italian flesh is heir? Side-helps must come from better houses for the poor, drying-grounds for maize, economical baking-ovens, economical kitchens, shorter hours (seeing that every agricultural laborer works from sunrise to sunset, men, women, and children, the whole year, Sundays and holidays excepted), and higher wages when King Taxgatherer shall deign to render this possible; but meanwhile cure of the actual sufferers is the necessity of the moment, and the Venetian authorities, provincial and communal, are most praiseworthy for their efforts. The infant schools, of which there are seven in the city, where the very poorest children are received, housed, and fed during the day, are capital preventive aids in the case; everywhere these are gaining ground even as asylums for children whose mothers cannot suckle them, and for children being weaned. An attempt is also being made to improve the dwellings of the poor, while the improvements made in the interior of the city

* George Bullen, in List of Books of Reference in the Reading-Room, p. xxiv.

are too numerous even to be indexed. Wide, well-paved streets, such as the "22 Marzo," the "Via Vittorio Emanuele," and the splendid esplanade leading from the Riva degli Schiavoni to the Public Gardens, have, without damaging a single artistic monument, added to the health and ease of traffic. Filth and bad smells have decreased, owing to the dredging and cleaning of the waterways and the constant work of the scavengers in carrying away the refuse of the city. And, despite the enormous sums spent for thus cleaning, lighting, and improving the city, the communal exchequer is by no means in the impecunious state of that of Rome, Naples, and other large cities of the peninsula. At the present moment, however, there is a general protest against the Minister of Finance, who demands an additional 150,000 lire for the dazio-consumo—the tax on food, etc., entering the city. The new Mayor and other authorities have left Venice for Rome, to implore the Government to desist from imposing fresh burdens on the population.

As I was concluding this letter, a hail-storm such as "the oldest inhabitant" cannot remember, came suddenly rattling over our heads, crashing the tiles and windows, ruining the not too-promising prospects of the vintage and the maize crop, just ready for plucking; but, to balance the disaster, the Bishop of Adria has organized a pilgrimage to the shrine of the famous miracle-working Madonna of Lendinara, around which wine-venders and fruit-sellers are plying a thriving trade. Taking advantage of a clause in the new law on public security, the clergy are everywhere organizing these pilgrimages to "holy shrines"; the bishops and priests preach, the chiefs of Catholic clubs "hold conferences," enjoining on the faithful fresh sacrifices for the "altar and the hearth." If at the next general elections the famous veto, "Neither electors nor elected," be revoked by Leo XIII., we shall see fresh results of "freedom wed with law." Yet I hold that none the less will all classes have cause to cry, *Viva la Libertà!* J. W. M.

THE TUSCAN MAREMME.—II.

Nocera di Umbria, August 15.

The most striking difference in the emotions excited by the great fields of archæological interest in Greece and in Italy is, to me, that in the former we have the tradition continuous and the national life interrupted, while in the latter the life seems to have gone on in a more or less normal evolution, but with breaks of many centuries each in the traditions of national existence. We know the races that came into Greece from the Pelasgi down to the Slav, and archæologically we can reconstruct the map of ancient Greece, though our knowledge of the national life is very shadowy from a period a little later than Hadrian down, and until the modern revival of interest through classical study began to produce the neo-Hellenic movement; but when we come into Italy, we find ourselves in the presence of the proofs of a great and early civilization, probably centuries earlier than that of the Achaian epoch, and many times greater, of which we have not the slightest hint in tradition. The earliest legends tell us that the Siculi were the inhabitants of the peninsula when tradition began to form, and that the Pelasgi and Umbri, united, drove them out, so that they became thereafter only known as inhabitants of Sicily, where the great Greek immigration found them; but of what happened to the Pelasgi and Umbri afterwards legend does not inform us until the Raseni came in, about 1,000 B. C. The interval must have been one of many centuries, for the early Italic civilization which preceded the Etruscan, and which is shown in the massive and enormous city walls and the extensive cemeteries from the valley of the Arno down to the most southerly provinces of Italy, cannot have been the evolution of a few generations. A short residence in any Eastern country or in the most secluded regions of Italy will satisfy any observer that the rate of progress away from the great routes of commerce and travel is infinitesimally slow, and that, when not driven by foreign competition, the acquisition of a new art or the change of the form of a customary implement is the work of a century. I have seen the plough of Hesiod in use in the hills from which the Sabine founders of Rome migrated twenty-six centuries ago, and the axe of the Umbrian woodsman is only the steel copy of the bronze found in the necropolis by the archæological excavator. It is impossible to form any estimate of the lapse of time indicated by the evolution of an art in prehistoric times, and in lands out of the main lines of development, without studying a little the rates of progress in those which are similarly situated to-day; and that the great region of central Italy in which the Italic civilization was developed was utterly isolated from the civilization of the East, Mesopotamia, and Egypt, is made clear by the fact that not a trace of anything like letters, ideograms, etc., has ever been discovered, nor is there any positive evidence of commerce with the East till the arrival of the Raseni, or, as we commonly call them, Etruscans.

This was, according to both Helbig, who holds that they came from the north, and the Italian archæologists, who consider that they came (according to the classical tradition) from the coasts of Asia Minor, about 900 B. C., *i. e.*, between 800 and 1000. What was the Italic civilization prior to that? The walls of more than four hundred Pelasgic cities, most of which are out of the range of Etruscan domination, tell us something of it, and the recent finds in the Italian cemeteries are making new disclosures every day. In the Maremme and central Etruria, where both Pelasgian and Etruscan held high state, we see the work of the latter overlying that of the former as clearly as we see a secondary formation overlying a primary in geology, in the walls of those cities which they inhabited; as we find in Volterra and Fiesole, where the Etruscan alone has left his sign manual, and in Alatri, Arpino, and south, where only Pelasgic masonry is found, evidence of their utterly distinct existence. From Grosseto, the present capital of the Maremme (a mediæval town which took the place of Rusellæ, a city first Pelasgic, then Etruscan, then Roman, and which was finally destroyed by the Saracens), we may visit by an easy drive any one of a score, more or less, of sites where once were great cities, all of which were once Pelasgic, and most of which were also Etruscan, and whose aggregate points to a state of prosperity and populousness in this part of the peninsula such as nothing in history gives us any conception of. Yet of all these cities nothing is known until the Roman legend opens. The entire empire to which they first belonged has not even a tradition to mark its course and fall. The race to which we must attribute them has even become for generations a by-word and a perplexity, so that the philologists have declared them an illusion of mythology. But not one of the ancient authors omits them from the colonizing races of Greece and Italy, and we have their signatures in these indestructible walls from Tuscany to Asia Minor, and one who has studied this handwriting is as certain in its identification as an expert in chirography.

What their origin was is becoming tolerably clear from the collation of traditions and the comparison of the remains; what their end, if they had an end and not merely a change of name, is a profound mystery, as well as their relation to the Raseni, their probable successors. In his study, soon to be published, on the religion of the Etruscans, on which he has been engaged for more than twenty years, Professor Milani, the Director of the Etruscan Museum at Florence, puts forward the theory that the Pelasgi and the Raseni were allied peoples, branches of the same Asiatic race, originally coming from Lycia; the former migrating by land around the Gulf of Venice, which of course implies an immense ethnical movement, the latter by sea at a long subsequent period. This theory not only agrees with all that has been said with any precision by the ancient authors as to the migrations, but it accounts for what would be otherwise an inexplicable fact, viz., the apparent expulsion of the Pelasgi from so important a part of their old realm by the Raseni, without a trace of the revolution getting into the traditions which have recorded for us the immigration of both races; and it accords with the deductions to be drawn from the ruins of the cities and the results of the excavations recently made and going on. What is made as certain as anything of the kind can be, by these excavations, is, that the Italic world as it was before 1000 B. C., and leaving out of consideration Magna Græcia, was, not far from that time, invaded by two distinct colonizations, a Greek in what has since been known as the Latin country, and a Rasenic in the Etruscan. One of your correspondents last year described the Papa Giulio Museum at Rome, somewhat cursorily, but he missed the important lesson to be drawn from it, viz., that it proves the advent in the basin of the Tiber, about the period alluded to, of a Greek colony, which had its central seat at Falerii, and controlled, more or less, the character of the Italic development over the whole of the region tributary to the Tiber, its arts being recognizable as far as Alatri, and at distinctly Latin localities such as Antemnæ and Lanuvium, but never extending far to the north of Falerii. Here it was never interfered with by the Etruscans, whose work is scarcely and only incidentally to be found in that region. The earliest importations found there are archaic Attic, and the latest are pure Hellenic, the entire local art being founded on Greek traditions. This agrees with the early traditions, which relate that the city was founded by a colony from Argos, and that they built a copy of the Heræum in honor of the patroness of their native city.

I hope to recur to this collection when it is complete, and shall not discuss it further now; but I call attention to the fact that while this region was devoted to Greek influences, that lying to the north, which has as its approximate centre Chiusi, and to which Orvieto (Volsinii Urbs Vetus, the sacred city of the Etruscans, and their religious centre) also belongs, has an art which, though its roots, like those of all Etrurian art, are Greek, has the distinct and dominant Etruscan character. In fact, the more we examine the Etruscans through their work, the more it resolves itself into a compound of the Italic and the Greek. All their art of design was Greek by origin, and all their primitive civilization melts imperceptibly into the Italic, confirming what I have long felt to be the inevitable conclusion as to

the Raseni, that they never constituted the mass of what are now considered the Etruscan nation, but that they were simply a dominant caste, few in numbers, as must have been the case with a sea-borne emigration, and imposing themselves on the Italic population by a superior knowledge of technical matters, and probably by the possession of certain religious mysteries, as we know that these in all ancient times conferred an immense prestige on newcomers in any land. The ready acquiescence of the Italic population (which must in the dominant elements have been the Pelasgo-Umbrian stock) in this political and religious pontificate of the new race, which was, after all, a kindred one, is thus accounted for. On Prof. Milani's theory this is what we might have expected to take place.

Among the cities which crown the heights that half encircle the plain of Grosseto, all of which belonged to this sphere of the Raseni and in which the influence of the Pelasgi only appears modified into what we have come to recognize as Etruscan, the chief, so far as its archæological revelations are concerned, is Vetulonia, whose site has recently been discovered on the hill of Colonna by Sig. Falchi, one of the scientific explorers of the Ministry of Public Instruction. Already two rooms in the Museum of Florence have been filled with the finds in the cemeteries which, if I may believe the account of one of the principal owners of the land on which they lie, extend for miles in every direction around the isolated and not easily accessible hill on the summit of which there may still be seen a remnant of the citadel; and, according to the same authority, there is work for generations in excavating them. Vetulonia seems from the ancient traditions to have been the most important of these cities in the period in which Rome came under the influence of the Etruscans, and from it the Romans derived some of their most important ceremonies, the fasces, the curule chair, etc. Its later history is a mystery, and it is not known how or when it fell; but in all probability it was before the power of Rome could have menaced it, and from gradual decay, as, if the subject of disaster by war, it must have entered into the legend of Rome in some way. The site is an impregnable one in the ancient system of warfare, and it took our carriage nearly an hour to climb the zigzag road that leads up to it. I forgot to take my aneroid, and so can only guess at the height, but I believe it must be between 1,500 and 2,000 feet to the summit. It is not, like most of the Pelasgic cities, built on a rugged peak of the flinty limestone of the Apennines, but on a terraced hill of a sandstone of varying hardness, and the point on which the city stood is only the highest of an assemblage of spurs on each of which, extending down to the valley beneath, is a cemetery. In the valley towards the sea, my informant said, there was a tumulus that had not been yet opened (unless in ancient times, which does not seem probable, as the evidences of ancient robbing do not appear), but which was so large that a farmhouse had been built on it, and it was estimated by the engineers that the expense of heaping it up in our day would be not less than $100,000.

We had hoped to find Falchi at work, but it was in the latter part of June, and he had finished work for the season. We visited the excavations in part, and certainly the abundance of graves was amazing. Some are of the Etruscan type—tumulus enclosed by a wall with a chamber built of hewn stone in the centre; but the greatest number by far are of the Italic type—well tombs—and had only contained hut-urns or vases of the form, approximately, of the hydria, with one handle, containing the bones in the small fragments made by thorough incremation, and covered with a peculiarly shaped dish of the same earthenware, with a handle which seems to have been fastened to that of the vase, and possibly sealed originally so as to prevent the opening of it without breaking the fastening. But the hut-urns are also very abundant—more so, apparently, than in any necropolis yet discovered; and the predominance of them over the Etruscan type shows that the city was great and populous long before the Italic civilization gave way to the innovations of the Raseni. The finds correspond with those of the Latin graves and those of the Basilicata, proving more clearly than ever before the uniformity of culture and technique of the Italic epoch to have been such as never obtained during the Etruscan. In some portions the earth was crowded as closely with the little graves as any country churchyard in England, the soil only covering the vase a foot or so.

But the contents of two or three of the tombs of the Etruscan epoch, now in the Museum at Florence, show that the wealth of the city must then have been great. The peasants of the locality had long ago found that there was treasure concealed under the surface of their fields, and, indeed, some of the tombs were beyond recognition by an inexperienced eye, so that there has been for a long time a system of contraband excavation by which some of the people had accumulated little fortunes unsuspected by the proprietors or authorities. Of course in this kind of search the more easily recognizable and the most sought for were the richer Etruscan tombs; the humbler and poor graves of the Italic period, the most interesting to the prehistoric archæologist, being passed by as of no account. It must be said, in passing, that the type of the grave does not necessarily imply greater antiquity, for it is almost certain that the original stock, of the poorer classes especially, would be so conservative as to retain the traditional form of burial for generations after the Etruscan was introduced, so that we shall have contemporary graves of both types. This was shown conclusively to be the case at Orvieto, where, after the conquest of the city by the Romans and the subjection of the higher and previously governing class to the servile population, probably the older, the form of interment immediately recurs to the earliest form known in the necropolis. This is shown by the objects found in the tombs, including Roman coins.

The disclosures at Vetulonia have, we may hope, only begun, and in the enormous extent of ground to be gone over we may get some precious find in the earlier field which to me is that of greatest interest. Nothing has yet been found in the well-tombs of this site which is to be compared for artistic interest to some of those found at Corneto, but the most of the well-tombs at Vetulonia are of slight depth, while those of Corneto are, the guardian of the cemetery there informed me, four or five metres deep in some cases, and had been covered over by subsequent interments of a different character. Some pieces of bronze work (weapons especially) are, however, of the most delicate workmanship yet discovered, and a dagger in the Museum of Grosseto is one of the most beautiful I have ever seen. Definite conclusions as to the prehistoric position of Vetulonia must be postponed till a later date, when the cemeteries have been much more thoroughly explored, but even now the site is the most important for the elucidation of the prehistoric problem of all that have been examined in Italy. The contrast between the Faliscan collection at the Papa Giulio Museum and the Vetulonian rooms at Florence will show at a glance the distinct character of the colonization of the two regions to which I have above alluded—the Italic basis in both cases, with in one the Greek superstructure, and in the other the Etruscan; so that it becomes clear that for all that the Italians, Raseni or Italo-Pelasgi acquired of art proper subsequent to the eighth or ninth century B. C., they were indebted to Greece. If, as I believe, the Pelasgic civilization began in Italy and flowed over to Greece and into the Greek Islands, Crete, etc., the reflex wave centuries later brought a new and higher form, resulting in part from contact with the East and in part from the finer artistic insight of the Greek nature. Etruscan art, so far as distinctly an art, is only a realistic degradation of Greek ideals, and in most cases is only poor imitation of Greek work.

But all conclusions on this subject must be taken with great reserve. The moment we get beyond the reach of epigraphy, all evidence assumes a new character, and the philologist generally abandons it in despair or derision. It demands new canons and is in effect a new science, for the determination of its facts depends on a class of evidence of which nothing has been made precise. Every new fact has, then, an importance for confirmation or modification of our conclusions which makes extreme caution imperative. But the evidence exists and is coming to cognizance, and I hope that in time the nature, sources, and origin of Italic civilization and its relation to Greek and Oriental will be as clear to us as are now some of those philological problems which were equally obscure half a century ago.

W. J. S.

Correspondence.

THE ART-TARIFF JUGGLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Why doesn't your correspondent "G. B.," so ingenious in the finding of illustrations for his pet doctrine, take for a text the tariff on works of art?

We all know how it was enacted by a juggle in conference committee, and how, in spite of protests from artists and recommendations from Presidents, it has remained on the statute-book. Now one party has absolute control of both houses of Congress and of the Executive. The President recommends the abolition of this tax. What happens? The Ways and Means Committee votes first against free art, and then for it. The Tariff Bill passes the House with art on the free list. Then the Finance Committee of the Senate votes against free art, and art comes off the free list again. Now Mr. Sherman is reported as saying that the Finance Committee will "probably" change its mind. Nobody knows how it will go, and whether art is to be taxed or free, nobody will ever know who did it and nobody will be held responsible.

Surely "G. B." has "lost the opportunity of his life"! Yours truly, Casey.

September 4, 1890.

TWO VIEWS OF BENTHAM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every student of jurisprudence who has had the good fortune to see the annual address delivered at the last meeting of the

American Bar Association by Mr. James C. Carter of the New York bar, on the "Origin and Growth of Law," will have been interested in it as furnishing the most recent, and by no means the least vigorous, attempt to overthrow Austin's analysis of law. It may be doubted whether Mr. Carter's criticisms, able and ingenious as they unquestionably are, have not been anticipated and answered in Austin's own work and that of his followers. But, Austin apart, can it be said that the speaker was wise in characterizing Bentham as he did in an address aimed to encourage among lawyers an enlarged interest in the science of jurisprudence? Bentham, according to Mr. Carter, is to be "most accurately described by the vulgar designation of *crank*—a man who cherishes his pet theories in the solitude of his own contemplation, and disdains both the observation of the present and the study of the past." "We need look no further," he continues, "for the reason why his schemes have never recommended themselves to wise and practical legislators."

In view of so damaging an estimate from so eminent an authority, it may be well to recall some opinions at variance therewith. John Stuart Mill spoke of Bentham (Art. Bentham, 'Dissertations and Discussions') as "one of the two"— the other being Coleridge—"great seminal minds of England in their age," and of Bentham himself as "one of the great teachers and permanent intellectual ornaments of the race." Prof. Thomas Erskine Holland (Art. Bentham, 'Enc. Brit.') considers that Bentham's writings "have been and remain a storehouse of instruction for statesmen, an armory for legal reformers." "To trace," Prof. Holland continues, "the results of his teaching in England alone, would be to write a history of the legislation of half a century." Sir Henry Sumner Maine, who was certainly not partial to the analytical school, in discussing their work with special reference to Hobbes, Bentham, and Austin, says ('Early History of Institutions'), "No conception of law and society has ever removed such a mass of undoubted delusion." Sir James Fitzjames Stephen in one place ('Dig. Ev.') compares some of Bentham's books to exploded shells buried under the ruins they have made; and in another ('History of the Criminal Law of England') holds that Bentham's "theories upon legal subjects have had a degree of practical influence upon the legislation of his own and various other countries comparable only to those of Adam Smith and his successors." There is an impressive supplement to this last expression of opinion in Prof. Marshall's 'Principles of Economics,' where Bentham is rated as "the most influential successor of Adam Smith in the field of economics."

Yours truly, THOMAS H. CLARK.

MONTGOMERY, ALA., Sept. 1, 1890.

THE STACCATO CHEER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am curious to fix the date of the invention or discovery of the now current *staccato* cheer as distinguished from the orthodox *hurrah* thrice repeated, of former days. I am credibly informed that it was in use at Harvard prior to 1858. To my personal knowledge it was unknown at Yale as late as 1860. Shortly after the Civil War I heard it for the first time at some intercollegiate contest, and since then, as everybody knows, it has become common property. Possibly some Harvard graduate of 1858 or thereabouts may be able to fix the date and possibly name the inventor of this unique characteristic American cheer. —Respectfully yours,

CHAS. LEDYARD NORTON.

UNIVERSITY CLUB, NEW YORK, September 4, 1890.

SIR THOMAS WYATT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask through your columns whether the sonnet of Sir Thomas Wyatt opening with the line "Like unto these unmeasurable mountains" has been identified with any Italian original? Puttenham ascribed it to Petrarch, but Nott thought it belonged to Tibaldeo or Accolti. Also, for the original two *strambotti* of Serafino from which was imitated Wyatt's poem commencing "My heart I gave thee, not to do it pain." Also, whether any of the following are known to be translations, viz.:

(1.) Unstable dream, according to the place.

(2.) Each man tells me I change of my devise.

(3.) Was never file yet half so well y filed.

(4.) Ye that in love find luck and sweet abundance.

(5.) My love to scorn, my service to retain.

(6.) Such is the course that nature's kind hath wrought.

(7.) The flaming sighs that boil within my breast.

(8.) Farewell, Love! and all thy laws for ever.

(9.) Whoso list to hunt? I know where is an hind.

(10.) Divers doth use, as I have heard and known.

(11.) I abide and abide, and better abide.

(12.) Though I myself be bridled of my mind.

(13.) To rail or jest, ye know I use it not.

(14.) But you that of such like have had your part.

I may mention for any whom it may interest, that the sonnet commencing "Avising the bright beams of those fair eyes" is a translation of Petrarch's "Mirando 'l Sol de begli occhi sereno." I do not know that this has been before identified. If so, it is certainly not generally known, for Dr. W. E. Simonds of Cornell University, in his 'Essay on Sir Thomas Wyatt and his Poems' (Boston, 1889), writes as follows: "*Avising the bright beams* is probably a translation, the first word in the sonnet being used evidently in the sense of the Italian *avvissare*, 'to look at attentively.' It seems likely that the word was suggested to the poet by the presence of the Italian word in the original of what we here conjecture to be a translation merely." Dr. Simonds's conjecture proves to be correct as regards the sonnet being a translation; but not as to the presence in the Italian original of the word "avising," though the meaning is nearly that suggested.

It is almost certain that more of Wyatt's sonnets are translations or imitations than the fifteen which have been identified, and, as they represent the first English sonnets, it would be as well to sift the matter as far as possible. Except Nott and Bell, no one seems to have gone far into the matter, and I beg to commend it to students of Elizabethan poetry, in the hope of obtaining further information than has been accessible to your obedient servant,

E. B. BROWNLOW.

No. 6 HUTCHISON ST., MONTREAL.

WORTH A CENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your remarks in last week's *Nation* on Émile Faguet, you speak of a *Western* expression: so and so "did not scare worth a cent." To my personal knowledge *worth a cent* in this and numerous other combinations has been current in this and other parts of the South for twenty-five or thirty years. I presume it would be difficult to trace the expression to any particular part of our country, if indeed it is an Americanism at all. In the same connection you express surprise at M. Faguet's using *obole* in very much the same way: "Voltaire n'a pas été artiste pour une obole." This use of *obole* is somewhat familiar, but is perfectly natural—smacks of French soil, so to speak, as it has six or eight centuries of history behind it. From the earliest period down to the present time, the names of small coins have figured very largely, both in North and South French literature, to set a low estimate upon any person or thing. In 'Huon de Bordeaux,' the hero says to the "amiral":

"Je ne sui mie en vostre deu créans,
Ne pris Mahon le monte d'un besant."

And, a little further on, the amiral makes a similar remark:

". . . je n'en ferai noiant,
Ne pris vo deu un denier valissant."

The last line may be rendered: Nor do I prize or care for your god worth a cent. And so in 'Girard de Roussillon': "No quier de raenz o valhan dinier." One is continually coming upon this expression both in Trouvère and Troubadour literature, and while there may not be any direct historical connection between it and M. Faguet's expression, it is evident that the idea has been in the social atmosphere of France all along, and might be expected to crop out at any time.

A curious and entertaining study might be made of the manner in which various peoples work up to the same idea, and frequently use exact verbal equivalents for its expression. For instance, the German says: "Ich gäbe keinen rothen Heller dafür," and in America we in the same spirit say: "I would not give a red (cent) for it." And so *unterschlagen*, to embezzle, finds its literal translation in our slang, 'to knock down'; *e. g.*, he gets ten dollars a week, to say nothing of what he *knocks down* from the drawer.

SAMUEL GARNER.

ANNAPOLIS, MD., August 31, 1890.

SOME CORRECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit a reader to call attention to two lapses from accuracy observed in No. 1309, July 31, of the *Nation*. The writer of the letter on Madame, mother of the Regent, confounds generations. It was not her father (then an infant) who suffered defeat at the battle of the White Mountain (1620), but her grandfather, Frederick V., who died in 1632. It was *his* son, Charles Louis, that was reinstated by the Peace of Westphalia, 1648.

On page 92, in a casual allusion to a *French* king, superior to the niceties of his own language, had not the writer in mind Sigismund of Bohemia, who declared himself "super Grammaticam"—in Latin construction, however? An anecdote, repeated only by hearsay, is told of French nobles of the *ancien régime*, chosen members of the French Academy, who took pains to misspell their signatures in a variety of ways to show that they were not subject to rules of petty scholarship. R. T.

PURDY'S, N. Y., September 2, 1890.

THE OLD TESTAMENT IN THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is, I believe, undeniable that few of those who have accepted the positions com-

monly classed under the vague head of the Higher Criticism, realize the radical modifications which such opinions ought to render inevitable in the manner of teaching children the earlier historical—or, rather, unhistorical—books of the Old Testament. Of course, many persons—notably advanced Unitarians and others who have no deep personal sympathy with any of the phases religion has assumed—are not here alluded to. They have solved the problem, and, indeed, not always in the best way. My reference is only to those who are clinging—perhaps with hardly more than the nerveless grasp of regret—to New England Congregationalism and its ideas. These individuals gladly accept the light which Kuenen, Wellhausen, and others have thrown upon the growth of the Old Testament writings. They feel a delicious sense of relief in being rid for ever of the piteous problems about Abraham's bloody sacrifice and Pharaoh's hardened heart. They have even gone so far that they wonder a little when they hear the Hebrews spoken of as practically the authorized reporters of God's thoughts and acts. And yet not a few of these same persons go into an ordinary Sunday-school and teach the so-called "International" lesson of the day without any dangerous qualms of conscience. The particular passage may, of course, contain topics which make easy the pointing of useful morals. These the teacher will anxiously confine his attention to. He must skilfully control the questioning, else his youthful listeners may unconsciously ask him questions it would be hard to answer without directly assuming the historical character of the passage, and this his conscience, such as it is, will not allow him to do, though he is in effect doing it indirectly all the time. His undiscriminating little audience never suspects that the exact amount he teaches is all he wishes them to believe. Their impression is scarcely different from what it would be did he teach every bit of the story, doubtful statements and all, and he is responsible, whether his conscience blinks the fact or not. The credulity of the child is grossly abused by such a teacher.

Not a few of the children taught in this disingenuous way are attacked by serious doubts as they grow older. How many are wise enough to discern what is true when everything seems to them to be brought into question! To some this time of disillusionment may prove fatal, so far as all real religious faith is concerned; and it is bewildering to even the steadiest mind to make the discovery that what one has always thought to be true, and what one fears to disbelieve, is, to say the least, very uncertain. But why need there be any disillusionment? Why may not children be so taught that their intellectual growth on its religious side will be rarely in danger of becoming a series of upheavals? Probably the whole trouble would in a large measure be obviated if teachers were earnestly careful, first, never to teach, or *seem* to teach, what they do not heartily and voluntarily believe; and, second, to give the children correct impressions of the Scriptural narratives. But how can this last be done? Certainly not by reading the boys and girls lectures on the Higher Criticism. On the contrary, it may be accomplished by taking intelligent advantage of the psychological principle of association of ideas.

No boy or girl is seriously disturbed when the heroes of fairy tale, legend, and myth turn out to be hardly more than pretty pictures. It follows, therefore, that the Hebrew stories should be treated as you treat the Greek, Roman, and Scandinavian. Tell them in such a way that the child will never grow to feel that the question of the actuality or non-actuality of their occurrence is a *religious* question, on which sides ought to be taken. Constantly relate similar tales from other literatures so that the child will feel towards all such stories in a similar way. Then, when the fairy tales, the myths, and the legends cease to seem to the children descriptions of real events and actual persons, the Hebrew stories will undergo a similar transformation. Having never been led to feel that those who believe in God must also believe in the Mosaic authorship of the Pentateuch, they will not be tempted to doubt the existence of God because they hear the existence of Abraham, and the patriarchs in general, treated as a very open question. To conclude the whole matter, why shall we not have the courage of our convictions and act intelligently about them?

B. E. H.

Notes.

THE Messrs. Longman have in press 'Letters and Correspondence of John Henry Newman during his Life in the English Church,' with a brief autobiographical memoir, edited by J. B. Mozley, D.D.

Macmillan & Co. will publish next month 'The Fossil Insects of North America,' by Samuel H. Scudder, in two quarto volumes freely illustrated, the edition being limited to one hundred copies. They have nearly ready 'The Myology of the Raven, a Guide to the Muscular System of Birds,' by Dr. R. W. Shufeldt; and an English translation, by Dr. Geo. McGowan, of Prof. Ernst von Meyer's 'History of Chemistry.'

A new and original work on 'Evolution,' by David Syme of Melbourne, is promised by Kegan Paul & Co. London.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce a volume of essays by Bishop Spalding of Peoria.

Thomas Whittaker will publish 'The Writers of Genesis, and Related Topics,' by the author of 'God in Creation,' etc.

'Eastward, or a Buddhist Lover,' a novel, will have the imprint of the J. G. Cupples Co., Boston.

Jules Verne has made America the scene of his latest impossible romance, 'Cæsar Cascabel,' which the Cassell Publishing Co. are to bring out during the present season. The hero is a travelling showman.

'House and Pet Dogs: Their Selection, Care, and Training,' and 'The Spaniel and Its Training,' will be issued immediately by the *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

Dr. David F. Lincoln's 'Hygienic Physiology for the Use of Grammar and Common Schools,' which is set down for publication this month by Ginn & Co., Boston, has to recommend it, besides the reputation of the author, the arrangement of topics, hygiene preceding the anatomy and physiology. This is the natural order of presentation for young minds.

D. C. Heath & Co. will add to their Modern Language Series 'Selections for German Composition,' by Prof. Charles Harris of Oberlin.

Joel Munsell's Sons, Albany, N. Y., are about to bring out the work we have already announced, 'My Journey Over the Mountains,' edited by J. M. Toner, M.D. This is Washington's Journal of 1747, which will now be printed entire for the first time, and literally, with explanatory notes.

The revised edition of Dr. Japp's 'Life of De Quincey' (London: James Hogg), previously issued under the pseudonym "H. A. Page," professes to be "almost a new book," with new letters, reminiscences, etc. There is really less new matter than might be expected from such a statement. Very considerable portions of the former biography have been cut out, consisting mainly of extracts from the autobiographical papers of De Quincey or from his comments on men he had known, which are to be found in his works. The author's critical survey also is much shortened, largely by similar omissions of illustrative passages. In this compression nothing has been lost. The new letters are very few in number and unimportant in matter, and the new reminiscences are partly gathered from other books or may be found there in substance; nevertheless, great care has been taken to collect in this volume all the notices of De Quincey by those who met with him, whether hitherto printed or not. These recollections serve only to fill out characteristics already sufficiently known, and make the biography more ample and in some cases more exact, but without affecting in any sensible way De Quincey's reputation. The most important matter, which alone calls for notice, is the frank admission that De Quincey took sanctuary in Holyrood through fear of creditors, and lived there some two years; but it is maintained that he was never in real poverty or bankruptcy, but only deficient in the ability to manage business affairs. New portraits of De Quincey, Prof. Wilson, and Sir W. Hamilton, and a view of Greenhays Hall, are given. The edition is in one volume, too closely printed and insecurely bound; but it is a great improvement upon the former biography, and may, we suppose, be regarded as final.

'Short Studies of Shakespeare's Plots,' by Prof. Cyril Ransome (Macmillan), is published in the interest of a more direct and enlightened study of Shakspere in schools. The author protests against a textual study of the plays after the fashion that obtains in classical teaching, and writes in favor of treating them merely as literature. He thinks it of the first consequence to disclose the course of the plot and the superficially obvious development of the characters in their actions and words, and to this end he analyzes "Hamlet," "Julius Cæsar," "Macbeth," "Lear," "Richard II.," "Othello," "Coriolanus," and "The Tempest," and tells the story of each. The method is excellent, but primary; it fails especially in those plays in which the course of events is the least part of the drama (the interest being in the conduct of the characters), such as "Lear" and "The Tempest"; and more than once absorption in the action causes the author to undervalue a character, such as *Hamlet* or *Richard II.*, which does not submit to be measured by the accidents of a career. The volume is happily free from over-speculation, intricacy, and subtlety; it is not at all "profound"; and for these reasons it should be useful to young students, or to older students who are beginning to read the plays reflectively.

Mr. Edward McPherson's 'Handbook of Politics for 1890' (Washington: James J. Chapman) reminds us that since the appearance of the last volume six new States have been admitted to the Union, and that while there has been much Congressional legislation "about and about," the sum of achievement has been small in comparison with the measures still left hanging between the two houses. The present volume retains those features which have made the series indispensable to the student of politics, and adds a chapter of decided novelty and importance, with a wider retrospect than two years. The legislative history of the Coinage Act of 1873 (Forty-first and Forty-second Congresses) has been carefully

drawn out, and placed after the record of resolutions, bills, and votes on the silver question in the Fifty-first Congress. "Within these twenty-six pages will be found," says Mr. McPherson, "as sharp a contrast of political opinion and action as the public life of our country has afforded." The Mills Bill is another landmark in the volume before us, the Force Bill a third, the McKinley Tariff Bill a fourth. It is evident that the 'Handbook' for 1890 will be at least as often consulted as its predecessors. Even the demise of the Blair Bill will prove a subject of reference, and we therefore will call Mr. McPherson's attention to two errors in his record of the Senate vote on p. 194. In the list of pairs, Ransom (pro) and Casey (con) should change places (see the *Congressional Record* for March 22, 1890, p. 2523), and this compels an alteration in the table below, so that 10 Western Senators shall be shown to have voted for, and 11 against the measure. Also, 3 Middle State Senators (not 2) voted yea, viz., Messrs. Evarts, Quay, and Higgins, and 2 (not 3) nay, viz., Messrs. Hiscock and Cameron. These errors neutralize each other, and leave Mr. McPherson's footings undisturbed.

There is no truth in the pretence that the volume called 'Abraham Lincoln's Pen and Voice,' for which Col. G. M. Van Buren is responsible (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), is "a complete compilation" of Mr. Lincoln's "letters, civil, political, and military." No such collection can be made or will probably ever be attempted. The moderate size of this book and its coarse type show at a glance that completeness is impossible if only the letters are taken into the account; but the compiler has added sundry public addresses, messages to Congress, inaugurals, etc. All we can say is, since the arrangement is chronological, that the collection is convenient. We doubt if it will, again to quote the title-page, prove Lincoln to have been "the greatest constitutional student of the age, and the noblest pattern for future generations America has ever known." It does, however, reveal his growth in anti-slavery principle, and show him more to be revered at the end than at the beginning of his administration—a phenomenon not common among our Presidents.

In the *American Journal of Archæology* for March-June, M. Eugène Müntz continues his discussion of the "Lost Mosaics of Rome of the IV. to the IX. Century." Mr. A. L. Frothingham, jr., furnishes the longest paper, on the "Introduction of Gothic Architecture into Italy," with the aid of some very interesting plates of the Cistercian monastery of Fossanova, which has been declared a public monument. Mr. Frothingham sees in the French Cistercians in Italy the transplanters of French Gothic, whom the Dominicans and Franciscans copied. Happily their work is extremely well preserved, better than the corresponding structures of the order in France. Mr. Frothingham writes from extensive personal research. Other noticeable papers are "Reminiscences of Egypt in Doric Architecture," by Allan Marquand; and "Greek Sculptured Crowns and Crown Inscriptions," by George B. Hussey of the American School at Athens. Mr. Hussey concludes that the pendent crown or wreath represents the better periods of Greek art; the erect the later (time of Trajan or Hadrian).

The United States Potters' Association is considering a proposition from the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art to conduct a Pottery School if the potters will do their part towards defraying the expense. The scheme looks also to the establishment of a ceramic museum embracing every kind of pottery produced to-day. The Association's committees highly favor the project.

Mr. John Edmands, librarian of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia, begins in his July Bulletin a noteworthy Junius bibliography, in two divisions: Editions of the letters; Publications about Junius. In both these classes, says Mr. Edmands, the Mercantile Library's collection is the largest in the country; but his indications are also for other American libraries and for the British Museum.

From Mr. George Watson Cole of the Newberry Library, Chicago, we receive his ingenious "Cataloguer's Size Card," by means of which, with the least trouble and delay, the size of books can be determined in accordance with the scale recommended by the American Library Association; or the actual measurements in centimetres can be read off. This card is for sale at the Library Bureau, Boston.

Dr. Knipping of Tokio announces an interesting result of his studies of the Japanese daily weather maps that are prepared under his direction. It appears that one of his stations on the northwestern side of the greater island, at the foot of high volcanic ridges, sometimes reports higher temperature and lower humidity than the surrounding stations. On collecting a number of cases of this kind, it was found that they were all accompanied by low pressures on the Japan Sea, and hence by a southeast wind, whose source must have been beyond the volcanic ridges, down from which it was drawn to the northwestern coast. Dr. Knipping therefore places this Japanese wind with the Foehn of the Alps and the Chinook of our Rocky Mountains, as belonging to a species of air-current whose temperature is raised and whose humidity is lowered by the compression that it suffers as it is drawn down a mountain range of considerable height on its way to a cyclonic centre of low pressure.

The International Congress of Geographic Science will be held next year in Berne, at the beginning of August, under the auspices of the local Geographical Society.

—An eleventh volume now closes the laborious enterprise of Mr. Stedman and Miss Hutchinson, 'A Library of American Literature from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time' (Chas L. Webster & Co.). Miss Murfree opens and Miss Dora Read Goodale concludes the part which is the proper extension and termination of the scheme, and Miss Goodale's birth year, 1866 (she is not, like some of her sex here represented, old enough to conceal her age), gives us the extreme date at which the Library puts up its shutters and locks the door against all literary aspirants. But the present volume is also used to repair omissions and supply additional selections, to exhibit short biographies (by Arthur Stedman) of all the authors exemplified, and to provide a general index. The new portraits are of F. Marion Crawford, Miss Murfree, Geo. P. Lathrop, J. B. McMaster, Brander Matthews, Thos. Nelson Page, James Whitcomb Riley, Harry S. Edwards, Edith M. Thomas, and H. C. Bunner—names all, with one exception, well known as lights or leaders of the literary generation which was born in the sixth and seventh decades of the century. Quite as many writers of equal or but little subordinate fame or talent on the list might also have been pictured, and belong to the future, so that the outlook is not discouraging, and least of all, perhaps, on the side of poetry. The strength of the collection as a whole is, as we have from time to time pointed out and as the index shows conspicuously, historical and biographical, including in the latter term the index division called "Personal Characterizations." This would have been much impaired by the neglect of Henry Adams, Hay and Nicolay, and James Schouler, in restoring whom the supplementary volume has served a useful purpose. The Oratorical selections, "Correspondence," "Politics, Government, etc.," and "Slavery," form other marked groups akin to the foregoing. Poetry is very conveniently displayed by titles or by first lines, and fills nine pages of the index. The "Noted Sayings" have been greatly increased in the final volume, and these have sometimes an etymological value, as in the case of the term Mugwump. President Cleveland's household words and Bishop Potter's are here recorded; so is Flanaghan's frank inquiry, "What are we here for?" at the Republican National Convention of 1880; but the editors leave it a riddle for those who forget the answer supplied by the Texan himself—"The offices." We part company with a serious and in the main successful endeavor to furnish a readable and profitable conspectus of American literary production. It will, we are sure, be a missionary for good wherever it is owned and read. It is truly a library, as it takes the place of many books, and it rightly errs on the side of fulness and catholicity.

— The ever-swelling tide of American philosophic literature has just been enriched by a new book about Hegel, of which it is fair to say that the production would have been impossible a dozen years ago. We refer to the handsomely printed volume by Dr. J. McBride Sterrett, entitled 'Studies in Hegel's Philosophy of Religion' (Appleton). With the aid of recent English and American commentators, such as Green, the Cairds, Harris, Morris, Seth, and others, the author goes valiantly to work to lubricate the uncouth original for our deglutition, with a success which will probably be found considerable, so far as the divinity schools of the land are concerned. Hegel's principle that all differences can be reconciled if one will only ascend to the higher point of view, his doctrine that untruth is partial truth, and his perfect optimism, all harmonize singularly well both with the optimistic and conciliatory spirit which animates the liberal theology of our day, with its far stronger interest in human progress than in Adam's fall. The only obstacles to the reception of the Hegelian philosophy by our theologians, apart from the intolerable style of it, have been its preposterous show of deducing things by the dialectical method, and the ambiguous sound which it gives forth about God's personality and man's immortality. Dr. Sterrett practically ignores the dialectical method, and insists (rather darkly, it is true) that Hegelism is sound on the immortality question. Of course his book seems full of vagueness and evasion to readers trained on empiricism, who, when they fall to reasoning, like "the rigor of the game." But there is an appearance of logical procedure about it, its spirit is sanguine, its results are cheerful, while its method of constantly striving towards the widest and most reconciling point of view is, after all, the eternally best one; so it is safe to predict for its author a certain success. In an appendix he discusses in an interesting way the problem of union among our churches.

—The annual reports of the Chief Signal Officer have for several years past contained among their appendices certain papers of high scientific value from two of the leading civilian members of the service. Ferrel's 'Recent Advances of Meteorology' was the first of these;

Abbe's 'Treatise on Meteorological Instruments' was the second; and the latter author now contributes to the report for 1889 an essay of a hundred and sixty-five pages, entitled "Preparatory Studies for Deductive Methods in Storm and Weather Predictions." The chief interest in this work comes from its being the well-matured expression of Prof. Abbe's views on this difficult branch of meteorology in which he has had so long a practice; to those who are familiar with modern physical meteorology, it will furnish extremely suggestive reading, and on many other matters than weather prediction alone. The leading idea of the studies is the convectional motion of the atmosphere, as determined locally by heating at the ground, or in a broader way by the presence of large masses of warm and moist air. It is a matter of regret that other and earlier publications of this nature have not appeared from the Signal Office. There have been extended climatic studies as to mean temperature, average rainfall, and other subjects of importance, and there have been a number of "professional papers" of scientific value; but the immediate problem which the Weather Bureau has to solve — namely, "What will to-morrow's weather be?"—has received little attention in print. A number of army lieutenants have attacked this problem in the discharge of their duty as predicting officers, but we have practically no record of their experience. It is as if their results had never been mentally formulated, or, when formulated, as if they had been regarded as private property, and not material for appendices to the annual reports. Every schoolboy may learn that weather changes generally move eastward over our country; but the numerous exceptions to this rule must be mastered before to-morrow's weather can be properly predicted. A full statement of these exceptions might have been expected from the Signal Service, but it has not been forthcoming.

—The latest anthology from Heine for the school-room, Prof. Horatio S. White's 'Selections from Heine's Poems,' in Heath's "Modern Language Series," deserves the highest praise, both for the principle which guided the selection, and the accurate scholarship displayed in the editing. We have not discovered a single misprint either in the text or in the notes, which are concerned with the linguistic and metrical characteristics of Heine's poetry rather than with the grammatical difficulties that beset the path of the ordinary student of German. The classification of Heine's verse into "faulty, dialectic, and curious rimes" is somewhat arbitrary. Considering the lack of recognized standards of pure rhymes in German poetry, to which, indeed, Prof. White himself refers, it will hardly serve a useful purpose to append a list of such "irregular" rhymes as *Blätter, Städter; Gelächter, Töchter; einher, leer*, etc. With the sole exception of the pedantic Platen, German poetry is full of impure rhymes, and unavoidably so. We recall at random *Knapp, hinab; Höh', See; keck, weg* in Schiller ("Der Taucher"); *Gwinnst, Dienst*, in Schiller ("Der Graf von Habsburg") and Goethe ("Der Gott und die Bajadere"); *verehrt, unerhört; quäle, Seele* in Goethe ("Die Braut von Corinth"), etc. The "curious" rhymes, however, are amply worth pointing out, even if it were only to contrast Heine's skill in this respect, his *Klopstock, Haubenkopfstock; Romantik, Uhland, Tieck; Loh ist, Mirabeau bist*, etc., with Byron's *Portugal, Da Stäel; Trecentisti, this t'ye*, and other halting *tours de force*. Among the "antiquated, obsolescent, or unusual words or forms" we notice *gestunken*, which is unobjectionable from any point of view except the æsthetic. *Weiland* is the official term which German newspapers of the present day prefix to the titles of defunct princely celebrities, and *sputet euch* also hardly falls under any of the above categories. *Träumen seligen Traum* and *denk' ich alter Geschichten* are "grammatical irregularities" only in the sense in which any poetic expression differs from ordinary speech. The critical estimate of Heine in the preface is, for its compass, one of the justest and most comprehensive with which we are familiar; but we fear the alleged deathbed conversion of the poet had in it even less of the element of sincerity than Prof. White is disposed to accord to it. "If Heine's last days," he says, "are to be considered as a retribution, he may be said to have expiated his offences." We have the authority of Gustav Karpeles, one of the best informed of Heine's biographers, for the statement that when, three or four days before his death, he was asked by an anxious friend what his relations to his God were, the poet replied, rather irreverently for a dying man: "Dieu me pardonnera, c'est son métier."

—In May last M. Salomon Reinach delivered a discourse which may be called a monograph on the Arch of Titus, before the Paris Société des Études Juives. As now published in a handsome brochure ('L'Arc de Titus et les Dépouilles du Temple,' Paris: A. Durlacher), it will be found a highly interesting summary of all that is known about one of the most venerable monuments of Rome. The address begins with an historical sketch of the revolt of the Jews that led to the triumph commemorated by the arch, pictures the appearance and traces the route of the triumphal procession, and then in detail tells of the building of the arch, its dimensions, material, dilapidation in the Middle Ages, and wise restoration by Pius VII. in the first quarter of the present century. Every tourist in Rome will be thankful for these particulars. But M. Reinach, in the pursuit of his main object, enters into artistic considerations, judging and interpreting the sculptured ornament, which wholly relates to the triumphal procession. To be noted here, among less obvious features, are the symbolic figure of the River Jordan in the battered line of figures on the architrave of the arch; and the several planes of relief and perspective in the famous panel within the arch on which we see the spoils of the Temple—the seven-branched candle-stick in the only representation that has come down to us, etc. M. Reinach inquires what became of these precious objects, whose successive transfers until they were restored to Jerusalem are recorded. Finally, he examines the tradition that no Jew was allowed to pass through the Arch of Titus, and that the inhabitants of the Ghetto, in going from the Coliseum to the Capitol, wore a path between the monument and the Palatine. He suggests a different explanation by reference to the orthodox Jews' abhorrence of images, such as surmounted every Roman arch, to say nothing of the dolorous feelings evoked by the sculpture of the Arch of Titus; and he concludes with a proud reflection on the monotheistic triumph of Judaism that dates precisely from the dispersion consequent upon the defeat and humiliation commemorated, and was indeed the result of the downfall of Jerusalem.

—M. H. Vuibert's 'Annuaire de la Jeunesse pour l'année 1890' (Paris: Nony & Cie.) does not compete with M. Jost's smaller official 'Annuaire de l'Enseignement Primaire,' to which one must still turn for the personnel of directors, inspectors, instructors, and school committees as well as for the text of the pertinent laws and decrees relating to primary education. M. Vuibert aims to place in the hands of parents a complete general view of the means of education open to their children in all grades, both in the institutions, primary and superior, maintained gratuitously by the Government, and in the secondary and private institutions, with indication of programmes, prizes, and scholarships. He is the good adviser in the choice of a career or a profession, and, by the motto of his book (taken from Franklin) and his opening remarks, is shown to be an ardent advocate of the spread of national intelligence. He also incidentally makes it clear that the ruin of the Second Empire was the dawn of a brighter day for the schoolmaster in France. In 1873, Jules Simon, then Minister of Public Instruction, was ashamed to show to foreigners the miserably equipped Sorbonne and School of Medicine. Since 1875 the number of chairs and of students in the higher education has nearly doubled. In 1881 primary education was made gratuitous in all public schools; in 1882 attendance up to the age of thirteen was made obligatory, and the system was wrought over almost *de novo*. The result has been a diminution by three-fourths of schools for illiterate adults. In 1880 a great lift was given to the manual schools of apprenticeship. In 1878 took place the first effective organization of university libraries. The very newest movement, looking towards physical education by open-air exercise and games in the English fashion, began in 1888, and already counts two societies of active propagandism, several athletic unions, and a growing "literature," in which M. Vuibert cites the latest work, that of M. Pierre Coubertin—fruit of his recent travel in this country—'Universités Transatlantiques.' A large block of the volume before us, which fills some 900 pages and has maps and a certain number of illustrations, is, of course, devoted to Paris. The appendix includes a number of statutes of 1886-1890 on nationality, recruiting for the army, the protection of children, etc. This is followed by calendars, census tables, and practical directions about travelling, in which we remark how the numbering of the railway carriages facilitates receiving a telegram *en route*, and that if trains do not stop long enough to enable one to send a despatch, the railroad's agents must attend to the service.

THE EARLY DIARY OF FRANCES BURNEY.—II.

The Early Diary of Frances Burney. 1768-1778. Edited by Annie Raine Ellis. 2 vols. London: George Bell & Sons.

Let us look for a moment at Miss Burney's diary as a picture of her times. A mere glance tells us that the England which she painted was very different from the England of to-day. Yet a good deal of thought is needed to see wherein the difference consists. There are few, if any, single passages from Miss Burney's letters or journals which might not conceivably be written by a clever young lady in 1890; yet whoever reads her diaries as a whole is conscious of a tone, an atmosphere, a coloring—one hardly knows the right word in which to convey one's meaning—which betrays a vital distinction, not only between the habits, but, what is of far more consequence, between the sentiment of 1768 or 1778 and the customs and feelings of 1890.

The life of Miss Burney and her sisters has in it an amount of color, of gayety, and of merriment which you will hardly find to-day in

the lives of English ladies belonging to the same class as the Burneys. Modern Englishwomen see "a great deal more of the world," in one sense of those words, than did their grandmothers. There are few of them who have not travelled, or had the opportunity of travelling, to places quite inaccessible to Miss Burney and her friends. A visit to Lynn or to Teignmouth was a more difficult undertaking in 1768 than is now a journey to Paris. It may also be fairly assumed that clever educated girls have now open to them a much wider field of literature than had the authoress of 'Evelina.' But if Englishwomen have now a wider horizon open to their view than had their grandmothers, it can hardly be contested that society was in some ways more interesting, and life more lively, in 1768 than at present. There were still marked differences between the society of different places; there were still local centres for social intercourse. Frances Burney would, in any civilized state of society, have found characters to portray wherever she went. Dulness itself became interesting when she painted it. But we very much doubt whether a young lady with her talents would find half as much to tell her correspondents about society at Teignmouth or at Worcester as Fanny Burney had to tell Mr. Crisp and her sisters.

One cause of this was that the English people were still sociable. During the middle of the eighteenth century it was possible at any rate to understand why the country should have been called "merry" England. Merriment is exactly the impression left upon one's mind by the picture of Barborne Lodge and its inhabitants. There is a touch of something like vulgarity in the jocosity which amused Mr. and Mrs. Wall. It is more than possible that an account of life in Worcestershire given by a writer of less refinement than Miss Burney might to modern ears have had a touch of coarseness. This may be so. Still, this does not take away from the impression that the Walls and their acquaintance really and genuinely amused themselves with a vigor not displayed by their descendants. There are theatres and assemblies and balls hardly to be met with in an English country town of to-day. The mere prominence of the theatre is a note of the eighteenth century; it filled the place now occupied by novels, and the theatre was, in Miss Burney's youth, represented by Garrick. He was one of the Burneys' intimate friends; he appears again and again in the diaries, and always appears as bright, charming, and lovable. The Burneys, it may be said, belonged to a theatrical set. This is true, but Garrick was the friend of Dr. Johnson and of Hannah More. English morality had not at the middle of the last century passed any condemnation on the theatre, and theatrical entertainments, not only in London but in the country, played a great part in the social life of England.

The color to be found in the society of the eighteenth century is heightened by the absence of a great deal of the dissatisfaction and self-searching which have grown up since the time when the world was delighted by 'Evelina.' It would be ridiculous to suppose that the habit of talking or writing about social, moral, or religious difficulties is in reality a cause to the mass of the world of any profound misery. People who are conventionally supposed in modern times to be wholly occupied with the problems of society or of religion often pass a very comfortable existence, though they have neither cut through nor untied the Gordian knots with which they have played. There is no ground whatever for supposing that ninety-nine out of every hundred persons who read 'Robert Elsmere,' whether with approval or disapprobation, are made permanently, if at all, miserable by the gravity of the issues suggested by Mrs. Ward's novel or tract, and by a score more of books which lie, or have lain, upon every drawing-room table. Still, when we come to compare one age with another, it is impossible not to feel that Miss Burney and her friends were utterly free from the burden, be it heavy or light, of the sort of questioning which has grown up during the period of more than a century which has elapsed since the writing of Miss Burney's early diary. She was a good and religious woman; she was, moreover, very impressionable and morbidly sensitive. Yet of religious and still more of social questions, her diary contains hardly a trace. Of the clergy and of their influence one learns from her pages next to nothing. There is not the least sign of ill-will to the Church, or of anything whatever which could be called scepticism; but, for all the show clergymen make in the records of Miss Burney's life, the Church might be non-existent. Mr. Hurrel, it is true, is a clergyman. This is the description of him:

"Mr. Hurrel is quite a poet's priest: he is as fat as *Falstaff*, unable to use exercise and eke unwilling; his love of ease is surpassed by nothing but his love of good living, which equals whatever detraction has hitherto devised for a parson's gluttony."

We all know that the Church of England possessed in Miss Burney's time, as at all other periods, priests very different from Mr. Hurrel. Still, it is characteristic of the period in which she wrote that Mr. Hurrel should have seemed to her a typical parson. Religion was to her and her contemporaries represented by Dr. Johnson, and Johnsonian morality had no tendency to excite a spirit of questioning or disquiet. We can hardly doubt that the happiness of the society in which Miss Burney lived, its mirth and its joyfulness, which to a modern reader seem rather foreign than English, were promoted by the freedom from the doubts which constantly occupy and occasionally harass the minds and feelings of the Englishwomen of to-day. Happiness, at any rate, consists, to a great extent, in the harmony between persons' actual lives and their ideals, and if the ideal of the eighteenth century was in some respects a lower one than that of the nineteenth, it was, in the case of women such as Miss Burney, far more nearly satisfied than are the ideals expressed or hinted at by the lady novelists who in later days have succeeded her. At the particular date when Miss Burney's diaries were written, the wave of religious feeling or conviction which is known as the Evangelical movement had not widely affected the well-to-do classes of Englishmen. There is not a trace in Miss Burney's early diary of her having felt any scruple at amusements, such as balls and playgoing, condemned with more or less decision by the "religious world" which was the creation of Evangelical teaching. But though this is so, there are one or two passages in her diaries which explain how it happened that the religious revival made the rapid progress it did in England towards the end of the eighteenth century.

Take, for example, this criticism on some of the views expressed by Goldsmith in the 'Vicar of Wakefield':

"He advances many very bold and singular opinions: for example, he avers that murder is the sole crime for which death ought to be the punishment, and ventures to affirm that our laws in regard to penalties and punishments are *all* too severe. This doctrine might be contradicted from the very essence of our religion—Scripture—for in the Bible, in Exodus particularly, death is commanded by God himself for many crimes besides murder."

The point to be noted for our present purpose is, that the writer of these sentences clearly lived in a world unaffected by either the humanitarianism or the scepticism of the eighteenth century. A humane young lady does not understand the objection to the profuse infliction of capital punishment, and an intelligent woman draws deductions from Scripture which nowadays would seem absurd to the dullest of Englishwomen. The truth is, that even persons who are completely free from what would ordinarily be called scepticism, have come unconsciously to look upon the Bible in a light utterly different from the light in which it was regarded by Miss Burney and her contemporaries. There is a curious passage to be found in the pages of 'Clarissa Harlowe,' where it is intimated that though the strength of Lovelace's passions made him a libertine, the force of his intellect kept him from being a freethinker, and that he believed intellectually in the eternity of punishments which he in practice ran the risk of incurring.

There existed, then, in England, towards the latter part of the eighteenth century, exactly the condition of opinion favorable for the occurrence of a religious revival. Puritan beliefs still exerted far greater influence than was visible to superficial observation; and though many of the clergy resembled Mr. Hurrel, there were still many men and women throughout the country who inherited the traditions and the piety of the High Churchmen of the seventeenth century. The mass of the English people were, moreover, then, as at all times, naturally disposed towards serious views of life. The dogmas which had moved the men of the seventeenth century were still tacitly accepted as true by the majority of Englishmen. The influence both of the Anglican clergy and of dissenting ministers had declined; there was a good deal of superficial scepticism current in fashionable and intellectual society. But the influence of Johnson, no less than of Burke, is a sufficient proof that the flow of English opinion did not in the main set towards scepticism or free-thinking. Preachers, therefore, who, like the Wesleyans or early Evangelicals, fervently believed in the religious doctrines which they preached, possessed one immense advantage. Their audiences tacitly admitted the truth of the dogmas on which the teaching, say, of Wesley, or later of Simeon, depended. The leaders of the religious movement did not need to establish the truth of the doctrines which they preached. Their task was the difficult, yet very different, one of insisting that their hearers should act in conformity with beliefs which their hearers themselves admitted to be well founded. The very dulness and moral torpor which deprived parsons like Mr. Hurrel of influence was enough, among a nation of Englishmen, to produce a reaction in favor of the teaching of men who, whatever their defects, were full of zeal and energy, and called upon their disciples to turn towards a nobler and higher life than could even be conceived of by such a "poet's priest" as Miss Burney's parson.

The change that passed over the English world between the time when Miss Burney's early diaries were written and the end of the eighteenth century, was exactly one of those changes of feeling which no one really predicted, but which, to a thinker who looks back philosophically on a past age, appear so natural a result of the circumstances of the time

as to have been predictable. Oddly enough, one of the most striking figures among the circle of Miss Burney's friends affords in his life a curious example of the alteration in religious feeling undergone by English society. Arthur Young is known to English readers as the author of the celebrated 'Travels in France,' and as the leading scientific agriculturist of his time. There is not a word in his 'Travels,' and there is not an anecdote of him in Miss Burney's early diary, which suggests the idea that he was as a young man interested in religion or theology. The tone of his 'Travels in France' rather suggests that he shared the scepticism of his French friends, yet he ended his life as a man of profound and somewhat gloomy religious convictions. In 1798 he writes: "In London I am alone, and therefore at peace. I rise at four or five, and go to bed at nine or ten. I go to no amusements, and read some Scripture every day. I never lay aside my good books but for business." In 1814 he is spending his time in teaching Sunday-schools, and in preaching in a kind of chapel of his own. An unsympathetic biographer describes him as "mastered and unmanned" by sorrow. That he had his sorrows is certain, and there is something rather startling to those who know Arthur Young solely as the observer of French life on the eve of the great Revolution, in the picture of him as a conductor of Sunday services, "a second Wesley, a wonderful stirrer up of men's consciences, an unrivalled expounder of the Gospel." But it is well worth notice that the change in the religious sentiments of Young is merely one example of the alteration which took place in the sentiment or the convictions of the generation to which Young belonged. We are all of us apt to forget that the spirit of a time means nothing but the opinions and feelings of men and women living at a particular date, and that the progress of a religious movement means that religious convictions are developed in the minds and shown in the lives of definite persons. Young, in his gayety and in his seriousness, was the representative of his age. The close of his life is quite in harmony with the changed condition of English society; the spirit of the country had gained in depth and seriousness, but it had lost the innocent merriment and gayety which gives a singular charm to the society painted in the 'Early Diary of Frances Burney.'

CONWAY'S HAWTHORNE.

Life of Nathaniel Hawthorne. [Great Writers Series.] By Moncure D. Conway. New York: A. Lovell & Co. and Scribner & Welford.

THE difficulties in the way of a biographer of Hawthorne are considerable. It may be true, as Mr. Conway remarks in his preface, that "there are few authors with whom the world is more intimate than the one supposed to have most shunned its intimacy." The confessions of the Note-books, the revelations made by his son and his son-in-law, and the not inconsiderable mass of reminiscences in other volumes, may lead one to this broad statement; but on finishing Mr. Conway's compressed account gathered from this material, one still finds Hawthorne's actual life remote, and is not a whit nearer to any real knowledge of that genius which, even in his solitary life, seemed to make a new solitude of its own. The fresh material included by Mr. Conway is unimportant, with the exception of the letters, recently published in the *Athenæum*, upon his dismissal from the Custom-house at Salem and upon the loan of money then made by his friends, which were noted in these columns at the time. The exact nature of his escapades at college in gaming and drinking is more fully disclosed by a stray letter, Miss Peabody contributes an account of his early manhood in Salem, some particulars are added to the history of his friends' office-seeking on his behalf—this is practically all, and is all in the region of that personal detail which has come to be of such prodigious disproportion in modern biography. Mr. Conway's book, however, is an effective brief view of the author's career, well proportioned and readable, and contains some interesting observations upon the more marked phases of Hawthorne's life.

The story is in itself most depressing, mainly because of the circumstances which it records. Hawthorne appears to have been sensible that his infelicity had its beginnings in the period of his seclusion at Salem. It does not strike us that in boyhood or youth he was unsociable or eccentric; the absence of companions, however, after he left college, the increasing habit of a naturally brooding genius, the sense that he was making no impression on the world as year by year passed by, must have developed in him (perhaps without his taking notice of it at once) the reticence and withdrawal into self which were traits of his Puritan and seafaring blood. Dr. Loring's account of the neglect of him by Salem people (for the city was a place of some intellectual culture) is very much to the point. He was not known as an author, and he was not of the sort that makes friends. There was nothing extraordinary in his being "let alone." The same thing would happen to-day in any community. Hawthorne's isolation proceeded from himself. Nor does it appear that his "shyness" was merely the attribute of peculiar genius. Self-consciousness and pride, as well as temperament, went to its making. How much he prized success as a proof of manliness is clear from that letter to Hillard in which he accepts his friend's assistance, but calls it "bitter," and adds that "ill-success in life is really and justly a matter of shame." The sense of failure, as something by no means remotely possible in his case, was as present to him as his shadow for years. His withdrawal from literary men in particular is noticeable. On the other hand, the ease with which he met men of a rougher mould, the ordinary people of the common sort, and the pleasure he plainly took in the contact with them, are not less significant. He had no need to remember that he was "the obscurest literary man in America" in the presence of men to whom all literary men were perhaps equally obscure. He felt, doubtless, also in their company that relief from the "bodiless creation" which occupied his mind when by himself; but the point of interest is, that we do not observe any "shyness" in his intercourse with these companions. The lack of recognition of his genius, and a manly spirit offended by its lack of seeming efficiency, certainly aggravated unfortunate tendencies in his disposition.

The extent to which society is responsible for its sins of omission in the way of not at once knowing and encouraging its men of literary genius, is a question too often discussed only from the point of view of the poor author. There is a tendency just at present to ascribe the difficulties of our literary men in the past, as well as the present, to the lack of an international copyright. Mr. Conway gives unlimited influence to this fact in discussing the trials of Hawthorne. It may fairly be questioned, we think, whether the unknown writer of short stories under various signatures, in various periodicals, would have greatly benefited in his early days by the best of copyright regulations between England and America. As it was, he had the kindest assistance in getting before the world, so far as friends could give any. Horatio Bridge privately assumed the financial responsibility for his first collected volume of tales, and, so far as criticism could be helpful, he had Longfellow and Hillard to plead his cause with all the warmth of friendship, in addition to the weight of their criticism. At a later time Fields was the most stimulating and generous of publishers. Apart from literature, also, Hawthorne's friends endeavored repeatedly to obtain office for him, and succeeded in giving him custom-house appointments in Boston and Salem; and when the latter was cancelled, they gave him money in the most unassuming and considerate way. Finally he received the Liverpool Consulate from his friend President Pierce.

It is true that there is much meanness of a political color in his holding of these offices, which were in themselves little fitted for him, and also that they killed literature in him while he held them. Mr. Conway thinks there was something ignoble in the price paid for the Consulate, namely, the campaign biography of Pierce, and Hawthorne clearly thought it an unwelcome task; but for our part we see no inherent impropriety in a man of letters writing a fitting life of his friend who happens to be a candidate for the Presidency. It may be presumed that if he regards him sufficiently to own him as a friend, he can find enough to praise without compromising his own integrity; and if at the same time he serves a political cause in which he believes, so much the more reason for his doing his part as friend and citizen. It is unpleasing to us to know that Hawthorne's opinions upon slavery were wrong, but not to know that he expressed them; and we cannot help thinking that it is the character of Pierce, and not the act of Hawthorne, which makes this incident so unpalatable to Mr. Conway. Had the story been the life of Lincoln, our feelings with regard to it would probably be of a different sort. Hawthorne was reluctant to write the book, and he was quite as reluctant, we cannot but believe, to apply for office, or for retention in office, by the customary channels. His political servitude for bread must have always been repugnant; but Government did the best it could for him under the spoils system, his friends were active and interested always, and his publishers and editors seem to have paid him all just dues. To complain that the nation did not provide proper place or pension for Hawthorne, when it provides them for no literary man, or that society did not buy his books in sufficient quantities to support him before he became famous, seems to us beside the point. Literature is not with us a matter of national concern or of social patronage; it stands on its own bottom, like any other craft, and, under American ideas, is likely to do so.

The fact is, that the notion that the country suffers some disgrace in consequence of the domestic hardships and modest purse of Hawthorne and others in the pursuit of literature, is a relic of the paternal tradition of aristocratic society, which made men of letters a favored class, and gave them charity much in the same spirit as those who would exempt soldiers from the civil-service examinations. Hawthorne received the same treatment as every other citizen. Mr. Conway's assumption, therefore, that the country was in some way responsible for Hawthorne's troubles, and should have "protected" him from them, seems to us a fundamental error. He suffered

the not unusual consequences of choosing a precarious and ill-paid career, the fruits of which are reaped rather by posterity than by the author, but this latter fact is one of the greatest inducements to it, under the form of fame or of social service. Hawthorne suffered poverty, but not injustice; he achieved a unique success, and honor with it, at the end, and he receives from his country all that he is entitled to—immortal memory.

The criticism of Mr. Conway upon the development of Hawthorne's genius, while it is sympathetic, and as penetrative as could be wished from one not himself shaped by Puritan tradition and New England habits, contributes little original to the general criticism of Hawthorne. He succeeds as little as the rest in laying open the secret of the creative process in Hawthorne, or even so tangible a thing as the growth of his style or of his mind. It is worth observing, perhaps, that he combats Col. Higginson's suggestion that Mr. William Austin, in "Peter Rugg the Missing Man," and other tales, was a "precursor" of Hawthorne, though the latter refined on the story named in 'Wakefield,' and gave a meaning to what in Mr. Austin's hands was only the stuff of superstition of a Dutch kind. Mr. Conway, however, fails to trace any obligation of the great romance-writer to the Godwin-bred moral fables of Mr. Austin, so far as style and treatment are concerned. The fact remains that Hawthorne's genius is one of the least derivative, the most purely original, of any in literature.

In the portion of Hawthorne's work that deals with the Puritan material directly, we find nothing specially to note in Mr. Conway; but with respect to the 'Marble Faun,' the comments of the biographer are extremely interesting, inasmuch as he attempts to penetrate the influence of Rome upon Hawthorne. This is a promising field, because here we do seem to come upon a change in the mind of the man, as if he were slowly but perceptibly appropriating the novel influences of Italian art and history. Hawthorne's opinions upon art are singular from the point of view of a competent judge, but they have the merit of being true to his own perceptions at the time, and the gradual growth of his taste and opening of his nature to the effects of art make a most interesting study. The inaccuracy of his memory, and sometimes of his eye, have lately been illustrated in these columns in the letters of the late Mr. Schuyler upon Hawthorne's use of Italian materials; but that some of this modification was conscious is not unlikely. Rome made a profound impression on him, as he himself says, but Mr. Conway attempts to define this as, in part at least, a religious impression, and speculates as to the extent of it under this aspect. Hawthorne was not a religious man, as that phrase is understood, but certain new aspects of Christian feeling seem to have been revealed to him with some power by the artists. This change in the point of view in such a matter, taking place late in life, makes an effective contrast, and its influence may be clearly perceived, both in the romance of Monte Beni and in the Italian Note-books. The subject of Hawthorne's religion, in view of the spirituality of his imagination and his profound moral interest, is a capital point in the criticism of him, and has never been thoroughly treated. Mr. Conway's paragraphs are no more than an episode, but they are suggestive and strike out some new lines. He notes in another place Hawthorne's indifference to philanthropy, conspicuously shown in the matter of slavery, but does not offer to throw light upon it. This latter trait is the more singular because of his kindness to individuals, and in general his responsiveness to any call for benevolent action when it came near him, as, for example, in his effort to improve the condition of sailors during his Consulate and in his attentions to Delia Bacon, of which Mr. Conway might well have made more prominent use. Philanthropy was, perhaps, somewhat discredited in his eyes by the Brook Farm episode, and by that procession of oracle-consulters at Emerson's gate which he looked upon. These subjects are removed from the particular inquiry into his genius, which is the more immediate object of criticism, but they illustrate the extent to which Hawthorne remains, notwithstanding Mr. Conway's opening assertion, little better known to us in his personality than in his genius, although so much detail has been gathered about his private affairs. In conclusion, we can cordially recommend this book to those who desire a general view of Hawthorne's days and works.

Madagascar; or, Robert Drury's Journal during fifteen years' captivity on that island. And a further description of Madagascar by the Abbé Alexis Rochon. Edited, with an introduction and notes, by Capt. P. Oliver. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, 398 pp.

THE hero of these adventures was an English lad who, in 1702, was wrecked on the south-eastern coast of Madagascar. On account of his youth his life was spared in the general massacre of the ship's company by the islanders, and he was made the slave of one of their chiefs. In this condition he remained for fifteen years, suffering many hardships, until at length he was ransomed by an English captain. On his return to England he wrote out his story, and gave it to some "transcriber" to "put it in a more agreeable Method." This unknown editor did the work so ably that he is believed by many to have been the author of 'Robinson Crusoe.' The grounds for this supposition are alleged similarity of style and the fact that Defoe laid some of the scenes of 'Capt. Singleton' and 'Capt. Avery' in Madagascar. The first edition, of which the present is a reprint, appeared in 1729, and the work immediately became popular, reaching its fourth edition within twenty years.

Until recently the veracity of Drury's narrative has not been impeached, and he has been quoted as an authority by nearly all who have written upon the island since his time. Of late the book has been regarded by some, including the present editor, as a romance founded on fact, for of the reality of the sailor-boy Robert Drury there can be no reasonable doubt. The arguments urged by Capt. Oliver against its authenticity, however, do not convince us. On the contrary, the supposition that a writer, using the few books then in existence upon Madagascar, could have invented the incidents and characters of the narrative and described the customs and language of the natives with an accuracy testified to by "the missionaries of all sects," seems to us to make far greater demands upon the credulity than the belief that the story is a true one. It may be added that the writer of the article on Robert Drury in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' Mr. Richard Garnett of the British Museum, regards the book as authentic.

The story is told with great simplicity, the editor's work apparently being mainly to supply occasional historical and literary references and moral and didactic remarks. The boy's principal occupation was that of a herdsman, in which he was often exposed to danger from the frequent cattle raids in which all the tribes engage. His adventures are numerous, though so similar in character as to become somewhat monotonous. But the account of his escape from his tyrannical master, and solitary journey through the mountainous region separating the territory of his captors from the Sakalavas, thoroughly revives the reader's interest. The different chiefs with whom he has to do are portrayed with a distinctness and individuality rare in accounts of savages. Equally good are his descriptions of the daily life of the people. His first entry into a village, as a slave, was marked by a peculiar scene.

"One of the negroes carried a large shell, which, as soon as he blowed, sounded like a post-boy's horn. This brought the women to a great house in the middle of the town, about twelve foot high, which I soon found to be my master's. He had scarce seated himself at his door when his wife came out, crawling on her hands and knees till she came to him, and then licked his feet; when she had done, his mother did the same; and all the women in the town saluted their husbands in the same manner."

Drury at first obstinately refused to conform to this revolting custom, but a kindly brother of his master "told me the danger of not doing it, and that in submitting to it I did no more than what many great princes were forced to do when taken prisoners. I found, at length, it was best to comply, so I went in and asked pardon, and performed the ceremony as others had done."

There is an amusing passage in which Drury attempts to explain the Mosaic account of the creation, and especially that "of the woman's being made out of a rib," to one of the most intelligent of the chiefs. This was received with derisive laughter, and on Drury's insisting "that a man had one rib less on one side than on the other," the natural *argumentum ad hominem* was urged. "We had two women with us; one was very lean, whom they called and told her ribs, finding them equal; and then a man, and found the same." Naturally, this did not increase Deean Murnanzack's confidence in his teacher. The latter's missionary work appears to have ended when, after an account of the Deluge, the astute Malagasy asked: "'If none but Noah, with his sons and daughters, were saved, pray, was Noah a white man or a black man?' To which I answered, 'Sir, I perceive you give no credit to what I say of this nature.'" It is difficult to understand why the editor should have thought that an abridged version of the Abbé Rochon's dull description of Madagascar was worthy of being reprinted. It adds somewhat to the bulk, but little to the interest or the value of this entertaining volume.

What's the Matter? or, Our Tariff and its Taxes. By N. H. Chamberlain. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.

THE strong feeling that animates this book is an indication that the abuses against which it is directed are beginning to be properly estimated. Not long ago most people refused to be interested in tariff discussion, regarding the whole matter as too technical for common apprehension, and being satisfied to leave it to be dealt with by Congress. But now the policy of protection is being considered on its merits by all sorts and conditions of men, and the injustice of the principle upon which it is founded is becoming widely recognized. The reform movement, therefore, is ready for the infusion of the dynamic element—moral earnestness; and it is the merit of Mr. Chamberlain that he discerns the signs of the times and throws

himself into the work of conversion with the ardor of the true missionary.

As it is impossible in such an enterprise to avoid dealing with figures, Mr. Chamberlain gives them a sugar-coating by casting his argument in the form of a narrative. The chief spokesman is a manufacturer who has been obliged to close his works, owing to the taxes upon the materials that he employs, and the listeners and interlocutors are many of them his employees. The disguise is rather thin, but is perhaps sufficient to secure an interest at the start, which the vigorous style of the book will sustain. The fallacies of protectionism are exposed, one after the other, in a manner well adapted for popular comprehension, and the positions of the author are fortified by an admirable collection of notes. He has evidently made an extremely careful study of what has been published on the subject, and has selected the most telling and conclusive statements. The array is certainly formidable, and not the least effective part of it is the summary of the opinions of Republican leaders upon the necessity of tariff-revision. Altogether, the book is adapted to our present wants and deserves an extensive circulation. Those who wish to read for themselves, or to put in the hands of others, a vigorous onslaught on protectionism, well sustained by facts and figures, can hardly do better than procure this book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atherton, Gertrude Franklin. Hermia Suydam. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Bly, Nellie. Around the World in 72 Days. Pictorial Weeklies Co. 50 cents.
Braun, H. Archiv für soziale Gesetzgebung und Statistik. 2er Jahrgang. Tübingen: H. Laupp; New York: International News Co.
Brush, Christine Chaplin. One Summer's Lessons in Practical Perspective. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Schiller's Jungfrau von Orleans. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Chittenden, Rev. E. P. The Pleroma: A Poem of the Christ. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Sir Philip Sidney's Defense of Poesy. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Dixon, A. C. The True and the False. Baltimore: Wharton, Barron & Co.
Emerson, R. W. Representative Men, Nature, Addresses and Lectures. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Fagan, W. L. Southern War Songs. New York: M. T. Richardson & Co. $3.50.
Ford, W. C. Writings of George Washington. Vol. VII. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
France, A. Abeille. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Gomme, G. L. The Gentleman's Magazine Library. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Graham, Dr. D. Treatise on Massage. 2d ed. J. H. Yail & Co. $2.75.
Hayward, R. B. The Elements of Solid Geometry. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Health for Little Folks. American Book Company.
Howell, G. The Conflicts of Labor and Capital. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Keriy, D. M. An Historical Sketch of the Equitable Jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery. Cambridge, England: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Knight, F. A. By Leafy Ways: Brief Studies from the Book of Nature. 4th ed. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Knight, F. A. Idylls of the Field. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Loomis, L. C. Myself: The Great Teachers of Mankind on the Nature of Mind and the Laws of Life. John B. Alden.
Lord & Thomas's Pocket Directory for 1890: A Complete List of Newspapers, Magazines, and Periodicals in the United States and Canada. Chicago: Lord & Thomas.
Macquoid, Katharine S. At an Old Château. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Malleson, Col. G. B. Akbar. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
McConnell, S. D. History of the American Episcopal Church. Thomas Whittaker. $2.
McPherson, E. Hand-book of Politics. Aug. 31, 1888—July 31, 1890. Washington: J. J. Chapman. $2.
Meredith, G. The Tale of Chloe. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Metropolitan Church and Choir Directory of New York, Brooklyn, and Adjacent Cities. Metropolitan Printing and Publishing Co. $1.50.
Milne, Rev. J. J., and Davis, R. F. Geometrical Conics, Part I. The Parabola. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Morris, W. The House of the Wolfings. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Northam, H. C. A Manual of Civil Government for Missouri. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Orpen, Mrs. Goddard. Stories about Famous Precious Stones. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Payn, J. The Word and the Will. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 18, 1890.

The Week.

"THE normal condition of a deliberative assembly is one of free and untrammelled debate," said Mr. Reed on the 12th of February, 1885, in the House of Representatives. On the 15th of September, 1890, there came before the House of Representatives a tariff bill which its champions say is to remain the law of the land for a number of years. The Senate had made a number of important amendments, changing radically the sugar schedule from the form in which it passed the House, establishing a permanent Tariff Commission, and giving the President, through a provision for reciprocity, the exclusive power of keeping off or putting on taxes upon sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides. This last is the most important action regarding the taxing power which it has ever been proposed that Congress should take, and demands the most careful consideration. It was opposed in the Senate by one of the ablest lawyers on the Republican side as unconstitutional, and members of the House were entitled to hear the arguments for and against it before casting their votes. Yet Speaker Reed allowed only two hours for debate of the whole tariff question on Monday, and would not permit a separate vote on the reciprocity amendment or any other of the changes in the bill made by the Senate. The only motion allowed was one to non-concur in all the Senate amendments and send the bill to a conference committee, which was of course carried by a party vote. When that committee reports it back, the only motion that can be made will be to accept or reject its work as a whole. In other words, the House is denied all opportunity to express its opinion upon reciprocity, the changes in the sugar schedule, or any other Senate amendment, and everything is to be settled in secret by a conference committee, which in turn will simply ratify the decisions of the Speaker.

Really, it seems hardly worth while to keep up the forms of a House of Representatives. Practically the will of the Speaker is the action of the House. Why keep the other 329 members in Washington? To be sure, the Constitution provides that "the House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States"; but so, also, it provides that "the Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises." It is now proposed by act of Congress to transfer the power of laying taxes to the President. Why not also, by act of Congress, transfer the power of legislation, so far as the House of Representatives is concerned, from the whole body of members to the Speaker? This would be only a formal recognition of the existing situation. It may be objected that it would be unconstitutional. But so, also, is the reciprocity provision.

Before the final vote was taken in the Senate on the Aldrich reciprocity amendment to the Tariff Bill, Mr. Evarts proposed to change it so as to bring it into conformity with the Constitution of the United States. Instead of giving the President authority at his caprice to put on or take off duties—in other words, to exercise the taxing power which the Constitution commits to Congress—the New York Senator proposed to provide that, whenever the President should consider the action of other nations regarding our products reciprocally unequal and unreasonable, he should "communicate to Congress the facts which he shall have ascertained, to the end that such duties may be imposed upon the above-recited articles and exempted from duty by this act as Congress, in view of the failure of reciprocal action on the part of any foreign nation or nations, shall determine." Unfortunately, only two Republican Senators joined Mr. Evarts, and both of them men of the third rank (Dolph of Oregon and Sanders of Montana), even Mr. Edmunds voting in the negative, so that the constitutional method of dealing with the subject was rejected by a vote of 30 yeas to 34 nays.

When one reads the McKinley Bill and considers it as the summer's occupation of the Legislature of the richest and most prosperous country in the world, composed of men of mature age and presumably more than average gravity of mind and character, it is impossible to avoid treating some portions of it as comic literature. Take for instance that very mild, and harmless, and very cheap beverage known as "ginger ale." One would think this would escape notice in an assembly of this kind. It bore a duty of 20 per cent., for some reason to us unknown, before Maj. McKinley took it up. He appears to have discovered that to let it in at 20 per cent. in any kind of bottle would work some sort of mischief to the community. So he has provided "that if imported in plain green, or colored moulded or pressed-glass bottles containing each not more than three-fourths of a pint," it is to bear, in addition to the 20 per cent. ad valorem, "10 cents per dozen." Should, however, some importer conceive the diabolical idea of importing it in bottles "containing more than three-fourths of a pint each or not more than one and a half pints," his attack on the national interests is to be met by a duty of "twenty cents per dozen." But should some more than ordinarily depraved trader try to introduce it "otherwise than in plain green or colored moulded or pressed-glass bottles, or in such bottles containing more than one and a half pints each," this particular variety of iniquity is to be repressed by a duty of "fifty cents per gallon," besides a duty on the bottles "at the rates which would be chargeable thereto if imported empty." What prompted this bit of infantile folly? Probably a visit from some little manufacturer of poor ginger beer in New York or Philadelphia, who got a little bottleman to go with him, and represent that with more protection he would be relieved from the necessity of improving his own coarse and sweet stuff, and be able to force it on some people who now drink the light and wholesome foreign product instead.

There is great complaint among the importers about the date at which the McKinley Bill is to go into operation (October 1), and over the announcement that goods in bonded warehouses will be liable to duty under the act unless removed before November 1. They say that never before in this or any other civilized country has an increase of duties been clapped on goods shipped from foreign countries before the increase was made, or clapped retroactively on goods already landed, and that many a merchant whose goods are now on the ocean may be ruined or suffer serious loss from the change in the law. We agree with all this, of course, but we must explain to the aggrieved parties that the reason of it is that the majority in Congress have adopted and deliberately hold the theory that the importation of foreign goods is an immoral business, somewhat in the nature of piracy; that the persons engaged in it are therefore not entitled to any consideration at the hands of the Legislature; that it is true that in times past they have received due notice of any change in the rate of customs duties, but that this was an indulgence which ought never to have been extended to a semi-criminal class, and it is, therefore, ridiculous of them to complain of its withdrawal. This view naturally sounds very droll to all intelligent persons, and it might easily be refuted, but we can assure the importers that there is not the smallest use in arguing against it. The Republican majority has contracted for cash with the manufacturers to look at importers in this light, and cannot be dislodged from its position except by a larger payment. The only remedy for foreign traders that we know of is to put up in 1892 more money than the domestic-industry people, for the campaign chest. See Quay beforehand, and he will make it all right.

The Republicans are naturally in a quandary what to do about their leader, Mr. Quay. Mr. Clarkson, the late Assistant Postmaster-General, who is one of the shrewdest of the managers, when consulted the other day about what had better be done, said: "Mr. Quay would not be permitted to resign by the National Committee if he wished to do so. He talked about resigning the week after election, but the members would not hear of it. He has expressed himself to the same effect several times since, but the members hold the same

feeling about it now as then." Clarkson is right and "the members" are right. They cannot let him resign. Resignation would be confession, and they must carry him along. If he should win the coming election in Pennsylvania, they will claim it as a "vindication"—a term which means not that a man has not committed the offences with which he is charged, but that they are not likely to interfere with his political career, and this is what Quay most cares for. If people vote for him, he recks little what they think about his character. The whole situation is most interesting and instructive.

In spite of the persistent efforts of the Congressional Committee which is investigating the Pension Bureau scandal, to prevent the inquiry from revealing anything unfavorable to the Commissioner, Mr. Raum, damaging disclosures continue to be made from time to time. At Monday's session Raum himself was forced to make the admission that his private secretary was both a stockholder in and the Secretary of the Refrigerator Company whose stock Raum is accused of distributing among the employees of the Bureau. It has been charged that employees buying this stock were given to understand that they would have better chances of promotion than their fellows who did not buy it, and it now appears that Raum's secretary was promoted after he took a share, though Raum says he never paid anything for it. The Committee used all its power to keep this evidence out, and it was only the sharp and unexpected questions asked by Mr. Cooper, the Congressman who is conducting what Raum's friends call the "prosecution," that goaded Raum into revealing it. Raum's explanation of why his private secretary was not required to pay for his stock is of itself a revelation: "Mr. Tanner was not expected to pay for his stock, and the same is true of half-a-dozen prominent Washington business men. We wanted to identify them with the enterprise, and we gave them stock for the use of their names, as is usual in the organization of such companies." When it is remembered that Raum has repeatedly denied that any employee in the Bureau held the stock in question, and that the company has been shown to be a swindle, this remarkable confession indicates that his administration of the Pension Bureau needs a thorough exposure.

Superintendent Porter's defence of his census is the most extraordinary thing yet developed in this national muddle and disgrace. He says that a prominent Washington editor called at the Census Office to complain that his family had not been enumerated, whereupon the Superintendent had the sheets from the district in question brought to his desk, and found that not only the editor, but every member of his family had been counted. "The information," says Mr Porter, "had probably been given out by a servant in his family, who neglected to mention it." The Superintendent says further: "I have had several similar cases, and in each instance the party complaining that he had been overlooked was found to be down all right; so I believe it is safe to say that in the majority of instances the people who do not think they have been counted in the census are mistaken." So we have a census made up in a considerable measure of the replies to a long list of questions regarding members of a family given by ignorant servant-girls! And the Superintendent of the Census actually claims that this sort of a census is all right!

The full returns in Speaker Reed's district show that he was chiefly indebted to Democratic apathy for his great majority. In Portland he ran 84 votes ahead of the Republican candidate for Governor, but as his Democratic rival also led the State ticket of his party by 39 votes, the Speaker's net gain was but trifling. In a few other places Mr. Reed led Gov. Burleigh slightly, but in some cases also he fell behind the State ticket, so that there is no material difference in the whole district between his total for Congress and Burleigh's for Governor. What gave Mr. Reed his great majority was the fact that the Republicans got out a much larger proportion of their whole vote than the Democrats. It was by no means a full vote, for the Speaker received only 16,812 ballots, while in the last election of a non-Presidential year (1886) he polled within 1,187 of his record last Monday, and in 1888 exceeded it by no fewer than 1,476; but the Democratic canvass was so utterly neglected that the party turned out only 11,959 voters, whereas in 1886 14,299 appeared at the polls, and in 1888 15,855. This showing will not avail to break the moral force of Mr. Reed's unprecedented majority, which stands at 4,853 this year, against only 2,433 in 1888 and 1,326 in 1886; but it makes it plain that the result was due rather to Democratic lifelessness than to Republican gains.

There is danger that the Republicans will overestimate the importance of their victory in Maine, forgetting that they won an equally decisive victory in September, 1874, while two months later the Democrats swept the country. It is well enough to dig out of newspaper files the exuberant despatch which James G. Blaine sent to President Grant on the evening of election day:

> "The result of our election is in all respects satisfactory. We have carried every Congressional district, have a majority, I think, in every county in the State, have chosen twenty-nine or thirty Senators to one by the Democrats, have elected three-fourths of the popular branch of the Legislature, and have given Gov. Dingley a majority, according to present appearances, of between 11,000 and 12,000, which is a handsome gain on last year's vote."

This was on the 14th of September, 1874. In October the Democrats carried Ohio for State officers by 17,000 majority, and Indiana by almost exactly the same majority, while in November they elected their candidate Governor of Massachusetts, gave Tilden 50,000 majority in New York, and secured almost two-thirds of the House of Representatives. The enthusiastic Republicans who are treating Speaker Reed's recent victory in Maine as the verdict of the nation, should consider these reminiscences.

The noisy attack which Congressman Boutelle, the howling dervish of Maine politics, has made upon Mr. Blaine through the columns of the Bangor *Whig*, is merely public announcement that Boutelle looks upon the Maine election as marking the end of Mr. Blaine's power in politics. Boutelle, the creature of Blaine, has come to the conclusion that Blaine is a "back number," and that Reed is the man for him to follow hereafter. In speaking of this change of leadership the *Times* says that Mr. Blaine has ceased to be the Man from Maine, Mr. Reed now occupying that position, and has become only a man from Maine. We should say, rather, that the two should be spoken of as the Man from Maine and the Second Man from Maine. The type remains unchanged, as do the political methods and morals of the leadership. Boutelle and his kind turn to Reed because they hope to get, through his power, what they formerly got through Blaine's, that is, offices for themselves and a share in the distribution of the spoils. Boutelle, in fact, serves notice upon the President that the Maine election gives him no excuse for further refusal to hand over the control of the Maine patronage to the Second Man from Maine. It will be interesting to see what answer the President will make. The chances are that he, as well as the great bulk of his party, will take Boutelle's view.

The *Evening Post* prints a letter from Mr. David A. Wells defining his position on the tariff question in answer to some criticisms of the Hartford *Times*. His position is that of all rational tariff-reformers. The furious free-trader who wants to abolish all duties instanter, is a creature of the protectionist imagination. If he exists in this country, or in any other, he exists in only very small numbers and only in the remoter mountain ranges of public economy. The reciprocity men have this sort of free-trader undoubtedly in mind when they are frightened and run away on being called free-traders themselves. But they will become more sensible by and by. Every man is a free-trader who acknowledges that commercial intercourse with foreign nations is a rational, profitable, and innocent thing. Absolute free trade, without let or hindrance in the shape of revenue duties, is almost as difficult in this world as perfect holiness. A reciprocity man is simply a man who recognizes the sinfulness and folly of some of his ways, and sincerely resolves to abandon them and strive after a better life. His condition, in fact, is somewhat like that of an African chief who has just been converted to Christianity, and is considering how best, without disregarding the claims of natural justice, to dispose of nine of his ten wives in accordance with the requirements of his new faith. Mr. Wells, we believe, has come to no determination as to accepting a nomination for Congress, and will not "work" for it. It must be offered him, if offered at all, with substan

tial unanimity; that is to say, he must be left untrammelled if he is to accept it at all.

Senator Saxton states in the *Tribune* of Monday that the features of the new ballot law for this State which are likely to cause most annoyance, and may lead to complications in practice, were added by Gov. Hill. These are the separate tickets and the consecutive numbering of the ballots, both of which had to be added before the Governor would approve the bill. The separate-ticket requirement was added in the supposed interest of Tammany Hall, but it is Tammany which is most alarmed about it now, for its leaders are afraid that the confusing number of ballots which each voter will receive at the polls, and from which he must select unaided those which he is to vote, will be the cause of Tammany losing from 10,000 to 30,000 votes. They fear that great numbers of their ignorant followers will either not go to the polls at all, or will not be able to vote as they wish when they get there. They must not blame the ballot-reformers for this situation, but the Governor and themselves. If they had been willing to take the Australian system in the simple form in which its advocates presented it in the Saxton bill, they would have had a much easier one to work than they have now.

There have now been put on record, from unimpeachable Republican sources, four emphatic protests against a straight Republican ticket in the approaching municipal election. Three of these protests are made by men who as practical politicians have no superiors in the Republican County organization, namely, Messrs. Van Cott, the Postmaster, Jacob M. Patterson, ex-Police Justice, and William H. Townley, the Republican leader of the Fourth Assembly District. The fourth protest, which is slightly less emphatic and more cautious, comes from Chauncey M. Depew, who, if not so practical as the three leaders above mentioned, is as uncompromising a party man as any one of them. The utterances of the four men are so comprehensive, and throw so far-reaching a light upon the relations of Republican politics and municipal government in this city, that it is well worth while to cite them in the order of their publication. Mr. Van Cott said, in an interview published by the *Evening Post* on August 13: "The impossibility of electing a Republican to the Mayoralty on a straight Republican ticket is so palpable that I do not see how any one could regard the nomination of such a ticket as anything but the purest folly. There is not an iota of doubt that with three tickets in the field Tammany would have a comfortable majority." Mr. Townley said in an interview published by the same paper on September 1: "In nominating a straight ticket we should be doing just exactly what Tammany Hall wants us to do, and there is no doubt that, if we were to do it, we could get lots of good offices from Tammany in return for the action." Mr. Patterson said, in an interview published in the *World* on September 13, when asked if he had declared himself as opposed to a straight ticket: "I certainly did say that it was foolish for any Republican who knows anything about politics in this city to hope for victory here next November by running a straight ticket. Just so sure as there are three tickets in the field, just so sure is Tammany of victory." Mr. Depew's views were set forth in an interview published by the *Evening Post* on Saturday.

The Wyoming election of Thursday was notable not only as the first in a new State of the Union, but also for the fact that women participated in the choice of State officials and, indirectly, of United States Senators. The Territory has been reliably Republican for years past—or else it would not have been made a State by a Republican Congress; and that party has now carried it again, as was expected. But what an outrage it is that these few people in Wyoming—the total vote at the last election (women included) was only about 18,000—should be given as much power in the Senate of the United States as the million voters of Pennsylvania or the million and a third of New York!

The education of the British public in the matter of strikes is going on rapidly and will soon be completed. We presume the finishing touches are being given by the Southampton riots. The British public are very much in the position in which the American public were five years ago. Indeed, they are in a worse one, because no such folly as the London Dock strike and its concomitants had then taken place in this country. The misery of the situation is, that no large corporation can discuss a labor question with a trades-union on its merits, or can afford to make any concession worth mention without putting their whole business in peril. The Reading Road tried concession, and in a short time the management of the road had passed, as Powderly has admitted, out of the hands of its officers, and the men actually often stopped the trains when they met in order to converse on labor topics. The explanation of this is that, as a rule, the unions are composed of rather ignorant and hot-headed men, and are managed by very ordinary self-seeking men of the Lee and Powderly type, who are naturally desirous of increasing their own authority and magnifying their own usefulness by every means within their reach. If a corporation employing a large amount of labor yields to them, it virtually admits to participation in the control of the property a body of persons who, in controlling it, enjoy power without responsibility. Nobody in any other field, no matter what his talents or character, is deemed fit for power without responsibility over anything except over his own private property. The dangers of such power to character and temper are one of the commonplaces of politics and moral philosophy. Why, then, should the leaders of trades-unions be supposed to be fit for it? Why should Lee and Powderly be supposed fit to manage the New York Central, or John Burns and Tom Mann the London and Southampton Docks, neither of them having a dollar of the stock, and owing no account to anybody for any action he may take with regard to it?

The insurrection in the Swiss canton of Ticino was due to the same causes which, during the last fifty years, have made that canton the scene of frequent conflicts between the two political classes who are roughly designated as the Clerical *Sopraceneri*, the inhabitants north of the mountain pass of Ceneri, and the Radical *Sottoceneri*, those south of it. The Ultramontanes have for fifteen years had a majority in the Grand Council, and have carried things with a high hand, ousting officials suspected of Liberal leanings and replacing them by priests, reopening and multiplying convents, and making common cause with demagogues who preyed on the poor and ignorant populace. There was a bloody conflict between the parties in 1876, which led to the interference of the Federal authorities; and in 1878 one of the causes of contention, the rivalry between the cities of Lugano, Locarno, and Bellinzona, each of which had been by turns the capital of the canton, was thought to be removed by the definitive selection of Bellinzona. In 1883 the canton adopted the *referendum*, by which any laws made by its Government may, on the demand of a certain number of inhabitants, be submitted to popular vote for approval—a democratic safeguard of which, either in its obligatory or optional form, all the Swiss cantons, with the exception of Freiburg, have availed themselves, and which, according to cable report, was put into operation immediately after the suppression of the late revolt. When it is remembered that the preceding conflict between the Clericals and the Radicals, which was likewise put an end to by the Federal authorities, occurred as recently as March, 1889, it will be seen what little hope of permanency there is in the peace just now brought about.

The recently formed "Peasant Party" in eastern Switzerland, an agrarian association resembling somewhat our Farmers' Alliance, has perhaps added to the discord in the Ticino, whose Radical population is naturally open to revolutionary influences of all kinds. That organization may be destined to become an important factor in the politics of Switzerland, if one is to judge from the tempting overtures made it alike by thoroughly reactionary papers, like the *Berner Volkszeitung*, and radical labor organs, like the *Schweizer Socialdemokrat*. It is a curious fact, by the way, that the internal strifes of the canton of Ticino have not essentially disturbed the formerly sorely tried loyalty of its inhabitants, who are completely Italian in their language and characteristics. In 1798 the people—whose territory had been acquired by the Swiss League in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries—chose to be included in the Helvetic Republic rather than in Bonaparte's "Cisalpine Republic," and the canton remained faithful to the Federal Government in the war of the Sonderbund in 1847.

ONE LAW OF POLITICS.

In spite of all exhortation and temptation, Mr. Kennedy, the Ohio Congressman who made the savage attack on Quay week before last, has printed his remarks in the *Record*, without any serious modification. The most important passage appears in the *Record* as follows:

"He has failed to justify himself, and, though opportunity and ample time has been given him, he remains silent. His silence under such circumstances is simply a confession of guilt. An honorable man does not long dally when his honor is assailed. He has delayed too long to justify the belief in his innocence. He stands convicted already before the bar of public opinion. Under such circumstances he should be driven from the head of a party whose life his presence imperils. Lafayette, standing in the French Chamber of Deputies at a critical hour of the nation, said: 'France has done enough for Napoleon.' So I say the Republican party has done enough for this pretended leader; let him be relegated to the rear."

Now what we wish to observe to Mr. Kennedy and all other good Americans, in and out of Congress, is, that as long as Congress is engaged in its present occupation of trying to put money into the pockets of certain classes of the community by a series of interferences with the ordinary operations of trade and commerce, there is no use in "relegating Quay to the rear," because his place will speedily be taken by another "leader" of the same kind. Quay is the logical and inevitable product of the activity of his party during the past twenty years. The road on which he has travelled to the chief place in the party councils is broad and well graded, and is crowded with aspirants of the same kidney. When a government undertakes to make money for the people, instead of letting the people make money for themselves, money naturally becomes the chief interest of all men actively engaged in politics, and the man who can promise most money, and collect most money, and is most skilful in getting money somehow, inevitably becomes the chief statesman.

The rule which has given us Quay is as old as civilization. If a government devotes itself to war, the soldier becomes the chief man in the community; if it devotes itself to the promotion of commerce, the merchant and financier takes the highest place. If it undertakes, however, to promote public happiness by legislating cash out of some men's pockets into other men's pockets, by enabling the unsuccessful or the knavish or the incompetent to levy toll on their neighbors, to force their goods on people who do not want them, and to enter in their books the exact amount they can make by getting a tax put on or taken off, the jobber and gambler looms up as the political leader just as certainly as a wet dunghill steams in the morning sun. His appearance is simply a question of time. The catena of corrupt or tainted Speakers of the House, beginning with Colfax and ending with Reed, with which the Republican party has furnished American history, were unmistakable signs of the times. They began twenty years ago to show the party in what direction it was travelling. They were followed or accompanied by other signs not less portentous—the gradual filling of the Senate with millionaires of dubious antecedents, the gradual exclusion from public life of intellectual men of every calling, the application of the money standard to every problem of society and government, the taxation of pictures and books, and the consignment of all the thinkers of the country, whether ministers, professors, or authors, to contemptible insignificance as theorists, or "littery fellers," whose opinions ought not to have any weight because their powers of making money were so small.

The meaning of all these things was unmistakable. They meant that before the end of the century the Presidency and seats in the Cabinet would be sold for cash, and that the broker who managed the bargain would become the head of the party, the Chairman of the National Committee, and Senator from one of the largest, oldest, and richest States in the Union. That in addition to all this, and before all this, he should have been a known thief and a gambler, a man of infamous life, is nothing wonderful. He is where he is because he knows more than any man about the business in which the United States Government is engaged—the business of peddling out the taxing power to individuals for their private benefit.

If any one thinks this language extravagant, let him consider for a moment the chief result of the labors of the present Congress during the past session, the longest but one in our parliamentary annals. It now lies before us in the shape of the McKinley bill. This bill has occupied the attention of the National Legislature almost exclusively for six months. It fills fourteen columns of the large blanket sheet of the *Journal of Commerce*, and it consists simply and solely of a series of minute interferences with trade and industry for the benefit of individuals, firms, and corporations. Nothing is too petty for its notice. No man or woman in the United States can touch, taste, or handle anything from morning till night which our legislators have not meditated on as a possible subject of taxation for somebody's profit. One cannot glance over the list without being impressed, first of all, by the amount of human labor it represents, and then by the wonderful opportunities for jobbery it affords. No party capable of such an effort of perverted ingenuity can help producing a Quay; and when a Quay appears, it cannot relegate him to the rear. He is in his right place. He knows too much about the business in hand to be sent to the rear. France sent Napoleon to the rear, as Lafayette said, when she got tired of warring; but as long as her whole attention was given to the equipping of armies and the conduct of campaigns, she had to keep him in the forefront, monster though he was. A money-making government is, in fact, inevitably a corrupt government. The function of government is to give to legitimate human activity security and freedom. When it undertakes to show people how to increase their incomes, it can only do so by abusing the power of taxation; and when the power of taxation begins to be abused, the hour of the speculator, and briber, and gambler, and lobbyist, and thief has come.

"WHAT IS RECIPROCITY?"

Such is the Yankee-like answer which Speaker Reed is reported to have made last week to an inquiry as to what he thought the House would do with the Senate amendment on the reciprocity question. It is the only sort of answer which any one can make.

The Senate amendment provides "that the exemptions from duty of sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, provided for in this act, are made with a view to secure reciprocal trade with countries producing these articles; and for this purpose, on and after the first day of July, 1891, *whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied that the Government of any country producing and exporting sugars, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, raw and uncured, or any of such articles, imposes duties or other exactions upon the agricultural or other products of the United States, which, in view of the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides into the United States, he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable*, he shall have the power and it shall be his duty to suspend, by proclamation to that effect, the provisions of this act relating to the free introduction of such sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, the production of such country, for such time as he shall deem just; and in such case and during such suspension duties shall be levied, collected, and paid upon sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, the product of or exported from such designated country as follows," (the rates being then given).

If the House accepts this amendment, well may Speaker Reed, or any other man, say, "What is reciprocity?" What, indeed, would it be? Nothing more nor less than the caprice of the man who happened to fill the Presidency—be he a Benjamin Harrison, an Abraham Lincoln, or an Andrew Johnson.

The *Tribune* very properly lays stress on the argument which Senator Spooner made for the constitutionality of the Senate amendment. The Wisconsin Senator is an able lawyer, and he undoubtedly made the best case that was possible for the side which he championed. But it is altogether too much to say that it constitutes "a most convincing reply to Democratic sophistries and to the objections raised by Senator Evarts." Mr. Evarts challenged the Senators who defended the amendment to "offer an argument that, under our Constitution, this demission by Congress and this vesting it in the President is not placing in him the power to make a treaty, or a quasi-treaty, or an arrangement in that nature, without the Senate; or to raise revenue or remit it without the action of the House of Representatives, with which that power under the Constitution must originate." Mr. Spooner claims that "it is not a delegation of legislative power," and says: "The act passes from Congress a completed act. The provision that upon the happening of a certain contingency, to be ascertained and declared by

proclamation of the President, he shall have power to suspend the provisions of the law placing certain articles named upon the free list, and that thereafter, during the suspension of the law as to those articles, certain duties shall be levied, is entirely in harmony with numerous precedents, and is justified by high authority." In support of his position he cites the decision of the Supreme Court in a case which arose under the non-intercourse acts of 1809 and 1810, and the President's proclamation of November 2, 1810, that "the Legislature may make the revival of an act depend upon a future event, and direct that event to be made known by proclamation."

Of course Congress may pass a law and make its enforcement or suspension "depend upon a future event." Ordinarily Congress enacts that a law shall take effect at a certain date. It may instead provide that the law shall take effect at a certain date unless a specified event happens in the meantime, directing the President to make that event known by proclamation. For example, it may enact that no duty shall be imposed upon coffee imported into this country from Brazil unless Brazil imposes a duty upon agricultural products of the United States sent to Brazil; or that a certain duty shall be imposed upon coffee imported from Brazil so long as Brazil imposes duties upon our agricultural products; and in either case leave it to the President to proclaim the happening of the contingency thus provided for. This would be perfectly plain, and everybody in each country would understand exactly what it meant. The President's only prerogative in the matter would be to ascertain officially and promulgate a fact well known to every business man in both countries, that Brazil does or does not impose any duties upon agricultural products of the United States. In like manner it might be provided by Congress that a duty of three cents per pound should be imposed upon coffee imported from Brazil if Brazil imposed duties exceeding a certain standard—say 10 per cent.—upon agricultural products of the United States. In this case, again, all that the President would have to do would be to ascertain officially and promulgate a fact already well known to the whole business world. In the same way it might be provided by Congress that coffee from Brazil should come in free so long as Brazil should admit free our agricultural products, but that a duty of three cents per pound should be imposed in case Brazil should impose any duties, or duties exceeding 10 per cent., upon our agricultural products. Here, too, the President's only prerogative would be that of executing a plain act of Congress "upon the happening of a certain contingency," to use Senator Spooner's words, or "upon a future event," in the words of the Supreme Court—the contingency or event being a matter of universal notoriety.

But this is not at all what the Aldrich amendment proposes. It does not provide that the President shall suspend the free admission of coffee from Brazil upon Brazil's imposing any duties, or certain specified duties, upon our agricultural products after a certain date. Everybody concedes that Congress might constitutionally pass such an act, and every business man would know exactly what it meant, and be able to govern all his ventures accordingly. But the amendment provides that the President shall exercise the power of suspending the free admission not only of coffee from Brazil, but of sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides from any other country, and of imposing certain duties upon such articles, "whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied" that the duties imposed by such country upon our agricultural products are such as "he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable."

The Supreme Court decision which Senator Spooner cites says that Congress may make the operation of an act "depend upon a future event." What is an event? Webster says: "That which comes, arrives, or happens; that which falls out; any incident, good or bad." The action of Brazil in imposing any duties upon our agricultural products, or imposing duties higher than 10 per cent., or repealing certain existing duties—that would be an event, upon which Congress might make the operation of a law depend. But the action of Brazil in imposing certain duties which the President of the United States—be he a Benjamin Harrison, an Abraham Lincoln, or an Andrew Johnson—"shall be satisfied" are such as "he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable"—that would not be an event: it would be an exercise of judgment, or of mere caprice, which nobody else in either the United States or Brazil could count upon beforehand. Public sentiment in the United States might be almost unanimous that the duties imposed by Brazil were not "reciprocally unequal and unreasonable," but that would not prevent the President from deeming them to be so and exercising the taxing power. The President might thus exercise this taxing power, and Brazil might then make such changes in its duties upon our agricultural products as satisfied the entire business community in this country that the taxes which he had imposed upon imports from Brazil should be remitted, and still he could keep them on as long as he should "be satisfied" that they ought to be retained.

The truth is, that the Aldrich amendment places the power of imposing certain taxes upon sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides imported from other countries entirely in the President's hands, and leaves him to exercise it absolutely at his own discretion. If it becomes a law, the only man in the world who will know whether sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides are to come in free from any country during the last six months of the year 1891 will be Benjamin Harrison; the only man who will know whether, such articles having come in free from a certain country during 1891, they are to be admitted in the same manner during 1892, will be Benjamin Harrison. If Benjamin Harrison "shall be satisfied" that hides should come in free from one country and pay a duty of "1½ cents per pound" from another country, so it will be; and if he "shall be satisfied," after three months' trial of this arrangement, that he has made a mistake, and that the conditions as to those two countries should be reversed, so it will be.

If Congress can give the President such power as this, there is no reason why it should not give him all power. It is past belief that a Supreme Court which annulled the Civil-Rights Bill as unconstitutional would not also say of such an act as this: "We are of opinion that no countenance of authority for the passage of the law in question can be found in the Constitution, and it must necessarily be declared void."

THE CENSUS MUDDLE.

The census taken by the Federal Government every ten years is a work of the greatest importance to every State in the Union. Upon the enumeration of the inhabitants thus made is based the apportionment of Representatives in Congress, and by consequence the number of members of the Electoral College for the choice of President allotted to each State. As this enumeration is made only once in every ten years, any blunder in this respect is irreparable for a period covering five Congresses.

But the census long since outgrew a mere enumeration of the inhabitants. Their division between the sexes and among the races, their ages, their occupations, the number of families and dwellings, the degree of illiteracy, the condition of agriculture, manufacturing, mining, and all the other means of subsistence—these and many more hardly less important details now come within the scope of the census. Its reports make a long series of great volumes, and are full of information of the highest value to all students of modern civilization. To say that so important, vast, and delicate a work should of course be committed to the charge of a man specially and peculiarly qualified for the responsibility would be, one would suppose, to state only a truism. It would appear obvious that the Superintendent of the Census should be a man fitted, by careful training, for his duties, and, above all, a man of such unblemished character that his absolute impartiality should be as much assured as that of a just judge upon the bench. Reckless partisanship should of itself constitute as insurmountable a bar to appointment as Census Superintendent as to appointment upon the bench.

The census of 1870 and that of 1880 were taken by such a man. Gen. Francis A. Walker received a good education before he left the law office for service in the Union Army, and returned to his studies four years later. In 1869 he became Chief of the Bureau of Statistics in the Treasury Department at Washington, and in 1870 he was made Superintendent of the Census. The collection of statistics in that year was attended with the greatest difficulties in the South, owing to the disorganized condition of society in many of the States; but General Walker did the best that was possible under the circumstances. So successful was his management that he was naturally sought for the same place ten years later, and he dis-

charged its duties with the added wisdom gained in his position during the interval as Professor of Political Economy and History in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale. He enjoyed the respect of the entire community without distinction of party, and nobody would have ventured to hint that he was capable of distorting the statistics which he collected in behalf of any party or interest.

We presume that it would have been impossible to secure the services of General Walker as Superintendent of the present census, for he became President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology several years ago, and would probably have found it impracticable to leave his post. But it would have been possible to secure a Superintendent of the Walker type: a man of the highest character and the most approved qualifications; a man who would have made fitness the test of appointment, and who would gladly have availed himself of the opportunity to bring his office under the Civil-Service Law; a man whose work would have commanded the respect of the whole country.

Instead of such a man, what did the President give the country? A Superintendent whose reputation was that of a self-seeker, unhampered by nice scruples in his quest of office; who was appointed because he had been the editor of a subservient party organ; who began operations by proclaiming his contempt for civil-service reform; who is believed—and especially by those who know him best—to be entirely capable of any degree of "fooling" with the figures that was likely to escape detection. From Francis A. Walker we made the abrupt descent to Robert P. Porter. A sample of Porter's methods is afforded by the system adopted to take the census of this city. Here is the metropolis of the nation, a vast aggregation of people from all parts of the world, speaking all sorts of languages, living in all kinds of crowded buildings. The task of taking the census in New York was beset by the utmost difficulties, and required the services of the very highest type of enumerators that could be secured. What type did we have? The method adopted by Mr. Porter's representative in this city was to send out to the "Jakes" and "Barneys" and "Mikes" who "run the machine" in the various districts this circular:

> DEAR SIR: You will please forward to this office the list of applicants that the Republican organization of your district desires to have named as census-enumerators. This list must be sent here on or before April 1. Yours,
> C. H. MURRAY.

Comment upon such a performance would be a waste of space. Is it any wonder that the count of New York returned by enumerators thus selected by the Republican Machine falls fully 100,000 short of the number to which the city is entitled by every test that has applied to all previous censuses? Is it any wonder that similar complaints of the grossest inaccuracy come from all parts of the country? Is it any wonder that the total population falls fully a million short of what every careful student of the problem, basing his estimates upon the results of previous censuses, has considered the minimum figure? Is it any wonder that even a Republican organ like the New York *Tribune* is driven to the conclusion that something is wrong, and that another Republican organ, the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, declares that "the conclusion seems to be inevitable that the stories of inadequate enumeration which come from many sections of the country must contain a considerable element of truth, and that hundreds of thousands of persons have been missed by the census-takers"?

What a spectacle it is for a civilized nation, which has just celebrated the one hundredth anniversary of its establishment, to present—committing the most delicate and important sort of work to a lot of spoilsmen, and then finding, as might have been expected, that nobody can place any confidence in the result, although everybody must for ten years be governed by it!

CAMPAIGN METHODS.

IT is to be hoped that the leaders of the Democratic party will take to heart the sound admonition which they are receiving from many sources on account of their ineffective canvass, or rather lack of canvass, for the recent Maine election. The figures of the result, as we have already pointed out, simply show that the Republican success was due entirely to the fact that a full Republican vote was polled. The increase in Mr. Reed's plurality was not due to an increase in the number of Republicans voting for him, but to the great falling off in the number of Democrats voting against him. That is to say, the managers of the Democratic campaign either made an unsuccessful effort, or no effort at all, to get their voters to the polls. They made no open effort to arouse voters to the importance of the public questions which entered into the election, circulated no documents, and held no public meetings. They made no attempt to enlighten the voters upon the merits of the Tariff and Force Bills for which Mr. Reed and his party were contending, or to refute the statements of the Republican campaign orators concerning those and other measures and doings of the present Congress. They declared that they had something far better than all these things to rely on for success, namely, a "still hunt," but it is doubtful, in view of the outcome, if they had even this.

Why were not the Democratic leaders as well able as the Republican leaders were to realize what an excellent opportunity they had for making party capital in this Maine election? They have been asking themselves that question during the past few days, and have been making other inquiries which ought to result in showing them where the trouble lies. They have asked, among other things, who is the chairman of the Democratic Congressional Campaign Committee, and have discovered that his name is Roswell Pettibone Flower, and that if he took an active interest in the Maine election, nobody ever caught any outward signs of it. We trust that they will follow up this line of inquiry, and seek to discover Mr. Flower's qualifications for the position he occupies and the reasons which prompted his election to it. Our word for it, fearless inquiry on this line will go straight to the root of one of the most serious defects in Democratic campaign methods for the past ten or twelve years.

The inquiry will not need to be either long or acute. Mr. Flower was chosen simply and only because he is a very rich man. He had no other qualification for the place than his ability to make a handsome contribution from his own pocket to the campaign funds, and his supposed ability to get similar contributions from the pockets of other rich men. In selecting him to take the direction of their Congressional campaigns, the Democratic leaders were actuated by the same motive as they were when they chose Calvin S. Brice to take the direction of their national campaigns. In both instances they were possessed with the idea that they must have a rich man because the Republican party had so many rich men in its councils, and it would be necessary to meet Republican money with Democratic money in the campaigns. No thought was given to the other aspects of party direction, such as experience and skill in organizing and conducting campaigns, or ability to comprehend the great questions at issue, and to devise methods for disseminating sound information in regard to them among the voters. These and kindred attributes were set aside as of secondary importance. Money was the thing to be got, and the man who had that was the "born leader" simply because of its possession.

The origin of this rich-chairman idea dates from the Tilden campaigns of 1876 and preceding years. In his State and national campaigns, Mr. Tilden was his own manager, and he was from the outset dubbed the manager with a "barrel of money." Yet it is generally conceded now that he was very parsimonious in the use of money, and that his great success as a campaign manager lay in his perseverance and skill as an organizer. He was a disciple of the "still hunt," but a "still hunt" under his direction was a very different thing from what it seems to have been in Maine. As he executed it, it was identical with the modern Republican canvass as it is planned and carried forward by such leaders as Platt in this State, Chandler in New Hampshire, and Manley in Maine. It consists chiefly in the careful and complete polling of the voters in every district of the State in advance of an election, in keeping them aroused to an interest in the canvass, and in getting them to the polls on election day. That was the direction in which Mr. Tilden spent his money and in which he spent what was of far more value, his great abilities as an organizer.

The trouble with the modern imitations of Mr. Tilden is that there is nothing in them except the money aspect. No one will contend that either Mr. Brice or Mr. Flower would have been thought of for his chairmanship if he had not been a rich man. Their choice confined the campaigns which they were to direct largely to the money basis of operation. It is scarcely necessary to say that for the Democratic party to attempt to beat the Republican party at

this game is to court disaster. The Republicans can raise a thousand dollars for every ten that the Democrats can muster, and they have raised it many times over without an effort. They will do the same thing again just as often as the issue is joined, for they have the wealth of the country at their backs at a time when that wealth was never more arrogant, and never more unscrupulous in the use of means whereby to increase and perpetuate itself. Could there be worse "politics," to say nothing of the morals of the case, than for the Democrats to continue this hopeless style of warfare?

No party ever had a finer opportunity and few a higher mission than the Democratic party confronts to-day. All its leaders need is the courage of their convictions and faith in their triumph. They had the way pointed out to them by President Cleveland in his famous tariff message, and if they could not see it clearly then, they have no excuse for failing to see it clearly now. Their work lies in educating the people concerning the iniquities and burdens of the Republican tariff system as intensified and aggravated in the legislation of this Congress. The people are ready and eager to hear them, as the interest shown in the county-fair discussions in this State bears ample evidence, and as the tone of the Republican press of the Western and New England States conclusively shows. From this time forward the Democrats ought to devote all their energies to the spreading of light among the people, by means both of documents and speeches. They ought to confine the rich men of the party and their money-bags to the important and suitable work of defraying the necessary expenses of this educational crusade, and to rely for success at the polls on the intelligence and conscience of the American people. On that path they can win both success and honor; on the one they have hitherto followed they can win neither.

Correspondence.

BAD POLITICAL ARITHMETIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The scholar in politics is evidently not well up in political arithmetic. Mr. Lodge, in his *North American* defence of the Federal Elections Bill, accounts for the Democratic resistance to that measure on the sole ground that, under its workings, the Republican party would carry the House of Representatives nine times out of ten. He ascribes the fear of such a result to the Democrats, and he hopes for it as a consummation devoutly to be wished.

Considering that the free vote and fair count in Congressional elections is only a means to an end, which the New York *Tribune*, with brutal frankness, declares to be "a hundred tariff bills," Mr. Lodge's object is in the main neither more nor less than to fasten upon the country a most oppressive set of customs laws, by the free choice of colored growers of cotton and corn, who, above all dwellers on American soil, are interested in free trade, and would, if possessed of any political insight, be the most thorough-paced free-traders. But I am not concerned now with his ethics; I am after his arithmetic.

He reasons thus: In the States other than South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas, the Republican party is sure of at least 155 members; now, if by a "free vote and fair count" we can get fifteen Representatives out of these eight States, we shall always have 170 members on the roll, and that is a majority. Now, in the arithmetic of the schools, 155+15=170; but this equation does not hold good in politics. In the present House of Representatives, before any contestants were seated, there were sixteen Republican members holding certificates from the States of Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, and one from the city of New Orleans. Without the aid of these men Reed would not now be Speaker. If five out of these seventeen Republicans had been beaten by Democrats, Carlisle would now sit in the Speaker's chair. A measure, therefore, which is highly unpopular in Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, and in the city of New Orleans, and is likely to change five districts in those six States and in that city, is not a measure to insure Republican majorities in the next House.

That it is unpopular there, has been clearly shown by this time—first, by the adverse votes and abstention of Representatives Ewart, Coleman, and Frank; next, by the refusal of the Republican Convention in Tennessee to approve the "Force Bill" in its platform, and of the North Carolina Convention to approve it at all; and, what is most significant, by the rise of the Democratic majority in Kentucky from 28,666 in November, 1888, to over 55,000 in August, 1890. Mr. Lodge appears to us in the light of the dog in Æsop's fable, who lost the piece of meat which he carried in his jaws while snatching at its image reflected in the brook. And I will tell him two little facts about the Kentucky election, from which he may learn how much of a shadow he is grasping at when he thinks every black district in the cotton States is worth a Republican Representative.

The "white" counties in Kentucky are mostly Republican by heavy majorities. These have stood up pretty well even in the disastrous rout of August, 1890. The heaviest losses were seen in Louisville and in Christian County. In Louisville, where the white politicians thought the contest hopeless, and were unwilling to spend money or work upon "organizing" the black forces, the negroes did not vote at all, and thus the 11,500 votes for Harrison dwindled down to less than 4,000. Christian County, where the blacks form the greater part of what used to be a steady Republican majority, was captured in this wise: The Legislature last winter enacted a law for that county under which every voter got his written certificate of registration which he must show at the polls. Every negro in the county registered unmolested, for the shot-gun argument is unknown in Kentucky; but when the first Monday in August came round, it turned out that half of the colored Christian County men had *sold* their certificates, as common rumor says, at the rate of two dollars apiece, thus disabling themselves from voting. The farm laborers in the tobacco fields of Christian County who sold their birthright so cheap, stand many degrees higher in self-respect and in material well-being than the cotton-field hands of the Gulf Coast. What was done at Hopkinsville can be done more easily at Vicksburg or Mobile. By frying some fat out of the cotton-brokers and importers, a fund can readily be raised to buy off one-half of the Southern field-hands effectually between the days of registration and election.

In short, Mr. Lodge should understand by this time that he cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear; neither can he make a reliable political factor out of a poor, ignorant negro, devoid of self-respect and unsupported by his white neighbors.—Respectfully, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., September 7, 1890.

THE REQUIREMENT OF DEMOCRACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am much obliged to Mr. Casey for coming to my support, even with a tinge of sarcasm. The duty on works of art is indeed the extreme type of the whole tariff as a product, not of any honest theories of protection or free trade, but of anarchy, of lobby rule, of the prevalence of private over public interest, of the absence of leadership in Congress, and of any guiding national authority to control private and local factions, of the tyranny of party under the usurped despotism of the Speaker, of the want of personal responsibility anywhere—in short, of the necessity of the presence of the Cabinet officers in both houses. Think what it means to snap a tariff bill on the country within thirty days of its passage, forcing the duties on bonded goods to be paid by October 1, involving the chance, nay, almost the certainty, of a panic in the money market, with losses by millions and ruin to thousands.

To-day, however, what Mr. Casey is pleased to call my ingenuity takes a different direction. It is difficult to contemplate the speeches and the electoral campaign of Mr. Speaker Reed without a keen sense of a danger which it would be folly to ignore. So far from apologizing for his course at Washington as a necessity of the case, he glories in it:

"If we have broken the precedents of a hundred years, we have set the precedents of another hundred years, nobler than the last."

Could the impudence of egotism go further? All the jobbery of the session, Tariff Bill and Silver Bill and Force Bill, though I seem to notice a marked silence about the Pension Bill, is paraded in triumph:

"Government by the people is the noblest institution of earth, and there is no place where government by the people has reached so great a degree of perfection as in the United States of America."

If there has been anything which could be called government in Washington this winter, it has been the government of the Speaker, and the Speaker, so far from representing the "people," only represents a single district in Maine, and secondarily a majority of the private and party interests in the House which have elected him to his position—a position very different in theory from what he has made it in practice. No doubt his action and his success in Maine have attracted a certain amount of public attention, and the schemers are already at work to boom him for the next Presidency. That may or may not succeed; but if it does, we have no right to blame the people, but should look to the political arrangements which defeat and counteract the wish of the people. Mr. Reed is only another illustration of the perennial fact that the world always has been and always will be governed by personality. Our people, like all other peoples, demand a leader, a Gladstone, a Bismarck, a Lincoln, a Grant, while all our politics are carefully adjusted so that everything shall be done by majorities and minorities, by committees and commissions; that no one man shall do more than a fraction of anything, or can by possibility win any credit or just blame. The men of principle conform to law

and keep themselves in the background. The men without principle jump through the meshes of law, and present themselves to the audience with a bow and a "Here I am!"

Mr. Cleveland issues a tariff message full of sound and lofty sentiments, and leaves it to fail completely flat and his followers demoralized and disheartened. Mr. Reed bullies the minority, counts a majority to suit himself, will recognize no speakers but those of his own party, forces through legislation by such means, and then poses before the country as a man of action, while his followers throw up their caps, and the mass of the people, almost, but not quite, as easily led wrong as right, begin to rub their eyes and ask, "Is this, then, a Man?" We escaped from Mr. Blaine in 1884 only by almost positive proof of pecuniary abuse of official power, and within six years comes another pretender, if not personally yet politically quite as dishonest. The game is too dangerous.

Political reform, of whatever kind, in this country, to be effective, has got to take as its basis the giving at least an equal chance of distinction to honest and able men with that now given to men who are able, perhaps, but dishonest. That is the principle of what Mr. Casey calls my pet doctrine of putting the Cabinet officers into Congress; but it is just as applicable to every State and every city in the Union. The old cry of 'Measures, not men,' was as ruinous as it was false to human nature. Measures *through* men is what, if we are to stop our downward progress, will have to be the watchword of the future. G. B.

BOSTON, September 13, 1890.

THE ARCHITECTURE AT HARVARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I venture to call your attention to the following passage in Mr. Norton's interesting paper in *Harper's Monthly* for September on the condition, functions, and prospects of Harvard University:

"The value of the influence of noble architecture, simple as it may be, at a great seat of education, especially in our country, is hardly to be overestimated; and yet it has been either absolutely disregarded at Harvard, or, if recognized, the attempt to secure buildings that should exert this influence has been little short of total failure. If some great benefactor of the University should arise, ready to do a work that should hand down his name in ever-increasing honor with posterity, he might require the destruction of all the buildings erected in the last half-century, and their reconstruction with simple and beautiful design, in mutually helpful, harmonious, and effective relation to each other, so that the outward aspect of the University should better consist with its object as a place for the best education of the youth of the nation."

The object of this communication is less to question the justice of the very severe animadversions of the Professor of Fine Arts regarding those buildings erected for the service of the University during the last fifty years, than to ask whether the drastic remedy which he would apply—admitting for the moment that it is possible—would be consistent with the highest duties of the University towards its students.

In your notice of this paper (September 4), you summarize it as presenting "less a description of the University as it is than a general view of its lines of development in the last twenty years in connection with the collateral development of the nation." Now, if the older halls of the University, such as Massachusetts, Harvard, Stoughton, Hollis, and Holworthy, and Holden Chapel, which, as they are excluded from Mr. Norton's censure, may be supposed (in some degree, at least) to meet with his approval, represent without affectation or pretence the modest condition of art and civilization in the last century, and for this reason deserve our respect and veneration, do not the later buildings also emanate from the spirit of the times in which they were built? Are not they also records of contemporary history? Do they not present to the physical eye a general view of the lines of development of architecture, parallel with those of the University itself during the last twenty years "in connection with the collateral development of the nation"? And are they not for this reason deserving of a measure of respect as monuments?

Memorial Hall, the Hemenway Gymnasium, Sever and Hastings Halls, the Law School, the museums, and the other modern buildings of the University, not including Appleton Chapel, could not have existed in their present forms but for the exacting nature of certain practical requirements, for the condition of building materials and methods, and for the dominance of certain theories and fashions of design, at the times when respectively they were built. Some of these theories and fashions have been more or less superseded in the rapid and wholesome progress of the art by newer methods, which at present seem better adapted to prepare the way for the architecture of the future. It results, therefore, that the later modern buildings are better than the earlier; but all of them are the work of conscientious and loyal graduates of Harvard, over whose minds, it may be presumed, the vagaries of personal caprice and invention have had less influence than with many contemporary builders less fortunate in their opportunities for general and special training. It may fairly be assumed that these architects have presented in the later monuments of Harvard unusually just architectural expressions of the civilization of their times. Certainly, as regards practical construction and adaptation to the more complex uses and the more exacting conditions in the life of the modern university, these modern buildings are immeasurably in advance of all which preceded them.

Modern methods and conveniences are in continual warfare with the conservative instincts of architecture, but modern architects are compelled to adjust their methods of construction and design to these methods and conveniences, hoping and expecting that out of those adjustments there will be presently developed an adequate architecture for the close of the century. It is true that those modern buildings of the University are, from the point of view of art, merely a succession of hazardous experiments—so, indeed, were the temples of the Greeks and the cathedrals of the thirteenth century; but the accumulation and organization of precedents have in modern times imposed upon the architects a certain self-consciousness which has rendered the lines of progress in their art less consistent and regular than was the case with the ancients. Our advance is tumultuous, many-colored, and disorderly, but *it is an advance*, although none of us seem able to secure a point of vantage whence the scene may be viewed in just perspective, and the accidents and incidents of this progress may take each its proper place. May we not assume that to posterity these accidents and incidents of the art of today may become as venerable and significant as those of the last century are to us as we walk through the college yard? It would not have been difficult in the modern buildings to affect a spurious relationship with the older buildings by masquerading in "the colonial style," thus securing a uniformity which would be agreeable to the taste of many. But is there not a better lesson for the youth of the University in the honester method which has been adopted? May they not more clearly discern the character of the civilization of these latter years of the century by such methods, even if those methods have rendered it impossible to avoid incongruity in the styles of neighboring buildings?

Five years of the latter quarter of this century are more prolific of healthful change in all the arts than fifty years of the eighteenth century, and architecture, now at last, we hope, in sympathy with this material advance, is subjected to a series of quick transitions. The building of 1880 is different in style from the building of 1870 for the same reason that the build ng of the year 1250 is different from one of the year 1350. If in some of the later examples of those incongruities of style in the college yard we may not see, as some of us think we see, a hopeful sign that the true line of consistent and direct progress has been in them discovered, our children, at least, when they look upon Sever Hall and the Law School will recognize that among all the sons of Harvard none have done more distinguished honor to their *alma mater* than the lamented Richardson. The destruction of these monuments would obliterate one of the brightest pages in the history of her achievement.

How are we to be assured that the substitution which Mr. Norton proposes will be an improvement? Who is to judge in what style the new buildings, "of simple and beautiful design," are to be built? What pilot is to guide the new composition of art safely between the Scylla and Charybdis of mere archæological correctness, ideal academic conformity, and safe scholastic purity on the one side, and on the other picturesqueness, romanticism, and an undue infusion of personal habit and taste? Who shall decide what is best suited to the age and most in harmony with its spirit? Is there not a danger that the harmony thus obtained would be merely the expression of an individual taste, and not that of an age of artistic and intellectual progress? Would it not be far less interesting and significant as a matter of history than even the juxtaposition of modernized Gothic, Old English Renaissance, Southern Romanesque, and what not, which at present so offends the eye of the critic, but so fairly represents the irregularity and indecision of the lines upon which the art of our time has been working its way to some sort of triumphant finality? It is our fate to live in the midst of a period of transition and eager development. If architecture contented itself with falling back upon fixed and approved academic types of form, it would be immediately placed out of reach of the sympathy of the public, without which there can be no true architecture for our time. If the critics will be patient with the experiments through which the architects are trying to keep step with the material progress of the times; if, better still, they will give us specific criticisms instead of Rhadamanthine judgments, which condemn or approve and give no reason; if the new architecture, as it is produced, should awake a clamor of intelligent discussion instead of being received in dead silence, the elimination of the unfruitful or merely exotic elements and the growth of those which have in them the seeds of life would be much more promptly secured.

HENRY VAN BRUNT.

MANITOU, COLORADO, September 9, 1890.

THE HARVARD THREE-YEAR COURSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Until this year Harvard has steadily advanced her requirements, and all the time

has been attracting students. There does not seem to be a call for the change on account of lack of numbers; we must look for other reasons for it. It is more than likely that her desire to become a great university may be the real reason. Perhaps she expects to detain many of these A.B. graduates for higher courses. May these hopes be fully realized: she is well equipped for the work, and it is a laudable ambition. The question that naturally arises is: "Would it not be better to leave the old four-year course as it is, and let the University course grow gradually?" Many of the professors now having but few students might do more work in the lower college classes. Is not too much work done by tutors? Would not Harvard very much increase her usefulness by letting her best men be felt more generally in the lower classes? We very often hear the remark: "I want my son to come in contact with the leading professors earlier in the course, so I shall send him to one of the smaller colleges." If Harvard can teach several hundred more in the regular courses, would it not be better for her to do her best work on those rather than on a limited number in the University course?

I am afraid that this three-year course is a concession to the too much hurried spirit of the times. Inside the college walls we have felt tolerably quiet, and have not been seriously jostled by the pushing outside. We thought it was making inroads when the elective system reached the stage at which a lad of twelve could decide what he would study in college. This seemed to us rather young to exercise a safe judgment in such matters. I should prefer that my boy at that age should be relieved of such exercise of judgment by a wise body of men. I do not want him to think of his future work until he graduates from college, or, indeed, until he gets his university degree. The greatest danger to broad scholarship lies just in this concession to the spirit of the times.

The application of steam and electric power to manufactures and locomotion has multiplied wealth a thousand fold, enabling a man to accomplish in a week what it took months to do a hundred years ago. This permits us to surround ourselves with the luxuries of every climate in the world, to build fine houses, wear fine clothes, buy many books which we may not find time to read, make extended trips abroad, etc. At forty we possess more wealth than our fathers could at seventy-five. Everything, though, is done at fever heat. Our wants increase as rapidly as our money, and we have to devote our energies more closely to business to keep pace with them. At fifty we have accumulated a fortune, but have also the white hairs and worn-out nerves of men of seventy. We are all trying to "get there," and the majority are succeeding remarkably well—we are breaking all previous records. A good many have retired to the palace at Danvers.

Would it not be just as well to keep this insane rush outside the college walls? Let the time-honored four years be kept for quiet intellectual growth. If there are a few who can do more than others, it will not hurt them to use the libraries freely, reading good books. One or two years saved at the beginning may mean five or ten lost at the end and a life marred by immature preparation for work. So far as my experience goes, we have had too much wit-sharpening and too little judgment-training in the schools. It would have been a great advantage to me to have had an extended historical and literary course, running parallel through the whole four years. Not only would it have been as valuable in the line of mental training as much that I did have at Tufts College, but at the same time it would have proved of great value in forming tastes that might not have been developed by accident in after life. The bright men will hurry through the sixteen courses in three years, and the dull ones will shorten the four years as much as possible. The very worst element that scholarship has to contend against—the haste to plunge into the strife of life—will be at a premium. Would it not be far better to require the full time and let students all do their best work while they stay, without this eternal pressing forward? Let us not teach them to consider the college course an unfortunate barrier which must be jumped as soon as possible. It will not hurt the bright man to have an extra hour for general reading and study outside of his regular work, and the great majority will find all they can do well to prepare themselves for the regular daily lessons. When they have been in the hot battle of life twenty-five years, they will begin to appreciate the calm seed-time they once had, and they will not be anxious for their children to commence the "rush" within the college walls.

I am afraid the three-year course will not result in sending many more men to higher honors or attracting more to the College. I would suggest the propriety of selecting a hundred leading men in the various walks of life and asking them whether, from their experience, they would advise the change for their own children. The opinion of the college professor and the recent graduate is good for their end of the line—the theoretical; but it will do no harm to supplement it with what those may advise who have had large experience and know what qualities success in life demands.

EDWIN GINN.

GRACE AT WASHINGTON'S TABLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Moncure D. Conway's letter to the *Nation*, published in the number for June 5, 1890, on the "Source of Washington's 'Rules of Civility,'" it is stated that the first twelve of the 'Maximes de la Gentillesse,' etc., "are entirely omitted from Washington's 'Rules,' as indeed are others of a religious character occurring elsewhere in the book, even including one advising attention to grace before meat (it is known that grace was never said at Washington's table)."

No authority for the statement in the parenthesis is given by Mr. Conway, and it would be obviously difficult to prove a negative of this sort. But an assertion directly contrary to it may be found in Watson's 'Annals of Philadelphia,' vol. i, p. 580, of the edition of 1870, published by Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co., where an account is given of General Washington's mode of life in Philadelphia when President.

"His dinner-parties," it is there stated, "were given every Thursday at four o'clock precisely. . . . The President himself sat half-way from the head to the foot of the table. . . . He always asked a blessing at his own table, and in a standing posture. If a clergyman was present, he asked him to do it."

The whole account from which this extract is taken is of interest, and in its details it shows the observation of an eye-witness.

Respectfully yours, S. C. C.

BALTIMORE, September 12, 1890.

THE NEW TESTAMENT IN THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read the suggestive and sensible letter of "B. E. H." in the *Nation* for September 11. The question at once arises, however, why is the Old Testament to be treated freely and held amenable to the higher criticism, and not the New Testament? Are the Hebrew stories to be "treated as you treat the Greek, Roman, and Scandinavian," and the Gospel stories given to the children of our Sunday-schools as veritable history? This is exactly what the Unitarians were trying to do thirty or forty years ago, and which earlier than this roused the whole denomination against Emerson and Parker, not seeing the logical fallacy of it. Andrews Norton, John G. Palfrey, and George R. Noyes of the Harvard Divinity School were ready enough to discount the myths and miracles of the Old Testament or to doubt the commonly received authorship of its books; but when they came to the New Testament, another style of criticism set in.

Yet the time has come when the "higher criticism" of the New Testament, which can be read all through the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' to say nothing of single treatises on the subject, makes the authorship of the Gospels as uncertain as the authorship of the Pentateuch, and the miraculous stories of the life of Jesus as questionable as the Mosaic myths. "To conclude the whole matter, why shall we not have the courage of our convictions and act intelligently about them?"

J. C. L.

SEPTEMBER 13, 1890.

WORTH A CENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I add to the examples mentioned by yourself and Mr. Samuel Garner of the use of the names of small coins to express contempt, the once familiar "not worth a picayune"—the Southern equivalent of the Northern "not worth a cent"? Other every-day expressions in use among us are "not worth a pin"—"a button." Chaucer has "not worth a bene," "not worth an oistre."

Noticing "R. T."'s allusion to the intentional bad spelling of the members of the French Academy, I am reminded of *Hamlet's*

"—— wrote it fair.
I once did hold it, as our statists do,
A baseness to write fair."

C. C.

SEPTEMBER 12, 1890.

A NEW PUNCTUATION-MARK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In consulting dictionaries and other works of reference, one is often at a loss to know whether a compound word, a proper name, or the like is intended to be written with a hyphen or as a solid word. When such a word comes at the end of a line, so that it must be divided and part carried forward to the next line, the nature of the hyphen is ambiguous. Furthermore, the doubtful hyphen at the end of a line may leave the type-setter or proof-reader in perplexity when such a word is "overrun" to another line.

For instance, a careful writer is anxious to write uniformly "armorbearer" and "Beersheba," but the twofold use of the hyphen leads to an occasional "armor-bearer" and "Beersheba" to vex the soul of the author.

Why should we not adopt the German double hyphen [=] and use it to connect the parts of a compound word, reserving the single hyphen to indicate a break caused by the alignment? By some writers, I think, this usage is observed in autograph "copy," while others prefer to follow Longfellow's rule of never dividing a word, however long, at the end of a line, but carrying it all forward to the next line. In

print, however, are we not really in need of an open-hearted hyphen that will bear no ambiguity or treachery in its bosom? F. L. P.

CHICOPEE, MASS., September 11, 1890.

Notes.

THE Smithsonian Institution furnishes an example of the deadening effect on public spirit of State ownership. It is but a few years since we read in one of its annual reports the surprised announcement of the first addition to its endowment from a private source. The sum was small but significant beyond its amount. We are now permitted to make known the fact of two more additions to the funds of the Institution. The late Dr. Jerome Henry Kidder, a graduate of Harvard College in the class of 1862, left a legacy of $5,000, which has recently been paid over; and, Prof. A. Graham Bell having made a personal gift of $5,000 to the Superintendent, to be applied by him in any way he thought fit, Prof. Langley has assigned this sum also to the Smithsonian fund. Such examples will, we are sure, not be lost on those who have the means to imitate them, and who can appreciate the singular work of the Institution as an international disseminator of scientific knowledge.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish during the present season 'The Venetian Printing-Press,' an historical study based upon documents, for the most part unpublished, by Horatio F. Brown, with 22 wood-block illustrations; 'A Literary Manual of Foreign Quotations,' on a new plan, by John Devoe Belton; 'English Prose: its Elements, History, and Usage,' by Prof. John Earle of Oxford; 'The Life and Work of Charles Darwin,' by Charles F. Holder, introducing the series called "Leaders of Science"; 'The History of the 19th Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. Richard B. Irwin; and 'Fra Lippo Lippi,' a romance of Florence, by Margaret Vere Farrington.

'The Slaves of Sabinus: Jew and Gentile,' by Miss Yonge, and 'The Hidden Treasure,' by Lucy Ellen Guernsey, are in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready 'Martha Corey,' a tale of the Salem witchcraft, by Miss Constance Goddard Du-Bois.

Ginn & Co., Boston, publish directly 'Handbook of Historic Schools of Painting,' by Miss Deristhe I. Hoyt, and new and revised editions of Myers's 'History of Rome' and 'Outlines of Ancient History.'

Rousseau "und kein Ende." The house of G. J. Göschen in Stuttgart will bring out a work of original research by Dr. R. Fester of Karlsruhe, entitled 'Rousseau und die Deutsche Geschichtsphilosophie.'

Rousseau is the subject of one of the best-known and most brilliant and elaborately condensed of the Literary Essays of James Russell Lowell which come to us in two volumes of the promised Riverside Edition of Mr. Lowell's Writings (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). There will be ten volumes in this series for the public that does not indulge in large-paper copies. Handy duodecimos they are, with large type in a page of agreeable proportions; the covers in wine-colored cloth very simply and tastefully stamped. A familiar steel portrait serves as frontispiece to vol. i. It would be superfluous to touch upon the contents beyond the names of the Essays—a term which includes the Moosehead Journal, the Italian Journal, "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago," and "New England Two Centuries Ago," as well as a "Library of Old Authors," Emerson, Thoreau, Percival, Josiah Quincy, Carlyle, Swinburne, Lessing, Rousseau, Witchcraft. These are the product of nearly forty years of thinking, lecturing, and reviewing, and the unchanged product, for, in Mr. Lowell's badinage, which is both wit and wisdom, "I have refrained from modifying what was written by one—I know not whether to say so much older or so much younger than I—but at any rate different in some important respects; and this partly from deference to him, partly from distrust of myself."

"Popular Edition" is truthfully printed on the front of the volume comprising Emerson's 'Representative Men,' 'Nature,' 'Addresses and Lectures' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This is, in fact, the union, on thinner paper, from the same plates, of the first and fourth volumes of the Riverside Edition, having all the qualities of the best, therefore, except the needlessly fine apparel, yet remaining a handsome and presentable volume. It is surprisingly cheap, and it ought to do much to promote a wider reading of an author whose prose has hardly less distinction than his verse; witness the opening of the "Lecture on the Times."

Style, Rhetoric, Language, Conversation, Literature, and Authorship, with "A Brief Appraisal of the Greek Literature in its Foremost Pretensions" and much other Greek matter, give unity of "Literary Theory and Criticism" to vol. x. of Prof. Masson's Collected Writings of De Quincey (Macmillan). The depreciatory "Appraisal" has been recovered from *Tait's Edinburgh Magazine* of 1838-'39, and is here reprinted for the first time. It may even yet assist in the warfare against the classics.

The seventh volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the Writings of Washington (Putnams) covers the period from May 1, 1778, to July 29, 1779, with the emergence from Valley Forge into the French alliance, the Commission on the part of England to make terms for a dependent *modus vivendi*, the evacuation of Philadelphia by the British, the battle of Monmouth, the arrival and futile demonstrations of the French fleet, the plan of attack on Canada, the retaking of Stony Point, etc. To this generally bright complexion of affairs stands in marked contrast the growth of mercenariness and speculation in connection with the supplies of the army, the inefficient co-operation of the States with Congress, the withholding from that body of the best citizens in the interest of State affairs, the disaffection among the troops, etc. These occasioned very gloomy reflections in Washington's correspondence, throughout which his patriotism, generalship, and statesmanship shine preeminently. When Laurens proposed the arming of the blacks to expel the British from Georgia, Washington hesitated for fear the enemy would imitate; and, assuming that enlistment would be equivalent to freedom, he also feared "a comparison . . . productive of much discontent in those who are held in servitude." But he had given little thought to the subject, he added.

A second edition of the late James Macfarlane's 'American Geological Railway Guide' has been prepared by his son, James R. Macfarlane of Pittsburgh (Appletons). It is greatly enlarged over the first edition, and we can readily credit the statement that it has cost a great amount of work. It is certainly a valuable hand-book for the observant traveller as well as for the professional geologist, and especially for the student of geology. It contains a list of all the railroads of the country, with their stations and the geological formations occurring at each one. The roads are arranged by States, every State being prepared by or under the direction of the State Geologist or some other local expert of acknowledged experience. Numerous foot-notes call attention to matters of particular interest. Occasional references to geological papers on local subjects add to the value of the work, although the need of compression has prevented the mention of many that would have been of service. The double-column pages of railroad stations extend to page 420, and a six-page index of railroads closes the volume.

Prof. H. A. Hazen of the Signal Service has lately contributed to *Science* a series of papers on the Tornado, now published in book form by N. D. C. Hodges. Prof. Hazen objects to many or perhaps to most of the prevailing theories on the origin of tornadoes, and his book has therefore something of a controversial nature, at times verging on the style of a challenge. He rejects the generally accepted physical ideas concerning the effects of latent heat liberated in ascending, expanding currents of air; he even goes so far as to question the whirling of tornadoes as an essential characteristic of such storms. His own theory to account for them seems to be by electrical action in some ill-defined manner. His list of destructive tornadoes is shorter than has been given by other authors, and some good should come of the care with which Professor Hazen makes estimates of damage caused by these storms, although his scepticism may cause surprise in some respects. His assertion that an ordinary cellar is a sufficient protection from tornadoes is not borne out by some of the photographs of houses destroyed by them.

Cowperthwaite & Co. of Philadelphia publish a new edition of 'Warren's Physical Geography,' by Prof. William H. Brewer of Yale. The book has always been highly regarded by teachers, and will remain so in its new form. The maps are clear, and the illustrations as a rule are new and accurate. The general statement of the subject is simple and sufficient, and but little matter is introduced that the scholar will not comprehend from the context or from what has gone before. It appears to us, however, that the introductory definition—"Physical geography considers the surface of the earth in its relation to nature and natural laws"—is not well supported in the succeeding sentence: "It considers the earth as God made it, and the natural changes that are still going on." A scholar would certainly infer from the latter statement that there were two divisions of the science; but it does not seem improper to say that physical geography recognizes no such divisions. Natural changes are all that it is concerned with, these being synonymous with the theological statement of the first clause. The necessity for some geological knowledge in undertaking this study is recognized, but the application of this principle is not carried far enough. The Alps can hardly be regarded as mountains formed by fracture in contrast to the Appalachians, formed by folding with or without fracture. The Colorado cañon is mentioned as the most remarkable example of erosion, and plateaus are said to be "eventually" carved into "mountain-ranges" and valleys; but nothing is said of the much greater and truly eventual work of erosion by which the relief of land masses is ultimately obliterated. It is probably by reason of the need of compression that there is any ground for these criticisms—it is certainly difficult to say where space for an expansion of the geological statement could be gained; but the need of such expansion is appa-

rent here as well as in all our present text-books on this subject. The last division of the book, on organic life, contains two sections that are particularly well treated, viz., the distribution of life with reference to abundance, and the distribution of life with reference to kind.

Remarkably compact and convenient is 'The Pocket Directory of Newspapers and Periodicals' issued by Lord & Thomas, Chicago. All essential information is given in the least compass and in very clear typography. We may mention here also the second annual issue of the 'Manual of American Water-Works' (New York: Engineering News Publishing Company), which became a standard work on its first appearance; and 'Poor's Hand-book of Investment Securities' (H. V. & H. W. Poor), a supplement to the 'Manual of Railroads,' showing the range of stock and bond values, 1878–1890; stocks and bonds listed on the New York Stock Exchange, 1879–1890; railroad dividends for eight years; bond-coupons payable each month in the year, with the place where; location of railroad general and transfer offices, etc., etc. As will be seen this hand-book possesses some indispensable features.

The Trustees of the British Museum have published in facsimile the magnificent papyrus of the Egyptian Book of the Dead obtained for the Museum in 1888 by Mr. Budge. The papyrus bears the name of one Ani, a "royal scribe" and "scribe of the sacred revenues of Thebes." It was probably written in the fourteenth century B. C. The colored vignettes accompanying this papyrus are among the most beautiful and most interesting of the kind known, and the accuracy of the reproduction is marvellous. The work is furnished with an introduction by P. Le Page Renouf, Keeper of Oriental Antiquities in the British Museum.

Ireland, the East Indies, and the North Pole have been reached by Part 24 of the new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Westermann), now three-quarters completed.

Heligoland supplies a topic, with the best illustrations we have yet seen, to the current number of *Vom Fels zum Meer* (New York: F. W. Christern).

Mr. Edmund R. Spearman's short paper on the "Identification of Criminals in France" is the most curious of any in the *English Illustrated Magazine* for September. The engravings from photographs show how imperfect an instrument of detection the Rogue's Gallery is, at least in the case of men, whose growth of hair may make so much difference in their appearance.

Those who wish still another corrective of Mr. James C. Carter's view of Bentham will find it in *The Law* (Chicago) for September, which reprints an abstract of Judge Dillon's address on this reformer before the Ohio Law Association on July 17.

The National Civil-Service Reform League will hold its annual meeting in Boston on October 1 and 2.

— As an appendix to the 'Washington Astronomical Observations for 1885,' not yet ready for publication, will be printed Lieut. Winterhalter's report on the Astrophotographic Congress convened at Paris in 1887, to which he was a delegate on behalf of the American Government. This appendix is already issued separately, and forms the most generally interesting contribution from the United States Naval Observatory within recent years. The discussions and conclusions of the Congress are already sufficiently known, while the notes on those astronomical institutions of Europe visited by Lieut. Winterhalter after the Congress are full of useful information, and abundantly illustrated. It is to be hoped that the data of this report were not received too late for guidance in the construction of the new National Observatory at Washington. Though a photographer rather than astronomer, Lieut. Winterhalter has embodied in his report here and there a suggestion which the management of the Observatory ought not to feel above taking. The most important of these has been made over and over again—that the Observatory and its work should be under the general direction of a Board of Visitors. Without this as an initial step, it is hopeless to expect that any better work will be done in the new buildings than is now going on in the old. Apparently the institution does not possess within itself the power of getting out of ruts of its own making. Lieut. Winterhalter reports upon nearly all the important astronomical observatories of Europe, as well as some of other foreign countries, and amply sets forth their present condition and equipment. As an aid in the construction of new observatories throughout our country, and in modernizing the equipment of such institutions already existing, the report is invaluable. Few astronomers could have done better. Appendix ii, on Saturn and its Ring, 1875–1889, by Prof. A. Hall, is instructive as showing how an eye trained in a single department of astronomical work may be quite inferior in another. An observer's micrometric measurements may be beyond question; but negative statements and featureless drawings, far from proving the non-existence of certain well-recognized details of the Saturnian system, will only certify his inability to see them. Prof. Hall's conclusion, that the diametral dimensions of the ring-system are not subject to change, will meet with general acceptance.

—A work which many Americans might read with profit at the present time has been recently published by Georg Schanz, and is entitled 'Die Steuern der Schweiz in ihrer Entwickelung seit Beginn des 19. Jahrhunderts' (Stuttgart: Cotta). The author holds a professorship in the University of Würzburg, and is one of the ablest of living political economists. His book 'Zur Geschichte der deutschen Gesellenverbände' appeared in 1877, when he was only twenty-four years of age. Of more general interest is his prize dissertation, 'Englische Handelspolitik gegen Ende des Mittelalters,' which was printed in two volumes in 1881. Since then he has written a number of treatises on financial and economical topics, all of which are distinguished for thoroughness of research, clearness of conception and statement, and scientific soundness of view. His history of taxation in Switzerland and its development from the beginning of the present century is in five volumes, and comprises in all more than 2,000 octavo pages. It might seem, at first sight, as though the amount of space devoted to the treatment of the subject were out of proper proportion to its intrinsic importance. But such is by no means the case. Although Switzerland is a small country, with less than three million inhabitants, it offers a greater variety of peculiarities arising out of its geographical position, ethnological character, political constitution, and historical growth than are to be found in any of the larger European States. The fact that the population of the Confederation consists of three distinct nationalities, without taking into account the survivals of the old Romanic stock in the Rhætian Alps; the relations of the Federal Government externally to the European Powers, and internally to the several cantons; the remarkable disparity between the cantons themselves in political organization, economical development, and intellectual culture, and the manifold forms in which the democratic idea is constitutionally embodied and practically applied, suggest problems the solution of which can hardly fail to be interesting and instructive to all who regard politics as a profound science, and not merely a periodical scramble for spoils.

—The first volume discusses fully the general question of State and communal taxation; the second, third, and fourth volumes describe the diverse systems of taxation prevailing in the several cantons; the fifth volume contains the texts of the cantonal laws and regulations on this subject, and is the only complete collection of them ever made. In view of the fact that the Swiss Government is supposed to be the simplest and most economical in Europe, and that democracies are reputed to be exceedingly vigilant in keeping watch over the public treasury, it is rather startling to learn that during the past thirty years the increase of taxation in proportion to the increase of population has been quite as great in Switzerland as in Prussia. In 1856 Swiss taxes amounted to 7.9 francs, and in 1886 to 37.3 francs per head. In 1851 Prussian taxes amounted to 10.76 marks, and in 1884 to 30.12 marks per head. This result is all the more remarkable because, the neutrality of the Helvetian Republic being guaranteed by the great Powers, her military budget is relatively small; and, owing to her geographical position, she has no expenses for the creation and support of a navy. The notion that a republic is a cheaper form of government than a constitutional monarchy, and imposes less heavy burdens upon the people, does not seem to be sustained by these statistics. In the Middle Ages and in early modern times the burden of taxation was made to bear most heavily on the poorer classes. In Bâle, for example, as late as 1729, an income of 50 florins paid ten pro mille, while an income of 10,000 florins paid only two pro mille. In the present century the tendency has been to reverse this ratio and to relieve the smaller at the expense of the larger incomes, so that in Bâle to-day a net income of 1,000 francs pays 2.6 per cent., and a net income of 200,000 francs pays 9.8 per cent. A curious phenomenon is the vast inequality of taxation in different cantons. Thus, a citizen of the Swiss Republic worth 1,000,000 francs and with an annual income of 40,000 francs had to pay in 1880 in Solothurn 2,000 francs taxes, but in Lausanne his taxes would have been 2,720 francs, in Bâle 3,025 francs, in Zurich 8,169 francs, in Berne 8,350 francs, and in Horgen 9,769 francs. During the past ten years an effort has been made to remedy this state of things by substituting a general and uniform Federal taxation for the special cantonal taxes, but with only partial success, owing to the popular fear and distrust of centralization and governmental monopoly. The alarming increase in the use of spirituous liquors induced the cantons in 1886 to put the whole control of the sale of alcohol into the hands of the Federal Government. This measure was a step in the right direction, and has been attended by excellent results from an economical as well as from a moral point of view. Our limited space permits us merely to hint at the variety of interesting topics growing out of taxation and intimately connected with the vital social questions of the day, which Prof. Schanz discusses in his exceedingly valuable work.

—Eduard von Bauernfeld, who died a few weeks ago at Vienna in his eighty-ninth year, was probably the most gifted German writer of comedies this century has produced, and he had, indeed, but few superiors, in his special field, in all German literature. While not as prolific as the now almost forgotten Kotzebue, or the rather coarse-grained Benedix, Bauernfeld obtained, as a delineator of the *bourgeois* class, as well as of the higher strata, of German society, a popularity which in the case of his "Bürgerlich und Romantisch," "Leichtsinn aus Liebe," "Die Bekenntnisse," etc., remains undiminished after a lapse of more than fifty years. To be appreciated at their full value, his comedies must be seen at the Vienna Burgtheater, for which they were all written, and with which his associations through life were of the closest character. In this respect, as well as in their literary quality, his comedies resemble the society dramas of the modern French stage, which derive from the acting of the best Paris theatres a perfume quite unattainable elsewhere, and essential to their full dramatic success. Bauernfeld's plays, however, possess neither the depth and classic polish of Augier's best work, nor the sparkle and dramatic interest of Sardou's, nor the peculiar moral flavor of Feuillet's. The texture of his plots is frequently of the thinnest, but his characters are well sketched, and the dialogue ripples on in a steady flow of pleasant wit and sally, which contrasts delightfully with the labored humor of other German comedies, the overrated "Journalisten" of Gustav Freytag included.

— Bauernfeld's early career was that of so many Austrian poets, of Grillparzer, Anzengruber, and others who pursued the thorny path of literature while in the service of the Government. He became a *Beamter* in 1826, rose by slow promotion, found his excursions into dramatic fields frowned upon by his superiors, and finally left the Government service in disgust. The success of his plays rendered him financially independent, and he became a social favorite even in circles which looked askance at the caustic and irreverent epigrams which he launched from time to time in the Vienna papers against the foibles of society. He shared Grillparzer's pessimistic view of life and morose ways, but he was a *bon vivant* for all that, and shone in his day in the gay assemblies of the "Grüne Insel," that famous gathering of Vienna authors, artists, and wits, whose intellectual tourneys, rollicking tomfoolery, and gastronomic pleasures were never more keenly enjoyed than when Vienna's political horizon was darkest. Like Holtei, Bauernfeld was a most fascinating reader of his own works. He retained his mental vigor to the end, and on his death-bed dictated to his nurse, who had been his faithful companion for many years, the last scenes of a new play. Owing to her influence, Bauernfeld, who all his life had been a free-thinker, sent for a priest during his last weeks, and showed contrition for the error of his ways. Such, at least, was the gleeful announcement of the Ultramontane *Vaterland*. Although markedly devoted to the fair sex, Bauernfeld never married.

THE EDINBURGH ART CONGRESS.

Transactions of the National Association for the Advancement of Art and Its Application to Industry. Edinburgh Meeting, 1889. London: 23 Albemarle Street. 1890.

THE first English Art Congress met in Liverpool on December 3, 1888. The second met in Edinburgh on October 28, 1889. In the meantime had been developed a full-blown National Association on the British model, with "The Most Noble the Marquis of Lorne, K. T.," for President, with fourteen vice-presidents, most of them earls or right honorables, a central council, five sections with their presidents and "honorable secretaries," local committees, etc., etc. The "Transactions" of the Congress, nobly printed by the Edinburgh University Press, fill a tall octavo volume of nearly 500 close-packed pages. All these noblemen, and privy councillors, and secretaries of state are associated "for the advancement of art and its application to industry." Apparently it is not, as with us, a few artists only that consider art of some importance to the state! In England legislators, hereditary and elected, have come to look upon the "advancement of art" as something worth effort. And this for other reasons than the general ones that art is "to be ranked along with science and religion as regards beneficent tendency," as the Rev. Dr. Flint put it in his opening sermon; or, as another speaker said, that it is "not an exotic supplement to life, but *as inseparable from it as hygiene.*" First hear what the Marquis of Lorne says in his Presidential address:

"The main purpose of our meeting is to show how *beauty pays.* . . . We desire among a practical people to show that it is that people's interest to make their work good in form as in stability, to clothe with the best combination of colors or patterns . . . the sturdy handiwork in which they excel all others, so that grace and force shall go hand in hand, helping each other *to attract customers in the world's mart.*"

And again, speaking of art instruction in Germany:

"It is certain that the influence of this teaching upon all forms of industry has been very marked, and that articles are now manufactured *which pay* because they are good and captivating in design." "He who pushes ugly wares into the market," he continues, "will now find that his defter antagonist can beat him by aid of design, and the form that takes captive the eye of the purchaser, . . . and every object that exhibits some new form of taste will have its *money value.*"

Hear, also, another speaker, J. E. Hodgson, R.A., who said: "I have been informed that . . . the infusion of a little more art into our products *would increase the income of the country by fifty millions.*"

Money value—that is the thing that interests a "practical people" in art. It is "the great sums that go to France" for artistic manufactures—it is the possible £50,000,000 a year that might be added to England's wealth—that makes such an association seem worth while to them. It would seem that we in America, who for thirty years have taxed the importation of pictures, and resisted by a tariff the "infusion of art," might learn something still from the mother country.

If, however, we might learn from England something of the importance of art to a country, can we learn anything from this Association as to the methods best adapted for its advancement? Would the calling of an art congress in this country be a wise step? Does the meeting of such a congress tend to any practical end? We hardly think so. The field of such an association is too wide, its object too vague and undefined, its membership too large and too miscellaneous, for fruitful work. Such a congress loses itself, almost necessarily, in more or less unprofitable talk. When too much ground is to be covered it is covered thinly, and the good actually accomplished by the Edinburgh Art Congress of 1889 we take to have been little. One or two resolutions were passed which were practical in tendency, but we do not know whether their passage effected anything. For the rest, the notable feature of the 'Transactions' is, that nothing was transacted. There were *papers read.* One of the radical troubles with such meetings is, that it is difficult to get men of real standing to attend them. In the section of Painting at the Edinburgh Congress, only two of the papers read were by artists of anything approaching to international reputation, viz.: those by Mr. Watts and Mr. Briton Riviere. Another trouble is, that it is quite possible that a man of genius in the arts shall be unable to write three lines of good English, and shall be quite devoid of any ideas worth consideration for practical purposes. Nay, while all the cranks in the profession are not good artists, many good artists are hopeless cranks, and such an occasion for limitless talk as is given by an art congress brings out inevitably the whole army of cranks, artistic and inartistic. The result is a great mass of chaff in which diligent search may find a few grains of wheat. Few people have patience for the search, and the wheat is practically buried in the chaff-heap. The few papers in this great mass of paper that we are considering, that were ever worth the writing, are hardly likely to be read. If these few had been written for some magazine or journal, they would have reached a hundred-fold greater audience and might have done some good. Where they are they are lost.

Let us take up the proceedings of the Section of Painting seriatim as a fair specimen of the whole. After a rather meaningless and inconclusive address by the President, Mr. Briton Riviere, comes a confused and inarticulate growl on the "National Position of Art," which shows Mr. Watts in the light of the artist who either has nothing to say or who does not know how to say it. Then Mr. Hodgson, R.A., falls foul of South Kensington because it has "opened a career to men of limited means which in former days required a considerable outlay of time and money"—in other words, because it is making too many artists and crowding the profession—and he is followed by another R.A., Mr. Horsley, who is also afraid of too much competition, and who has a hobby of his own in the demoralizing effect of the study of the nude, and proceeds to trot it out and prance madly on it before his brother artists and so much of the world as can be induced to look on. After them Mr. William Hole, R.S.A., known in this country for his illustrations of 'The Master of Ballantrae,' repeats, in a very fair imitation of Whistler's style, Whistler's dictum that the trouble with modern art is that art is too popular; and Mr. W. F. Yeames, R.A., mourns over the effects of "Competitions and Exhibitions," which have ruined French art and bid fair to ruin English art also. Mr. W. D. M'Kay, R.S.A., regrets the departure from "Traditional Methods in Oil Painting," and the loss of the "brown tree"; while Mr. W. B. Richmond, A.R.A., who considers these methods "slovenly," is as sad as his *confrère* over the fact that young Englishmen will go to France to study painting, and laments, in a style worthy of Sir Boyle Roche, that "Impressionism is in the air, a solid fact based upon the quicksands of fashion"! His remedy is to open a school himself, where, we suppose, students will "be taught to grind colors and to sweep out the studio," as he says they should be. Finally, Mr. J. Lawton Wingate, R.S.A., joins direct issue with Hodgson and Horsley, and maintains that the trouble with British art schools is that they give too little rather than too much attention to what he calls "picture-making."

What earthly good can come of all this talk—chaff, chaff, nearly all of it? The other sections are nearly as bad. Some of the architects read technical papers which are well enough, and in the section of Applied Art there is a good paper on "The Decorative Uses of Enamel," and another on "The Picturesque Treatment of Interiors," which reads as if its author had something to say if only he could manage to say it. A third is a very elementary scientific treatise on "The Colours of Nature." But in the same section Mr. Morris and Mr. Crane mix up a kind of Ruskinian socialism with abuse of Japanese art and American magazines; and so it goes.

It is strange how many of these men are bitten by the modern madness of trying to accomplish everything by legislation. An architect wants a "court of taste," with power to prevent the erection of ugly buildings; a sculptor asks for a Minister of Fine Arts elected by "a majority of the votes of the artists of the United Kingdom"; while Mr. Horsley will be satisfied with nothing less than "the formation of a National Art Party in the House of Commons"! No, gentlemen, this is not the way! Listen to Prof. Patrick Geddes, whose paper contains more sense than all the others here printed together. He says:

"The advocates of national and municipal encouragement of art, particularly among artists, very often speak . . . as if all that were needed were the voting of abundant subsidies from the central and local governments for art teaching or for the employment of artists; that is to say, they are, in this matter at least—although, of course, frequently, like M. Jourdain, without knowing it—State Socialists of the most distinct sort."

He seems to have had a not unreasonable fear that this Congress would "leave nothing behind it but popped corks and sandwich papers," and gives this advice: "Let members of the association . . . *individually* try to get something done, it matters little at first where they begin."

That is the gist of the whole subject. Ministers of the fine arts and national art parties can do no good. Government can hinder the progress of art (by 30 per cent. taxes and the like), but can do little to help it. "Encouragement of art needs to be the outcome of a *general leavening* of the community; it cannot be called into existence by a single act of authority." Try individually to get something done; art congresses are not the way. If you are a painter, paint as well as you know how. If you are an architect, build as beautifully as you are able. If you are a trustee of a school, try to introduce sensible art-training in that school. If you are a millionaire, found a public museum. What is needed is the "general leavening of the community," and every little helps. Societies and associations to be useful must have definite aims, or they will lose themselves in talk. In America, for instance, an art students' league, or a national academy, or a free art league may do good; an art congress would do little but harm. But individual effort in the work next to the hand will do more than all.

GERMAN EXPLORATION IN ASIA MINOR.

Reisen in Kleinasien und Nordsyrien aufgeführt im Auftrage der kgl. preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften. Beschrieben von Karl Humann und Otto Puchstein. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer. 1890.

THIS book contains an account of three journeys and a description in detail of the monuments of Antiochos I. on Nimrud-Dagh in Commagene. The first journey was made in 1882 by Humann and Domaszewski on behalf of the Prussian Academy of Sciences, and is now described by Humann. Mommsen had already published his 'Res Gestae Divi Augusti,' etc., having based the book upon the faulty copies of the Monumentum Ancyranum et Apolloniense. This publication left much in an uncertain condition, and an accurate historian could not but wish to have an exact copy of the Monumentum Ancyranum, at least, upon which to base an account of the 'Res Gestae Augusti.' Years ago Mommsen caused Mordtmann to be sent by the Academy to Orcistus in order to obtain an accurate copy of the great edict of Orcistus.* And so now this journey was undertaken by Humann and Domaszewski primarily in order to obtain for him an exact copy of the Monumentum Ancyranum. Humann, the engineer who has gained fame for himself by the excavation of Pergamon, was charged with the leadership of the expedition. It was his duty to obtain a plaster cast of the Latin and Greek inscriptions of the monument, and to make an accurate survey of the country traversed by the party. It was the duty of Domaszewski, the professional epigraphist (whose expenses, by the way, were paid by the *Austrian* Government), to make a careful study of the stone with the best results obtained from the copies of former travellers constantly in his hands.

In addition to this, the chief object of the expedition, they were instructed by the authorities of the Berlin Museum to obtain plaster casts of the most characteristic of the rock-sculptures of Boghaz-kieui (Pteria), in northwestern Cappadocia. The usual route from Constantinople to Angora is by way of Ismid (Nicomedia), whereas our travellers chose Mudania-Brussa as the starting-point of their land journey. Those who have travelled much in the interior would scarcely risk a long journey in a Tartar or Circassian wagon, at least not if they valued their own comfort and freedom from care. The vast majority of the so-called roads in Turkey are mere bridle-paths, but still there are a number over which a four-wheeled vehicle may be forced without serious danger to limb or life. The Turks themselves divide their roads into four classes: (1.) The Vapor-yol (railroad); (2) the Araba-yol (wagon-road); (3) the Haïvan-yol (horse-road); (4) the Haïvan-gitmes-yol. The name of the fourth class we make to order. Haïvan gitmes (a horse doesn't go), or Haïvan gidemes (a horse can't go), say the Turks when speaking of a road over which no animals can travel save only men and goats. This is of course the lowest order of road, but is met with or heard of oftener than one might suppose. The Vapor-yol, though called a "railway," is merely what might have been a macadamized road one day had it not been left in a wholly incomplete condition. The common people are much in favor of railways, although they have not the faintest idea as to what constitutes a railway, so dense is their ignorance. Now, as is well known, there is a periodical change of provincial governors (Vali-pashalar), and each new governor illustrates the proverb about the new broom by an energetic, though short-lived, attempt at road-building. He has no money with which to build roads, but has full power to force the inhabitants of his Vilayet to work on his roads for nothing. The peasants object strongly to this forced labor, but the Vali-Pasha sweetens the bitter pill by representing to them that his road is really to be a *genuine* railway. The roads radiating from the provincial capital are begun and pushed forward with fiery energy, and they succeed in building a very good highway for about five miles out, but then the energy flags, the peasants see that they have been duped again, and work on the road ceases until a new governor comes along. This is the usual tale, though we have seen a few roads carried out for much longer distances. We have also seen very good natural roads rendered all but impassable for long stretches by these fitful and ill-starred improvements.

The Araba-yol is the great commercial artery, and is found only between important cities. Even it is often nearly impassable in places, and that, too, in the immediate neighborhood of large and rich towns. The traveller who does not yet understand the secret springs of the Turkish mind is apt to wonder why this or that rich town does not mend the wretched roads that lead to it in the interest of its own commerce. The real secret of the happy-go-lucky "methods" of the Turks is to be sought for in that boundless selfishness which dominates all classes and races in the Orient. The Oriental feels that to expend money in any way by which persons other than himself might possibly be benefited is the very height of stupidity and folly. In like manner the hidden reason why the Provincial Government does not succeed in its fitful attempts at road-making is because, as Humann points out, there is in strict reality no such thing as provincial *government*, but only a series of corrupt officials, who trade posts at irregular intervals, and regard their country as a cow which by good fortune they are allowed to milk—others may feed and care for the cow, but as for them, their business is merely to milk her.

We have been led into these remarks about Turkish roads because of our surprise that Humann should have chosen wagons as his means of transportation for the entire journey from Brussa via Sivri Hissar (Pessinus), Angora, Boghaz-kieui (Pteria), to Samsun on the Black Sea. Any one who has intersected Humann's route at numerous points would at the first blush be inclined to doubt the possibility of making the whole journey in wagons, and in reading the account of the journey we have been amused at the recital of ever-recurring woes caused by the wagons. Wagons were not chosen in order to carry gypsum to Angora, because Galatia is one vast bed of gypsum; nor were they chosen in order to transport the plaster negatives to the seaboard, because the plates of the Monumentum Ancyranum were sent on *packhorses* to Ismid—Constantinople. The case was different in regard to the sculptures of Boghaz-kieui, for it was thought necessary to take a supply of gypsum from Angora in the wagons, which were then used for conveying the negative plates to Samsun. The journey was carried to a successful issue in spite of the many lions in the way, thanks to Humann's constant watchfulness and to several drubbings artistically administered to recalcitrant drivers. We can readily understand that the whole party drew a long sigh of relief when their eyes caught sight of the sea from the top of the mountain southwest of Samsun; from Humann's description we see that they greeted the Euxine with much the same joy as did the Ten Thousand when they saw the same sea from a mountain-top further east.

At Samsun our travellers found a full-fledged steamer Trust, that charges more for the short haul from Samsun to Constantinople

* Mordtmann failed to find the stone. Ramsay and Sterrett found it in 1885, but it was covered with a thick incrustation deposited by water which had trickled over it for many years. It could not be copied at that time, but in 1886 Ramsay returned to Orcistus armed with instructions and the tools necessary for removing the incrustations, and secured an exact copy for Mommsen.

than for the long haul from Samsun to Trieste. Another trouble of an unexpected nature awaited the party at Samsun: the Custom-house officials were inclined to regard the negative plates as antiquities, and were disposed to confiscate them at Samsun, or at best to forward them to the authorities at Constantinople. But the experienced know how to set at ease the disturbed conscience of a Turkish official, and so it became possible to send the twenty-three boxes direct to Berlin without any overhauling by the greedy officials of Constantinople. At Constantinople the other twenty boxes containing the forms of the Monumentum Ancyranum were put aboard the ship along with their fellows from Boghaz-kieui. The boxes and all the negative plates reached Berlin in perfect condition, and later on the plates furnished satisfactory casts, so that now the world may study exact copies of the Monumentum Ancyranum and of the sculptures at Boghaz-kieui at its ease without even a suspicion of the great trouble, toil, and care it cost devoted men to put them in the Museum at Berlin.

Humann was no less successful in his route survey than he was in securing those valuable plaster casts for the Museum. He has given his beautiful route map to the world now for the first time, but, thanks to the abundant and never-failing kindness of Heinrich Kiepert, special maps embodying the geographical results of Humann's journey have been in the hands of persons deeply interested in Asia Minor for the past seven years. As we have already said, Humann was remarkably successful with this map, which he plotted on single sheets from day to day while en route. After he got home and had put the single sheets together in one continuous map, it was found that reckoning from Mudania on the Sea of Marmora, he could locate Samsun on the Black Sea within three kilometres of the point fixed by the survey for the British Admiralty Chart. This insignificant error was distributed.

Humann's account of his journey covers ninety-four pages of the present volume, whose size is characterized by the publishers as "high quarto." The contents are varied. The account is perhaps most valuable from a geographical and topographical point of view. A pleasing feature is the translation of many names of villages, mountains, and rivers into German. We only wish that this had been done consistently, since Humann, by reason of his life-long work among the Turks, has acquired a thorough knowledge of the language. Turkish geographical names are generally appropriate from the Turkish point of view, and describe a character of the landscape or designate an event in Turkish history. Sometimes the natives themselves have forgotten the origin of the name, and in that case the travelling archæologist, if he be learned in Turkish history, may enlighten them, and save from utter oblivion some important fact of history. An interesting example of this is the village name Sultan-önü. The name means "before the Sultan," that is, the Sultan's bulwark, or Sultan's *march* or border, and hence the Sultan's margravate. Now, in the year 1225 Ertoghrul, the chieftain of the hordes of nomadic shepherds that had swooped down on Asia Minor from their ancestral homes in Turkistan, gained a decisive victory over the Byzantines in a battle fought near Dorylæum (now Eski-Shehir). In return for this victory gained, Aladdin made Ertoghrul the Margrave, that is, the defender of this frontier against the Byzantines. Ertoghrul soon extended his fief up to the very walls of Brussa, while his son Osman increased the domain inherited from his father to such an extent that Aladdin, feeling his own end near, sent the insignia of the Caliphate to the victorious son of Margrave Ertoghrul. Osman became Caliph and Sultan, and proved himself so great a man that the whole nation assumed his name, and down to the present day know themselves solely as Osmanli (plur. Osmanlilar), the word from which comes our Ottoman. Thus the village Sultan-önü is the very cradle of the Turkish empire, and yet probably not a Turk of them all knows the important fact.

When one sees the bald, naked, inhospitable wastes of Galatia, the question comes unsummoned to one's mind: Can it be possible that those Gauls, after conquering Asia Minor, should deliberately choose for their own portion the most inhospitable part of it? Or, rather, must we not assume that they, being mere mercenary troops, were *assigned* to those inhospitable quarters by their masters, and were not their wars in reality efforts to break loose from this bondage and to conquer for themselves better homes? These questions are weighty, and historians should answer them fully.

What became of those old Gauls of Galatia anyway? They have been called the Frenchmen of Asia Minor; one French traveller says that they are there yet, having merely changed their language and their religion; and he avers that among the present Mohammedan inhabitants of Galatia, he saw the hair and eyes of Frenchmen. Our traveller had good eyes and some fancy into the bargain. Humann has a different theory in regard to them, a theory well worth calling to the notice of the learned world. The Kizilbash (plur. Kizilbashlar=Red Heads) is a religious sect scattered here and there throughout the empire. Humann found them in unusual numbers on his journey from Boghaz-kieui to Samsun. The term was originally applied to the heterodox Persians, and was afterwards transferred to the people of whom we are speaking, who call themselves "Alevi." They claim to be Mohammedans, and deny the allegation of Redheadism in toto. But, despite their denial, the Kizilbash villages are well known to the Turks, who pursue them with intense hatred and untold detestation. The Turks everywhere will tell you that the Kizilbash men and women come together at night into a secret chamber, extinguish the lights, and then celebrate nameless orgies. Perrot does not believe this tale, but still quotes the words used by his cavass in regard to the nocturnal meetings. These people mourn for their dead, a thing the Mohammedans must not do; they adorn the coffin with flowers, thus reminding one of Christian customs; they give wine to a newly married couple, a thing forbidden to the Turks. All these are customs which they could have only from Christians, and where did they get them if they are not themselves the descendants of the people whom the invading Turks found inhabiting the land? Their history would be somewhat as follows: In the hour of their need and their fear, they embraced Islam, dropping it when the first danger was passed. As time went on, they forgot their Christianity also, retaining only certain formal observances of the Christians. The assemblages of the Kizilbashlar take place always on a Thursday evening, when a pot of wine makes the round of all present. Now, Thursday evening is sacred to the Eucharist, and it is not impossible that this drinking of wine in solemn assembly may be a remembrance of the Lord's Supper.

The Kizilbashlar have a well-ordered family life and many children, which latter, at all events, cannot be said of the Turks. In addition to all this, their homes are clean and their fields are well tilled, characteristics which point to a race different from the Turks. It is certain, then, that they have been in the country longer than the Turks have; and, in short, are not these despised Kizilbash the descendants of the ancient Christianized Galatians? It would be interesting indeed to find that they are in reality Christians, fallen, degraded Christians, but still Christians. If so, then there opens up a new field for the activity of the American missionaries who are stationed all over Turkey. At any rate, we should like to call the attention of our missionaries to the Kizilbash, with the suggestion that they study this strange people and tell the world something more about them. Their very name *Alevi* may be a corruption of *Galati*.

One of the most interesting sites visited by Humann is Pessinus, the home of Cybele, the great mother of the gods, whose worship was introduced into Rome with much pomp and circumstance during the second Punic war. Texier visited the site in 1839 and came home with a grand yarn about temples and porticoes existing there in abundance. Hamilton, who visited Pessinus shortly after Texier, did not actually deny Texier's florid account, but made the following confession: "Such is their state of devastation that they are more interesting to the geographer than to the antiquary." Scholars therefore looked, and were justified in looking, to Pessinus as the site of important and instructive ruins. But when in 1861 Perrot and Guillaume visited Pessinus, great was their amazement and disappointment to find that Texier's plan of the city was wholly imaginary, and Perrot exposes Texier's untrustworthiness and calls his plan "a genuine archæological romance." Texier was guilty of more than one. Moreover, as a sensationalist, he even craved such notoriety as is gained by writing his name in public places. One of the royal tombs in the city of Midas was discovered by Texier. A narrow strip of trees conceals the tomb from view from the road, and hence its existence was not suspected until Texier found it, for which due credit should be given him. But we well remember our disgust when, as we were breaking through the undergrowth, eager to stand before the royal tomb, the first thing to meet our gaze was TEXIER in letters a foot high. It is no mere ephemeral scratch, either, but a lasting disfigurement of the tomb. The work was done deliberately and skilfully with the help of an iron tool, so that a thousand years from now the world will know that Texier was the first European to lay eyes on this tomb.

In the year 190 B. C., the Roman Consul Manlius, coming with his army from Synnada, threw a bridge, says Livy, over the Sangarius in the neighborhood of Pessinus, whose delegates and priests of Cybele called upon him at the bridge. The next day the army of Manlius encamped at Gordium, the city that had become proverbial from a certain feat of Alexander the Great. The site of Gordium has always puzzled geographers, and puzzles them still. Several questions must be answered before we can even begin to hunt for it: (1.) Did Manlius take his army across the Sangarius bridge and then march one day's journey on the left bank of the river to Gordium? Or (2) after receiving the submission of Pessinus, through her delegates and priests, did he recross the bridge and march on one day's journey on the right bank of the river to Gordium? (3.) Did he go up or down the river? (4.) In speaking of the Sangarius, which fork does

Livy have in mind? Humann thinks that the left fork must be meant, since otherwise Livy could not say that the bridge was in the neighborhood of Pessinus; he furthermore believes that Manlius crossed the bridge and marched down its left bank to Gordium. Now, there is no ancient site within a day's journey in this direction. But near Tchakmak, Humann found ruins of uncertain age, and so, with much doubt and hesitation, he suggests them as the site of Gordium. Ramsay and Sterrett visited all this region two years after Humann, and spent fully a week in a continuous search for Gordium, but failed to find any trace of the city below Pessinus. Accordingly they were inclined to suspect that Gordium lay somewhere west of Pessinus, and not south or east. But the site is, in our opinion, still to be found.

The world knows well what relics of antiquity are still to be seen at Angora, Boghaz-kieui, and Euyuk, but the plates which accompany the volume before us give some new illustrations of the rock-sculptures of the two latter places. In gazing upon those sculptures we naturally ask, Who chiselled them, who built the palaces? They have been called Hittites, Syro-Cappadocians, Anatolians. But their name is forgotten, their very nationality is not known, and yet they are immortal, those men who carved on the rocks of Boghaz-kieui the praises of kings and of gods no less mortal than themselves, for the kings and their gods are gone, while the spirit of the people who could produce those sculptures in the infancy of the human race lives on for ever.

If we have dwelt at length upon some matters suggested by Humann's account of his journey through Asia Minor, we can dismiss Puchstein's account of the first journey to Nimrud-Dagh in a few words. Puchstein, while on a "Studienreise" to Alexandria, was commissioned by the Prussian Academy of Sciences to call upon the engineer Charles Sester and get from him details concerning the monument reported by him to be on the top of Nimrud-Dagh, a mountain on the right bank of the upper Euphrates, near the frontier of Melitene and Commagene. Thereupon he was requested by the Academy to visit Nimrud-Dagh in company with Sester, and report results to that body. Puchstein's preliminary report on the journey and on the important and surprising ruins of Nimrud-Dagh, was published by the Academy in 1883, and the present account is merely a transcription of his meagre day-book, which contains matter valuable for professional geographers, but scarcely readable by others. Puchstein did not improve, as he should have done, his opportunities for adding to our knowledge of the geography of the country traversed by him, but he confesses this himself with modesty and humility, and, indeed, agreed to publish his day-book only when urged thereto by H. Kiepert. We forgive his shortcomings all the more willingly because of his description of the monuments on Nimrud-Dagh. The valuable result of Puchstein's first journey is the fact that it led to a second with Humann as a travelling companion. But we have already overstepped the limits allotted to us, and can give no summary of Puchstein's masterful account of the tumulus of Antiochos I. of Commagene on Nimrud-Dagh.

THE ROUSSEAU REVIVAL.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau. Leben, Geistesentwickelung und Hauptwerke. Von Richard Mahrenholtz. Leipzig: Gebhardt & Wilisch; New York: Westermann. 8vo, pp. 176.

J.-J. Rousseau jugé par les Français d'aujourd'hui. Paris: Perrin & Cie.; New York: Christern. 12mo, pp. 575.

A DOZEN years have elapsed since the centenary of the deaths of Voltaire and Rousseau, when the friends and foes of both swarmed into print with tracts and permanent works which attested the vitality of these great forces of the eighteenth century. Meanwhile, in 1883, has been held the Rousseau exhibition in Paris, under the initiative of M. John Grand-Carteret, editor of the second work recorded above; in 1886 a bust of the Genevan surmounting a fountain was set up at Asnières; in 1889 a full-length standing statue was erected at Paris in the Place du Panthéon, with solemn dedicatory services in the temple from which his remains had been ejected by the post-Revolutionary reaction. The Rousseau bibliography of the decade 1879–1889, not too minutely compiled, fills ten pages of M. Grand-Carteret's book, which owes its inception to a corresponding Genevan work of 1878, 'Rousseau jugé par les Genevois d'aujourd'hui,' and to the centenary of the French Revolution, which Rousseau precipitated, and, through his misguided disciples, directed.

We owe to the same anniversary Dr. Mahrenholtz's masterly essay, which, even in passing through the press, has been overtaken by publications that throw fresh light on the particulars of Rousseau's life, and call for petty corrections. If this author does not attempt to focus the contemporary German judgment of Rousseau, he aims to make a true character delineation in broad strokes, to hold the balance even between worshippers and detractors, and to summarize the most recent researches. His treatment is, therefore, episodical, but orderly as regards time, and sufficiently detailed. The several abodes of the wanderer and his leading works furnish separate sections, and in the case of the writings great care is taken to point out the sources to which they are traceable, and their several effects on contemporaries and on posterity. At the end Rousseau's historical significance is considered, and an appendix gives much convenient chronological and bibliographical information.

The first question which arises, as to the authority of the 'Confessions,' Mahrenholtz answers by dividing them into two parts: in the earlier the autobiographical intention dominates, and had this been persevered in, we might have had a work surpassing Goethe's 'Dichtung und Wahrheit'; the later is consciously apologetic and defensive. In the one, Rousseau's reliance was mainly upon his memory, and his narrative is open to rectifications which have not as yet impugned his veracity. In the other, the documents were at hand and were used, sometimes verbatim. Here there is naturally a general accuracy as to events, but the author's views of individuals are tinged with misconception and exaggeration. As regards the famous difference with Mme. d'Épinay, Mahrenholtz, in default of disinterested evidence, suspends judgment on the capital point of the cause of the Marchioness's journey to Geneva; but he so far discredits Grimm as to declare that he alone of the philosophers can safely be judged from his portrait in the 'Confessions.' Readers of M. Grand-Carteret's volume will learn that it is the present conviction of Frenchmen that Grimm was the cause of Mme. d'Épinay's journey, and that she suffered a miscarriage by the way. Moreover, the editor says that any one can satisfy himself from the manuscript at the Archives that Mme. d'Épinay's memoirs often undergo a change of hand when Rousseau is in question; that pages have been cut out and replaced for the same reason.

The breach with the philosophers is dispassionately treated by Mahrenholtz, with sympathy for Diderot and D'Alembert, with justice to Voltaire, whose double-dealing and active hostility nevertheless are not extenuated. The more or less formal parallel with Voltaire is weighty, and of course runs through the work as it must in any estimate of Rousseau. The absolute consistency between the latter's private correspondence and his public utterances, while the reverse was true of Voltaire, is duly pointed out; and we may be sure that the Genevan's essential truthfulness has insured the steady growth of respect for his character, noticeable in the clerical counter-demonstrations of 1878 being mainly directed against the memory of Voltaire. The philosopher of Ferney, it is further remarked, was an aristocratic innovator, addressing himself to the élite, caring nothing for the populace, and believing in the reform of the establishment from above. Rousseau was his exact opposite in these respects—another ground for the prolongation of posterity's affection for him. Voltaire, Diderot, and D'Alembert, again, judged solely as Frenchmen, and were never quite emancipated from that Jesuit teaching which it was the mission of the 'Émile' to abolish. Rousseau was the one cosmopolite among the philosophers, yet truly patriotic, if in the sequel a man without a country. Voltaire, finally, plied his pen to the very last, while Rousseau's epoch-making activity was compressed into the period 1761–1765, but "to the Genevan more than to Voltaire belonged the future." Together their lives went out, their ashes were honored and dishonored. Houdon made the statues of both. Rousseau lived to contribute to the monument of the rival to whose genius, in his bitterest feeling of just or mistaken resentment, he never failed to do homage; and to defend Diderot against aspersion. No doubt he could have been as magnanimous towards Hume, whose course, in their lamentable quarrel, Mahrenholtz finds relatively blameless.

Of the 'Contrat Social' and its working on Robespierre and the Convention, Mahrenholtz observes that it produced an opposite effect from that which was intended. "Rousseau wished to protect the people from the arbitrariness of Church and State, while the Constitution of 1793, based upon his teachings, gave the upper hand to the meanest of all arbitrary despotisms—that of the mob." But the proper correction is applied in the observation that only Rousseau's high ideals could have led up to practical issues, and that in the cases where he was called in as a law-maker (by the Poles and the Corsicans) he evinced sound political insight. There might, in the same connection, have been cited the passages in Rousseau's correspondence where he smiles at those who seek to educate their children on the model of Émile. "Rousseau," says our German critic, "has been too exclusively regarded as an idealist and fantast; but however much the peculiarity and privacy (*Abgeschlossenheit*) of his thought led him into far-reaching plans for the future too little consonant with the tendency of his time, he had sharply and truly separated the practical from the purely theoretical." It is, however, the common fate of the idealist to be looked back upon as insane by those who see only that his speculations have formally come to naught, while they profit ungratefully by the larger liberty which he wrought for them by leavening the thought of the age. In Rousseau's case, it is true, his passion for seclusion, his suspicion of benefactors as well as of enemies, his ever-present sense of persecution seemed to bespeak a disordered mind.

But Mahrenholtz refuses to stamp as insanity a mania which grew out of very substantial facts in Rousseau's experience at the hands of Church and State, of Jesuits and Calvinists, and even of the philosophers.

We touch this question again when we ask whether Rousseau's end was suicidal. The evidence on this point is very satisfactorily discussed by one of M. Grand-Carteret's co-laborers, Dr. J. Roussel, who reaches the negative conclusion which is now the accepted one. Dr. Roussel considers Rousseau's general pathologic condition, and expresses the opinion of Mahrenholtz exactly when he says, "Quoique Rousseau n'ait nullement été fou, quoique la persécution n'ait pas été chez lui un pur délire imaginatif, puisqu'il a eu à lutter contre des ennemis très réels," etc. But he admits "un cerveau mal équilibré," and makes Rousseau a prey to hereditary hallucinations, and even goes so far as to theorize that the author of 'Émile' imagined children which he never begot and was physically incapable of begetting, and consequently never put in a foundling asylum—with the plausible alternative that there *were* children whom Thérèse persuaded him to believe his own. In the former case Rousseau's humanity is saved and his own account in the 'Confessions' discredited; in the latter, he did the unnatural deed, but at the expense of other people's offspring.

M. Grand-Carteret opens his "symposium" with a defence of Rousseau against his calumniators, written in a tone so warm as to imply a very strong and persistent antipathy. In fact, several well-known writers declined to contribute to the present enterprise, though they were not committed to mere eulogy. Maria Deraismes more sensibly improves the opportunity to express her reprobation of Rousseau for his narrow views of woman, apropos of the education of girls. There is a rather ineffectual attempt, by Hippolyte Buffenoir, to set forth the difference in the feelings of women towards Rousseau in his own and in our century: the most pertinent remark is that women nowadays do not form their judgment of him by reading his works. But the same thing must certainly be said of men, ignorant (rather than forgetful) what sources of intellectual stimulus and delight exist in the works of the most eloquent writer of modern times, apart from his political speculations or his voluntary revelations of his own weaknesses and vices. His dominating musical gift, candidly treated in one of the best chapters of M. Grand-Carteret's volume by M. Arthur Pougin, gives not only his Musical Dictionary to browse in, but the immortal Letter on French Music. His passion for pedestrianism and herborising introduces us to endless excursions in unmatched description of natural scenery and outdoor life. His 'Émile' is still the *point de repère* for every student of education. His letters are a mine of suggestion as well as models of style. Through all his works, the 'Confessions' not excepted, there runs the accent of sincerity. In the most offensive portions we acquit him of any corrupting purpose, as we cannot the realists of the present day. The more thorough one's familiarity with his works, the more impossible it appears to us to disagree with Mr. Lowell's conclusions that "in nearly all he wrote his leading object was the good of his kind," and that "the inmost core of his being was religious. Had he remained in the Catholic Church, he might have been a saint. Had he come earlier, he might have founded an order."

Be this as it may, the two works we have bracketed in this review are well calculated to revive an interest in the most interesting of the forerunners of the triumph of democracy; and, by their bibliographical apparatus, to direct the student to the proper sources.

Elements of Logic as a Science of Propositions. By E. E. Constance Jones, Lecturer in Moral Sciences, Girton College. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. 1890. Pp. 208.

Prof. Schroeder, in the preface to his important work on 'Die Algebra der Logik,' the first volume of which has recently appeared, says that the chief advance which has been made in late years in exact Logic is due to the labors of the American, Charles S. Peirce, and his school. The inmost secret of this advance, the luminous guiding principle to which it is due, is the fact that attention is concentrated upon thought-relations, and not upon the *words* in which they may happen to be expressed. The meaning of this may be made clear by an example. The older logicians said that in every proposition the copula is *is* (or *are*), and that it can be nothing else. The newer school looks upon this series of affirmations—

All men are mortal,
Every man is mortal,
Any man is mortal,
Being a man implies being mortal,
If any one is a man, he is mortal,

That one is a man implies that he is mortal—as indicative one and all of the same state of things, as expressive one and all of the same kind of relation, and hence as properly subject one and all to exactly the same formal treatment. In other words, it is concerned, to use again the language of Prof. Schroeder, with the *canon* of logical thought, and not with an analysis of the psychological processes of actual thinking. The above unification alone, for instance, makes it possible to do away with the distinction between categorical and hypothetical propositions, and also with the distinction between the application and the signification (or extent and intent) of words; in any proposition the terms may be taken in either sense at pleasure without necessitating the slightest change in the *formal* method of procedure.

The last four of the above affirmations do not contain any very strong implication that there are any such things as men; hence, for the sake of unity, it is desirable to assume that the statement "All *a* is *b*" may still be taken as true when it is not known whether there are any *a*'s or not. When it is said that there may not be any *a*'s, it is not meant that the term *a* is logically inconceivable, but that it is perhaps not contained in an (understood) limited field of thought (what De Morgan has called the universe of discourse). How large the field of thought is at any moment may be gathered from the application which we attribute to our negative terms; if, in denying that a thing is a virtue, we intend to call it a vice, then our universe is moral qualities; if it may perhaps be an intuition, then our universe is probably all mental qualities; if we take into account the possibility of its being a tadpole or a musical note, then our universe probably is the whole real world.

The connected questions of the existence of terms and of a limited universe are hence intimately connected with a marked simplification of logical procedure, and are therefore of more importance than it would seem at first sight. Recent English writers on logic are in the habit of discussing them from a narrower point of view; and in the handsome volume which Miss Constance Jones has just given to the logical world she does not rise above this narrow point of view. She says, for instance, on the question of existence: It seems to me, in making the assertion, "All albinos have pink eyes," not only that one would not be naturally conscious of a doubt as to there being any albinos living at the present moment, but also that the presence of the doubt in the mind is not even apparent on reflection. This sentence betrays a twofold misapprehension of the position of her opponents on the part of Miss Jones. In the first place, it does not follow, from saying that universal propositions do not, by their form, *necessarily* imply the existence of the subject, that one must be in actual doubt of its existence in every particular case. In the second place, Miss Jones forgets that her opponents have a ready means of expressing the fact when it is known that the subject exists—they have merely to say that it exists. Their position is simply this: They ask that when they say, *e. g.*, "Who breaks, pays; and there are some who break," they shall not be considered to have said over again in the second part of the sentence what they had already said once in the first; and they ask this for the weighty reason, among others, that it enables them to assimilate the treatment of compound propositions to that of simple ones.

Miss Jones has very acute reasoning powers, a great deal of boldness and originality, and untiring patience in tracking out minute distinctions in terms and in propositions. It is a pity that she has not taken a less mechanical, a larger and more common-sense, view of a number of debatable questions. She makes, for instance, too much of the distinction between adjectives and nouns. All names are abstractions. The difference between adjectives and nouns, as far as logic is concerned, is simply that adjectives are more abstract than nouns, and that on account of their having hardly any attributes predicable of them, they have little occasion to stand as subjects of propositions. Miss Jones is in error in saying that Mill distinguishes between attributes and subjects of attributes. Mill says plainly that Logic, at least, has no concern to postulate any substratum for attributes to be attached to; that, for Logic, attributes are not only all we know, but all we need to know. It is true that language is not sufficiently elastic to enable him always to speak strictly in the terms of this theory; but when he uses the word *thing*, he means nothing different from a congeries of attributes. Substance-names are constantly being coined out of adjectives when demand arises; as in "The outs were in ill-humor," "Blue and green are cold colors."

Nor does Miss Jones make out a good case against Mill's view of the nature of induction. The difficulties which she feels have been well set forth and met by Venn in his recent book on 'Empirical Logic.' They are difficulties of a kind not altogether dissimilar to that of the old Greek quibble—that a thing cannot move where it is, and cannot move where it is not, and hence that it cannot move at all.

Although Miss Jones seems to us not to have made her case good in a great many of the questions which she discusses, her book is nevertheless a noteworthy contribution to Deductive Logic.

The French Revolution. By Justin H. McCarthy, M.P. Vol. I. Harper & Bros.

Mr. McCarthy can hardly be said to have made the French Revolution more intelligible, but he has produced an entertaining book. Perhaps he had no further ambition; his rather airy comments upon the impossibility

of assigning definite causes for such a phenomenon indicate that he has not aspired to the study of the philosophy of history. Nor can we blame him for this, since the epoch of which he writes has been so thoroughly studied that no one could expect to produce another proper history of it without a lifetime of preparatory labor, while its picturesque aspects are inexhaustible. For a littérateur there could be no hesitation in making choice of methods, were it not for such mighty predecessors as Taine and Carlyle. Taine, to be sure, may be regarded as not writing for English readers; but Carlyle! —the colors of his lurid picture are too strong, one would suppose, for any later artist willingly to place his canvas within the range of their deadening influence.

But Mr. McCarthy is so far from dreading this comparison that he positively invites it. His very captions would be thought by one who had read Carlyle to be borrowed from him. We have chapters entitled "The Diamond Necklace," "Count Cagliostro," "Sowing the Wind," "Brienne is Blown Out," "States-General at Last," "The Play Begins," "The Man from Arras," "Slow and Sure," "On and On," "Drifting," and others of like style, of which the suggestion can have come from but one quarter. Nor is there any lack of curiously close resemblances in the descriptions and characterizations, nor even in the construction of sentences. Conjunctions and articles are omitted, words and phrases are repeated, epithets are accumulated, absolute constructions abound, incessant resort is had to the historical present and to the prophetical future, and the author apostrophizes the persons and places and times and seasons and events with which he has to do after a fashion that will be for ever associated with Carlyle. This sort of thing is all very well for once: we must have variety in literary styles. But it is a mistake to regard such mannerisms as of the essence of the writer and not as mere accidents. Carlyle was a great man, and what he said and thought was of enough consequence to make his spluttering and fuming and raving and cursing relatively unimportant. Mr. McCarthy is an extremely facile writer. He knows the tricks of the trade thoroughly, and can do them so cleverly that the audience must be quick to catch him. But he is not a great man, and the serious manner in which he occasionally pronounces judgment upon historical events and causes, is not impressive, but amusing. He reminds one of the old comparison of the blue-bottle fly brushing his wings upon the pulpit Bible.

Yet it would be a mistake to ignore the usefulness of such books as these. Coleridge spoke of history that was not only popularized but plebificated, and although it would be too harsh to apply his remark to Mr. McCarthy's book, yet it is clear that if knowledge is to be communicated to the general, it must be put in shape to be assimilated. Carlyle is too strong for most stomachs; but Carlyle-and-water might be not too much for the tenderest infant. The French Revolution was a very interesting episode, and if people want to read about it, there is no reason why they should not get all the entertainment out of their reading that is possible. Mr. McCarthy will whisk them along with the slightest of effort on their part, and they need not be really disquieted by the solemn head-shakings with which he records many trifling occurrences. These events were, after all, not so potent as his mysterious winks and nudges would suggest, and he himself, if one watches him closely, will be seen to be quite cool about them.

It is said that easy writing makes hard reading, but it is not true of this book. It is very easy reading, and a great deal of it is good enough reading for any one, while the method of construction is of the simplest order. Prepare a great number of personal sketches spiced with as many allusions as possible, mingle them with a fair allowance of descriptions of places and public gatherings, unite the whole with a thread of narrative, and you have a history. We do not say that it is easy to get the knack of this, but, after the knack is gained, history can be manufactured in any quantity that the market will absorb. Nor would we deny that Mr. McCarthy has read most industriously in preparation for his work. Judging by his allusions, his industry has been enormous. Only let the reader bear in mind that pleasure rather than profit is to be derived from this book, and he may skim delightfully along through the last century in France in an atmosphere of piquant gossip, seeing much of what was seen and hearing what was heard by the people who lived then, and feeling at the end, like them, that this world is full of inexplicable vicissitudes. Perhaps the second volume may show more substantial qualities than this one.

La Confédération Suisse, par Sir F. O. Adams et C. D. Cunningham. Édition française avec notes et additions par H. G. Loumeyer. Basle: H. Georg. 8vo, pp. 319.

The original edition of this book received notice in our columns at the time of its appearance in 1889. It may suffice, therefore, to say here that the translation is practically identical with the English text, but contains substantial additions in the form of footnotes. A commendatory preface by a member of the Federal Cabinet serves as a new introduction. The editor has really bettered the original, and the frequent notes bearing the initials "H. L." show excellent understanding of the subject. An instance of improvement may be seen in the chapter on the Referendum. The authors had given a list of the Federal laws which had been submitted to popular vote, with the results for and against. Now a proper study of the Veto is impossible without taking into consideration the number of measures which have been allowed to go into effect without demanding a popular vote. If we were to judge by the number of laws rejected out of the total submitted, it would seem as though the plébiscite were chiefly a machine for the baffling of legislators; but when we observe that, out of the whole number enacted, the measures rejected by the people are a small minority, and that frequently a vetoed law is adopted at a future and less complicated juncture, the tendency of the institution appears in a far different light. An admirable statement of the attitude of the Government towards Socialists and Anarchists, and the international position and policy of Switzerland in respect to these and other questions, is quoted from a late pamphlet by Prof. Hilty of Bern.

Reflections on the Motive Power of Heat. From the French of N. L. S. Carnot. Edited by R. H. Thurston. John Wiley & Sons. 12mo. 1890.

This work consists of a translation of Sadi Carnot's celebrated paper, a notice of his work by the editor, a life of Carnot by his brother Henri, an account of Carnot's theory by Sir Wm. Thomson, and an Appendix containing some extracts from his hitherto unpublished writings. The original memoir is now familiar to all scientific men. It remained long unnoticed, and may be said to have been discovered by Sir Wm. Thomson, who remodelled it in accordance with the fundamental conception of the equivalence of heat and work, which does not appear in Carnot's memoir, but which is clearly expressed in manuscript notes published recently by his brother. These notes form perhaps the most interesting part of the whole book. They show clearly enough the gradual development in Carnot's mind of clearer ideas of the nature of heat, in part at least from the study of the work of Count Rumford on the production of heat by friction. They contain perhaps the first perfectly clear statement of the equivalence of heat and work and of their mutual convertibility. The life of Carnot by his brother, and many extracts from notes not scientific in their character, bring out a picture of an interesting personality; and while we do not agree with Prof. Thurston in his estimate of the author as perhaps the greatest genius whom this century has produced, we must assign to him a position among those who have done most for the science of heat, and who have achieved an imperishable fame. The work before us brings together much valuable material in an accessible form for reference, and is an acceptable contribution to the early history of thermo-dynamics.

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Lea, H. C. Chapters from the Religious History of Spain connected with the Inquisition. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. & Co. $2.50.
Lowell, J. R. Literary Essays. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Macfarlane, J. American Geological Railway Guide. 2d ed. D. Appleton & Co.
McClurg, M. Virginia. Seven Sonnets of Sculpture. Boston: The Sonic Photograph Co.
Ostwald, Prof. W. Outlines of General Chemistry. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Pollard, A. W. English Miracle Plays, Moralities and Interludes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 25, 1890.

The Week.

SPEAKER REED has concluded to let the reciprocity provision go through, and the House conferees on the Tariff Bill agreed to it on Thursday. When talking with his friends, Mr. Reed makes no effort to conceal his contempt for this proposition to trade with a lot of "Dagoes," as he calls them; but, as a number of Republican State conventions in the West have endorsed the idea, he concludes that it is best to humor the advocates of the policy. The Aldrich amendment is therefore to play the part of "a good enough Morgan until after election" next November, as it cannot become operative in any contingency until July, 1891, and it is not expected by the party managers that the President will ever make any attempt to exercise the unconstitutional power with which it professes to invest him.

Mr. Blaine has again, as so often before in his career, fallen into an error as to a matter of fact. "Finally," he says, in his latest letter about reciprocity, "there is one fact that should have great weight, especially with protectionists. Every free-trader in the Senate voted against the reciprocity provision." This is what comes of a man's trying to comment upon legislation at Washington while he is down at Bar Harbor in Maine, cut off from access to the *Congressional Record*, and dependent upon the incomplete and consequently often misleading reports published in such local sheets as Boutelle's *Whig and Courier*. The scanty abstract of proceedings printed in the Bangor paper showed that every Democrat in the Senate (which is what is presumptively meant by Mr. Blaine's expression "every free-trader in the Senate") voted with such Republicans as Senator Evarts of New York and Senator Edmunds of Vermont against the Aldrich amendment, on the ground of its obvious and gross unconstitutionality. But if Mr. Blaine had had the *Congressional Record* sent to him during his vacation—which, of course, is not to be expected of a shrewd pleasure-seeker—he would have learned from the issue for September 10 (page 10,782) that every Democrat, or, as he would say, "every free-trader," in the Senate voted in favor of this thorough-going reciprocity amendment introduced by Mr. Gray of Delaware:

"And the President of the United States is hereby directed, without further legislation, to declare the ports of the United States free and open to all the products of any country of the American hemisphere upon which no export duties are imposed, whenever and so long as the Government of such country shall admit to the ports of such country free of all national, provincial (State), municipal, and other taxes, flour, corn-meal, and other breadstuffs, preserved meats, fish, vegetables and fruits, cotton-seed oil, rice, and other provisions, including all articles of food, lumber, furniture, and all other articles of wood, agricultural implements and machinery, mining and mechanical machinery, vessels or boats of iron, steel, or wood, structural steel and iron, steel rails, locomotives, railway cars and supplies, street-cars, refined petroleum, or such other products of the United States as may be agreed upon."

If Mr. Blaine had received the *Congressional Record* of September 10, and seen this amendment, he would have recognized at a glance that it was precisely the same amendment which his next friend, Mr. Eugene Hale, as his personal representative in the Senate, introduced on the 19th of June, to carry out the Secretary's policy of reciprocity, as outlined in his letter to the President which was sent to Congress on that day.

A decision rendered by the New York Court of Appeals in 1853 is of interest now because it involved the same question of the delegation of power by a legislative body which is at issue in the Senate's reciprocity amendment to the Tariff Bill. The Legislature had passed an act in the spring of 1849 establishing free schools throughout the State, but the law was only to be valid in case a majority of the voters should approve it by ballot the following November. The constitutionality of this procedure was brought before the Court of Appeals in 1853, and it held that the act was invalid, on the ground that the Legislature could not thus divest itself of the responsibility for legislation. The Court conceded that the Legislature might pass a valid statute which should take effect only upon the happening of some future event, but held that "the event or change of circumstances on which a law may be made to take effect must be such as, in the judgment of the Legislature, affects the question of the expediency of the law. They appeal to no other man or men to judge for them in relation to its present or future expediency." The Court held that the Legislature had "no more authority to refer such a question to the whole people than to an individual," and, in "further illustration" of its position, said:

"Let us suppose that the act of 1849 had directed the Attorney-General, or the Archbishop of the Catholic Church, or the Common Council of the city of New York to certify, on the next general election day, whether in his or their opinion that act ought to become a law; and had further provided that the act should or should not take effect, according to such certificate: it cannot be pretended that the statute would have become operative upon the making of the certificate in its favor. The Constitution does not authorize the power of legislation to be so delegated."

The Constitution of the United States no more authorizes Congress to delegate the power of legislation to the President than does the Constitution of this State authorize the Legislature to delegate such power to the Governor, the Attorney-General, or any other man. The reciprocity amendment to the Tariff Bill proposes to give the President the power of imposing or removing taxes upon sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, not upon the happening of an event like the imposition of certain duties upon our agricultural products by a foreign country, but "whenever and so often as the President shall be satisfied" that the duties imposed by such foreign country are such as (not Congress, but) "he may deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable." There can be no reasonable doubt that the Supreme Court would make as short work of the reciprocity amendment of 1890 as the New York Court of Appeals made of the shuffling school act passed by the New York Legislature in 1849; the principles which apply to the two cases being identical and of universal application.

An equally significant decision by the Supreme Court of Delaware will be found in the case of Rice against Foster. "The powers of government," said the Court, "are trusts of the highest importance, on the faithful and proper exercise of which depend the welfare and happiness of society. These trusts must be exercised in strict conformity with the spirit and intent of the Constitution—*by those with whom they are deposited; and in no case whatever can they be transferred or delegated to any other body or persons*—not even to the whole people of the State, and still less to the people of a county. . . . The making of laws is the highest act of sovereignty that can be performed in a free nation, and therefore the legislative power may truly be said to be the supreme power of a State. If the legislative power can be transferred to the people, so can the executive or judicial power."

Says the *Tribune*:

"The protests made by American diplomats against the prohibition of certain imports by France or Germany are based solely on the false reasons for that step. If either of these nations sees fit to put a heavy duty on American hog products, no representative of this country has a right to object."

This is a sad error, esteemed contemporary, for which we fear you will get a stinging rebuke from one of our "American diplomats." Is it possible you have not perused with reverence the remonstrance addressed by our Minister to France to M. Ribot on the 3d of July last, and containing the following sentiments, in which we heartily concur?—

"And above all, you have deprived your people, particularly the poor laboring classes, of a cheap and highly prized article of food, which they used largely, and for which you have been able to furnish no adequate substitute. Statistics of your importations, and the regular quotations of your domestic prices, show that what you shut out from us you have not supplied from other sources. Surely, an abundant and cheap supply of healthful food for the laboring classes is one of the most important essentials for the happiness of a people, the growth of its productive energies in competition with neighboring and rival countries, and the development of the national prosperity."

You will see from this at a glance that it makes very little difference whether the reasons the French give for excluding "American hog products" are "false" or not. You will see that, even if they admitted that American pork was a wholesome article of

diet, but put a high duty on it so as to exclude it on protectionist grounds, they would still be guilty of "depriving their people, particularly the poor laboring classes, of a cheap and highly prized article of food," or, on the other hand, depriving them, to use Mr. Reid's stirring language, "of one of the most important essentials for the happiness of a people." What does it matter whether this is done by lying or by a 50 per cent. duty? Are you not a little ashamed to have missed this little lesson in *ex cathedrâ* political economy emanating from a source which is, doubtless, august in your eyes?

The Western farmers who are demanding free binder-twine are giving the Republican leaders in Congress a great deal of pain. Between their demands and that for free sugar, the Tariff-Bill conferees, if the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent represents their feelings accurately, are almost at the limit of their endurance. What is it that is so "unruly" and so "palpably out of harmony with all the principles of protection" in the demand for free binder-twine? The case, as stated by a Republican Senator, Davis of Minnesota, is that the business of manufacturing twine is in the hands of a Trust, which controls absolutely the raw material in the places where it is grown, and which limits its product and fixes its prices to suit itself. That is what makes it an "isolated industry." As Mr. Davis said of the members of this Trust in the Senate a few weeks ago: "They are as far above legislative control as the clouds that float above the Capitol. They are in need of no protection. They are amply able to protect themselves and to spoliate the world." He showed that their profits were 40 per cent. on an aggregate annual output of $10,000,000, or $4,000,000 a year, and that the farmers of Minnesota alone were forced to pay unjustly nearly a million dollars of this amount. Yet the Trust has appeared before the Ways and Means Committee and demanded additional protection of one and three-fourths cents a pound, saying if it were not granted its members would be forced to close their mills. There is no doubt whatever that the Trust is one of the most oppressive upon the farmers of all those in existence. To grant its demands is to give the most conclusive proof of the justice of Mr. Blaine's charge that the McKinley Tariff Bill benefits the East as against the West.

The appearance of a savage attack upon Mr. Blaine in a campaign paper which Mr. Clarkson is publishing to help forward his work as director of the Republican Congressional Committee, adds to the interest of the situation inside the Republican party. Mr. Clarkson arraigns Mr. Blaine as a "brilliant and dashing letter-writer," who "is the one man in the modern politics of America who has written letters to his own cost and to the cost of his party." That is an allusion to the Mulligan episode which is plain enough to be understood by anybody, and which is certainly not made in a friendly spirit. Mr. Blaine's latest fault as a letter-writer, according to Mr. Clarkson, is in characterizing the McKinley Tariff Bill "as a benefit to the East as against the West." Mr. Clarkson says this "is not good for the Republican party," and declares that "the insidious cry that the Republican party in any way favors Eastern against Western interests should be stamped out at once." But how is it going to be stamped out? The conferees on the McKinley Bill have not stamped it out by restoring the duties on binding-twine in the interest of the Eastern Trust which controls that industry, have they? The demand for free binding-twine was one of the strongest which the Western farmers made, and it would have been granted had not the Eastern interests objected. Denouncing Mr. Blaine as a letter-writer whose productions are not "good for the Republican party" will not explain away this performance. Neither will it refute this comprehensive statement of Mr. Blaine's concerning the McKinley Bill as a whole: "There is not a section or a line in the entire bill that will open the market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork." The question is not so much whether Mr. Blaine was a useful Republican in saying this and other damaging things, but whether he was telling the truth. Mr. Clarkson seems to fear that he was telling the truth, and to have a curious idea that if he had kept still, Western Republicans would never have suspected the true condition of affairs.

The Speaker showed signs of wavering on Friday which are very surprising in a Czar of his "nerve." He was trying his utmost to count a quorum, but the persistence of Democratic members in remaining away from their seats—going "on strike," as the indignant *Tribune* calls it—prevented his doing so to the satisfaction of his critics. When the correctness of his count was questioned and tellers were called for, he showed that he anticipated defeat by saying that the "doorkeeper informed him that there were a dozen Democrats in the lobby." A really Strong Man in the Speaker's chair would have ruled that, from "counting a quorum" as it appeared under his own eye to counting one with the assistance of the doorkeeper's eye in the lobby, was an easy and logical step, and would have taken it without flinching. But, for some inexplicable reason, Mr. Reed failed to take it. When a Democratic member remarked that "there was no provision in the rules by which doorkeepers were permitted to count a quorum," the Speaker did not even "sass him back" according to his usual custom, but submitted as meekly as an ordinary man in the chair would have done. This pusillanimous conduct in a Speaker who had intimated during the same debate that there was the same necessity for unprecedented decisions by the Chair now as there was in war time, will be apt to injure his prestige.

The forthcoming report of the Special Committee which Speaker Reed appointed to investigate Mr. Raum's conduct of the Pension Bureau, ought to be read in the House in conjunction with the *Tribune's* Washington despatch of Monday morning, in which the statement is made that the Committee "appears to have conducted the important inquiry with blue glasses on and its ears carefully wadded with cotton." The Committee might retort to this truthful characterization of its methods by saying that it has simply done what was expected of it and what it was carefully selected by the Speaker, at Mr. Raum's bidding, to do. It was not appointed to find out the truth, but to conceal it, and it did its utmost to that end. That it has not deceived anybody is not its fault, but chiefly the fault of the honorable plain-speaking of the *Tribune*, which, more far-seeing and sagacious than the Speaker and Raum's other defenders, is able to foresee that nothing but harm to the Republican Administration can be the result of attempting to shield such a disreputable public official as Raum has shown himself to be by his own admissions upon the witness stand.

We cannot speak too highly of the force and pungency of the address adopted at the ministers' meeting in Hardman Hall on Monday night. Every word of it tells on the existing situation. Let us add that every word that is said against the propriety or utility of a movement like this on the part of the clergy is really an argument in its favor. The very hostility which it calls forth shows the need of it and the duty of it. We say the duty of it because these ministers are, we believe, with one exception, ministers of Protestant denominations, and it is on the Protestants of this city that, paradoxical as it seems, the guilt and shame of our present plight chiefly fall. It is they who, for the most part, have the money, the intelligence, the moral and social influence of the city in their hands. They are the chief employers of labor, the chief supporters of philanthropic and educational enterprises, the chief subscribers to campaign funds, and the chief inheritors among our city population of American political traditions. The poor of the city, of whom a large proportion are foreigners, are the victims of our present condition, not its authors. They are the dumb and helpless multitude who in all ages and all countries have been the chief sufferers from bad government; and a worse government than the rich and powerful of this city have given them in return for their taxes—for they bear the chief burden of the taxes—we say, weighing our words, there does not exist in the civilized world. In no civilized city does the poor man get so small a return for the contributions he makes out of his scanty earnings to the municipal exchequer. In no such city does he get such poor justice, such poor police, so little cleanliness, such dear lighting, such poor pavements, such inferior transportation. In none is he abandoned so completely, in all ways, to the tender mercies of corrupt and vicious politicians,

the very dregs of modern civilization—for this is what the Tammany politicians are. All that the congregations of these Protestant ministers have offered him during the past thirty years of municipal waste and disgrace has been a few free chapels, a few cheap coffee-houses, and an opportunity of selling his vote to Republican "district leaders."

Never before since the disgrace of the city began has the prospect for persuasion been so bright. The new ballot law has done much, we sincerely believe, to restore to the tongue and the pen the influence they once had in American politics. The old system of distributing ballots took all the heart out of public discussion, because, after you had talked a man over to your way of thinking about a public question, you could not guarantee him the full expression of his opinion at the polls. The chances were ten to one that arrangements for cheating him had already been made by the people who did the "work" on election day, and who arranged among themselves who was to have the majority in any particular district. Unless we are greatly mistaken, all this is now at an end. When you convert a man, you can assure him that he can make his new view felt beyond any peradventure; that he can get the ballot he wants, and vote it in absolute security.

The confessions of the wretched Knights who wrecked the Montreal express are horrid reading. The consideration that the destruction of the train might involve the loss of innocent lives and the injury of innocent people seems never to have occurred to them, or, if it did occur to them, seems never to have given them the slightest trouble. All they wanted was "to get even with the road." Characteristically enough, they prepared for the work by the purchase of a pint of whiskey, and spent their leisure moments after the deed was done in sundry liquor-saloons—a poor way of seeking "the educational and legislative advantages" for the promotion of which Powderly says "the noble and holy order" exists. There are two features in the case which merit, and we trust will receive, the special attention of Mr. Webb and the other managers of the New York Central. One is, that all these conspirators agree that Master-Workman Lee, the head of the District Assembly which got up the strike, stood behind them in this matter, and, if he was not an accessory before the fact, was an accessory after the fact, and furnished them with money to escape the punishment due to their crime. Now, the kind of man this Lee is must have been long known to officers of the road. The Powderly correspondence shows that he (Lee) had been plotting and planning for a strike for months. He must be a noisy, gaseous sort of person, whose unfitness for service in an organized force must have been evident months ago. Why was he not discharged before his plans had time to ripen? He cannot have been during all this period a useful and efficient employee. In any such service as that of railroads, just as much as in the army or navy, a gabby, "sea-lawyer" sort of man ought to be got rid of as soon as he is found out. The second consideration is, that we trust Mr. Webb, in the light of these events, will revise his rule of not discharging men simply because they are Knights. We hold that it is his solemn duty to the people who travel by his road to see, as far as he can, that there is no man among his employees who belongs to any "order" or society which claims control over such employee's manner of doing his official duty or over his relations to his employers. There is here no room for private or personal likes or dislikes, kindliness or indulgence. Mr. Webb ought to make a peremptory rule that no Knight or unionist of any description shall be allowed in the service of the company. No corporation charged with a quasi-public service is at liberty to employ such persons. Private corporations or firms may, if they like, but no person who is intrusted with the lives or property of third parties has any right to do so, or will have any excuse for doing so after the warning conveyed by this remarkable conspiracy.

From a circular sent out by Funk & Wagnalls to those subscribers to their pirated edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica who have not yet sent in their $38, it would appear that a certain number of them are holding back for some reason or other, and the firm, thinking it may be, in some cases, from conscientious scruples about receiving stolen goods, got from Dr. Crosby a remarkable certificate of honest dealing. We would, however, now earnestly urge those subscribers who have not yet drawn their copies, not to do so. It is never too late to back out of an immoral bargain, and an agreement to purchase stolen goods is necessarily immoral. The courts will not enforce it, and, according to Dr. Funk himself, nothing is property for which there is no legal protection. Therefore, on his own showing, not only may the subscribers legitimately refuse to take his Encyclopædia, but they may legitimately get it if they can and keep it without paying for it. On Dr. Crosby's showing, this would at most be an act of simple "discourtesy." As no man can have "property in published ideas," Funk cannot have property in his 'Britannica' any more than the Blacks had, and we advise any one who can get hold of one or more copies of it to take them and "use" them, as Dr. Crosby says they may legitimately do. If Dr. Funk complains, serve on him a copy of the letter of Dr. Crosby, "whose keen, delicate sense of propriety and honor" Dr. Funk will, in this case at least, be the last to "challenge."

The latest news from Ireland shows that the politics of the potato failure has already begun to show itself. The Nationalist leaders have begun, as every one knew they would, to advise the tenants not to pay rent because of the approaching scarcity, and Mr. Balfour has begun to arrest them and lock them up for so doing, on the assumption that this will somehow mend the situation. We believe it is generally conceded that not one of these arrests and imprisonments during the past three years has in the smallest degree improved the condition of Irish society. "The plan of campaign" is less heard of because nearly all the landlords attacked by it have succumbed to it. Boycotting is less rife than it was, because the terror it inspired has made fewer and fewer people ready to commit the acts in the way of "landgrabbing" and the like which led to it. In the meantime, the Parnellite leaders are more powerful and popular than ever, and the huge military garrison is as necessary as ever—that is, Ireland is no nearer being pacified than she was three years ago. There is an Austrian stupidity about the Unionist policy which is very curious. Its main object seems to be not to settle the Irish problem, but to show what a determined fellow Mr. Balfour is.

The exposures which one of the Boulangists named Mermeix has been making in the *Figaro* of the inner workings of the Boulangist movement, under the title of the "Coulisses du Boulangisme," or "Behind the Scenes with the Boulangists," as it may be freely translated, describe one of the most disgraceful and discouraging episodes in French history. There is nothing very new in the revelations made about the band of adventurers who formed Boulanger's immediate surroundings. They were in most respects of the same order as those who surrounded the Third Napoleon when he made his Coup d'État, and it appears they were ready on a certain night to attempt the same thing, but their hero's heart failed him, and the hour of action slipped by. What is new in the story, and what makes it so discreditable, is the exposure it makes of the extreme cheapness and tawdriness, as a political charlatan, of Boulanger himself. He appears not only to have had no ideas, but no nerve, and when once it became unsafe for him to parade on his black horse, he was lost. He utterly disconcerted his followers by his flight to Brussels, and hastened the dénouement, which was sure to come in the end. He took money from everybody, and much seems to have come from women. None are left by the disclosures in such a sorry plight, however, as the Monarchists. They all, from the Comte de Paris down, the Rochefoucaulds, the Luynes, the D'Uzes, appear to have helped this sorry adventurer with large funds, and encouraged him to overthrow the Government if he could, not caring what the result to the country in the way of disorder might be, if only it offered them a chance of setting up a throne on the ruins. No wonder one Monarchist writer says, in the bitterness of his soul: "Years and years will pass before this stain is removed from the Royalist brow—an ineffaceable stain like *Macbeth's*. In ten years, in twenty years, whenever Royalists talk of loyalty or honor, people will say, 'Go along, and find your Boulanger!'"

THE ISSUE IN THE HOUSE.

THE controversy which came over from last week in the House of Representatives is one which involves questions so important that the point at issue should be clearly stated.

At the Congressional election of 1888 in the Fourth District of Virginia, there were polled, according to the returns of the officers in charge, 13,299 votes for Edward C. Venable, a Democrat, 12,657 for John M. Langston (colored), a Republican, and 3,207 for R. W. Arnold, also a Republican. The Governor accordingly awarded the certificate of election to Mr. Venable, and he was sworn in as a member when the House met last December.

Mr. Langston contested Mr. Venable's right to the seat, on the ground that there had been fraud in the election, and that a fair count of the ballots actually cast had given him a comfortable plurality over the Democratic candidate. The case went to the Committee on Elections, and the Republican members, constituting a majority, brought in a report that Mr. Venable was not legally elected, and that Mr. Langston was entitled to the seat.

The case was called up last week, and the Republican managers attempted to carry through the scheme of unseating Mr. Venable and substituting Mr. Langston. The Democrats sought to save their fellow-member from being turned out, and insisted that he should not be displaced unless and until the Republicans could show a majority of all the members of the House present and voting in favor of the Republican claimant.

Under the system which existed during the first fifty Congresses, all that it would have been necessary for the minority to do in such a case would have been to sit silent in their seats when the resolution was put to vote. They would simply have insisted that a quorum of the dominant party must be present and voting in the affirmative, and it would have made no difference whether members of the minority were present in the chamber and not answering to the roll call, or were absent from the Capitol. The old custom was for the members of the minority in such a case to suit their own convenience as to being inside or outside of the chamber, inasmuch as it was not their visible presence, but their votes, which constituted the essential thing. No better statement of this ancient system has ever been made than the concise definition of the Hon. Thomas B. Reed, in a speech which he delivered in the House on the 28th of January, 1880, when opposing a proposition then pending to change that system and give the Speaker the power of counting a quorum. "The constitutional idea of a quorum," he said, "is not the presence of a majority of the members of the House, but a majority of the members present and participating in the business of the House. It is not the visible presence of members, but their judgments and their votes, that the Constitution calls for."

This ancient position was sustained with equal emphasis during the same discussion by Gen. Garfield and Gen. Hawley, and the innovation was defeated, enough of the Democratic majority joining the Republicans to reject the change in the rules suggested by a Democratic Committee. It is this ancient position, sustained by Reed, Garfield, and Hawley in 1880, upon which the Democrats stand in 1890. They simply say, "If you Republicans are going to turn out a member who has the certificate of the Governor of his State that he was elected, and put in his place another man, you must have a quorum of all the members of the House 'present and participating in the business of the House' by the exercise of 'their judgments and their votes'—which Mr. Reed ten years ago defined to be 'the constitutional idea of a quorum.'"

On the other hand, the contention of the Republicans under the leadership of Mr. Reed in 1890 is, that, in order to pass any measure, it is only necessary that the Speaker shall see a quorum of the members in the chamber, and that a majority of that quorum shall vote in the affirmative. The objections to this system are two fold, and were stated in an unanswerable manner by Gen. Garfield and Gen. Hawley ten years ago. In the first place, there is the danger of a false count, or, at the very least, an incorrect count, by the Speaker. In opposing the idea that the question whether or not a quorum is present should be determined by "ocular demonstration" on the Speaker's part, Gen. Garfield said: "Who is to control his seeing? How do we know but that he may see forty members more for his own purposes than there are here in the House? I think my friend from Virginia will see that he lets in the one-man power in a far more dangerous way than ever has occurred before in any legislative assembly of which he and I have any knowledge."

The second objection was forcibly put by Gen. Hawley. "I think it very decidedly wrong," he said, "in the first place, that a Speaker should be at liberty to recognize or declare a quorum without a formal count, *and, in the next place, that, by any sort of combination of rules, there should be a law put on the statute-book and declared in force which can show perhaps only a quarter or 10 per cent. of the members in favor of it.*" That is precisely what it is now claimed may be done. The House consists of 330 members. A quorum, therefore, is 166. Mr. Reed's present contention is, that, if he can see 166 members within the chamber—say, 84 Republicans and 82 Democrats—when the roll is called, and the 84 Republicans answer in the affirmative, while the Democrats either vote nay or are silent, those 84 affirmative votes may pass a measure. In the pending case, he claims that, if there are 84 votes to turn out Mr. Venable and turn in Mr. Langston, the act may be done, provided enough other members are within his sight to constitute the quorum of 166.

We believe that every candid man holds now, as Gen. Hawley held ten years ago, that it is "very decidedly wrong" that only one more than a quarter of the membership of the House should suffice to take such action as this. It is so wrong that the minority are justified in opposing this proposition to the last extremity. Under the old system, as Gen. Hawley said, "We of the minority claim a right, by sitting silent, to prevent less than a majority of the members elected from passing a bill. The worst that can be done by a factious minority, if that be the term applied to it, is to fight until the actual majority of the members elected shall pass the bill. When they are present, that friendly majority constitute a quorum of themselves; they do not require the assistance of the minority; they run the House themselves and pass their bills." Under the Reed régime, the minority are denied the right of bringing about this result by "sitting silent," as the Speaker will count them towards a quorum, and therefore the only thing they can do is to absent themselves from the chamber until the Republicans produce a quorum of their own. They ought to have such a quorum present every day, and, whenever they have it, they can pass any proposition.

It is sometimes objected that such action by the minority is "factious" and against the public interest, but the broader view is that which was so well expressed by Mr. Reed himself in closing his forcible speech of January 28, 1880:

> "This privilege, which the [Republican] minority of the House at the last session availed itself of, is a privilege which every minority has availed itself of since the foundation of this Government. What is the practical upshot of the present practice? It is that the members of the minority of this House, upon great occasions, demand that every bill which is passed shall receive the absolute vote of a majority of the members elected. They do this in the face and eyes of the country. If they demand upon any frivolous occasion that there shall be such an extraordinary vote as that, they do it subject to the censure of the people of this land.
>
> "*It is a valuable privilege for the country that the minority shall have the right by this extraordinary mode of proceeding to call the attention of the country to measures which a party in a moment of madness and of party feeling is endeavoring to enforce upon the citizens of this land. And it works equally well with regard to all parties, for all parties have their times when they need to be checked, so that they may receive the opinions of the people who are their constituents, and who are interested in the results of their legislation.*"

THE SUPPRESSION OF KENNEDY.

THE Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives has decided to report a resolution directing the Government Printer to omit from the permanent edition of the *Congressional Record* the speech in which Mr. Kennedy of Ohio denounced Senator Quay as a "branded criminal," a "Judas Iscariot," and as a Republican leader who "should be driven from the head of a party whose life his presence imperils." It is thought that the adoption of this resolution by the House will be satisfactory to Mr. Quay. If this be so, it must be that he has neglected to follow closely the successive steps in the amusing and childlike proceedings which his friends have taken to suppress the speech. These are well worth reviewing in chronological order.

The speech was delivered in the House on September 3. A full report of it, taken

from the speaker's manuscript, was sent out over the country by the Associated Press, and was printed in all the leading newspapers of the land on the following day. Of its reception in the House so high a Republican authority as the New York *Tribune's* Washington correspondent said, that "whatever criticism may be passed upon Mr. Kennedy on the score of taste, or the lack of it, in choosing the present moment in order to arraign Mr. Quay" for the part he took in defeating the Force Bill, "there is no denying the fact that he represents a large, almost an overwhelming, majority of Republicans in the House in their judgment of Mr. Quay's course with reference to it." It was strongly suspected, even, that Mr. Kennedy had made the speech with the connivance of the Speaker *pro tem.*, Mr. Burrows, as well as with the approval of the Republican majority. The publication of the speech caused a great revulsion of Republican sentiment, and on the second day after its delivery the *Tribune's* correspondent reported that the more mature feeling of Republicans was "one of hot and almost universal indignation, as well as profound regret," and that a "long and earnest consultation" about it had been held among the Pennsylvanians, who were "especially indignant."

Steps to suppress the speech date from this revulsion of Republican sentiment. Mr. Kennedy had withheld his speech from the *Record* for revision, and he was besought to withhold it permanently. This he declined to do; but he consented to modify it somewhat by leaving out Quay's name, by diluting the Judas Iscariot comparison, by eliminating the phrase "branded criminal," and by many other similar alterations. In this softened form it was published in the *Record* of September 14, filling over four pages. As it was still a very unpleasant speech for Quay and his friends to contemplate, the efforts to suppress it were continued. On September 15 Mr. Enloe, a Democratic member from Tennessee, actuated by the most disinterested desire to help his Republican associates in their distress, introduced a resolution directing the Clerk of the House to "communicate to the Senate the fact that the House reprobates and condemns the unparliamentary language" of Mr. Kennedy used in his speech of September 3, and published in a revised and amended form in the *Record* of September 14. In the debate which followed on this resolution the main charges of the speech were repeatedly cited, and, by Mr. Enloe's request, the worst passages of the speech were read in full by the clerk. The House finally referred the Enloe resolution to the Judiciary Committee for action, and the Committee has decided to report as above mentioned.

Now, supposing the House accepts the report and votes to exclude the speech from the permanent edition of the *Record*, what will be accomplished? In the *Record* for September 16 there appears a report covering four pages of the debate on the Enloe resolution, in which the objectionable passages of the speech as read by the clerk are printed in full. What is the use of suppressing the full text of the speech from the *Record* of September 14, and allowing this report of the debate with the objectionable passages of the speech to remain in the *Record* of September 16? It is clear that the perfect work of suppression cannot be accomplished till all reference to the speech and the fact of its delivery shall have been cut from the *Record*. Has Congress the power to mutilate the record of its own debates in this way? There is a precedent in favor of eliminating from the permanent edition of the *Record* a speech which appeared in the daily edition. It was established in 1880, when an absurd poem by a Wyoming delegate, which had never been delivered, was printed by leave in the daily edition. Mr. Garfield made the motion for its suppression, but the remarks in which he did so are published in full in the permanent edition, and, like those in the debate on the Kennedy speech, they reveal the real character of the suppressed utterances.

It is, of course, within the possibilities that the present Speaker may cut the knot of all these difficulties by simply "ruling" that all mention whatever of the Kennedy speech be eliminated from the permanent edition of the *Record*. He may even rule on some fine day, when he is in especially "good form," that the *Record* is an unnecessary evil anyway, and may abolish it altogether. But so long as precedent is followed in regard to keeping a published account of the proceedings of Congress, there will be no way by which the Kennedy speech can be removed from the permanent edition of the *Record*. It is there, and it must remain there for all time, no matter how solemnly the Republican majority may shut their eyes and declare that in their opinion it was never delivered. Their whole performance in regard to it, considered as that of mature men who are in Washington as the delegated wisdom of the land, to decide upon legislation affecting the most difficult problems of modern government, is a miracle of silliness.

MORE LIGHT.

THE state of mind of many of our protectionist friends touching foreign trade, as revealed by the discussion about reciprocity, although many of them are exceedingly shrewd home-traders, is very curious. It has, for instance, been impossible for many years back to convince them that what draws foreign trade to a place is exactly what draws home trade to a place, namely, low prices. They would have it that what kept foreigners from buying of us was not high prices, but the absence of subsidized steamers, or slow postal communications, or the machinations of the British, especially the cunning device which Mr. Blaine exposed some years ago, of getting the foreigners to ask payment for their goods in bills on London. The reciprocity discussion has made this great darkness more than usually visible. Mr. Blaine's astounding announcement that the apparent balance against us in our trade of 1889 with the South American countries represented a dead loss on our part, was received by the whole Republican press, secular and religious, with perfect calm, as if it was something they had long known, and in which there was nothing new or surprising except the exact figures, while probably every merchant engaged in foreign trade was joining the professors and "the bookmen" in roaring over it, and while any one had only to go into the counting-room of any South American trader to get a full view of its monstrous absurdity.

There are many signs, however, that the discussion is doing good and is letting light into this curiously dark place, and that before long there will be nothing left of the mystery, except the absence of intellectual shame on the part of a man of Mr. Blaine's years and official standing in coming before the world with such a mass of absurdity. One of these signs is the following, which we clip from the Philadelphia *Press*, probably the most ignorant as well as most dishonest of the high-tariff organs:

> "The *Herald* is innocent. If it will look at the trade of the United States, England, and the Spanish Americas, it will find that England sends to the countries south of us the goods which make good our imports from there, for which we send our products to England. We buy of English merchants in Spanish America and bring in English vessels the goods we get from our Southern neighbors, and we pay for these goods by sending to England our products, again in English vessels, and England settles the bill by sending her goods to South America, again in English vessels, by English merchants, at an English profit."

Here we see that the writer has really at last mastered the mechanism of foreign trade. He sees that a profitable foreign trade between two countries does not necessarily mean a *direct* trade, and that nations often exchange their commodities in a roundabout way, through other nations, and then settle their balances, which are always comparatively trifling, in gold at some central clearing-house like London. But this does not keep him straight about the essential conditions of foreign trade, for immediately afterwards he falls back into the old familiar balderdash, as follows:

> "How much better it would be if this trade were direct, and if it were in our own vessels. Our manufacturers would make the goods which now go to South America from England, our breadstuffs would go direct to the countries from which they are excluded, and American ship-owners, insurance companies, and banks would make the profits of freight, insurance, and exchange on this great traffic. This would come with direct trade, and direct trade will come by the adoption of reciprocity and the passage of the Shipping Bill."

Of course direct trade would be "better," but saying this is about as useful as saying, "Ah, if I only had a million!" or "How I wish I was industrious and successful!" The writer does not take the slightest notice of the essential principle of international trade from the days of the Phœnicians down, that we can only get it by making our goods cheap; this is what has always brought it and brings it now. If a man who was selling dearer than his competitors in the New York or Chicago dry-goods trade, for example, and found his custom scanty, were to insist upon it that his business suffered through the persecution of rivals, or through delay in the delivery of his letters, or because he did not buy goods himself at their stores, he would be set down

as a lunatic and his credit would be ruined.

We find another similar flash of intelligence in the *Manufacturer*, a fortnightly protectionist organ published in Philadelphia, which by no means smiles on Mr. Blaine's reciprocity scheme, and maintains that, far from needing foreign markets, we do not now produce manufactured goods enough to supply our own markets, and that "the true way to deal with the situation in which we now find ourselves" "is to put up duties and check importations, so that American mills can have a fair chance to supply the American market." There is nothing mealy-mouthed about this writer. But see how he shows his mental growth in the next sentence:

"We do, however, have an actual surplus of farm products, which must be disposed of somehow or other. The practice has been to place it in foreign markets, *and much of it will continue to go there, no matter what our tariff arrangements and reciprocity arrangements may be, simply for the reason that our prices are the lowest as our material is the best.*"

We see here that he has really got hold of the secret of foreign trade—but only by the tail, as it were. That the rule applies to manufactures has not yet dawned on him. But it will. In another year or so he will be living in the full light. There is nothing so illuminating as discussion. It is true that it hardly ever produces, or seems to produce, an immediate effect. Neither of two disputants ever admits on the spot that his opponent has convinced him, because that would be an acknowledgment of defeat which human nature finds it hard to make. But he carries away with him the seeds of conviction, which sooner or later ripen, and he finally comes before the world emancipated.

THE ANGLO-IRISH SITUATION.

THE recent arrests of the Irish leaders indicate, apparently, some sort of change of policy on the part of the Ministry as a preparation for "the electoral contest" which the London *Times* admits "must be fought out at no very distant date." The earlier vigor with which Mr. Balfour began his administration of Irish affairs was based on the same assumption as Mr. Forster's—that the disorder and discontent in Ireland were the work of a few orators and agitators, and that if they could be removed peace would be restored. But Mr. Balfour held, and made no secret of it, that Mr. Forster had made a mistake and ruined his policy by treating the persons whom he arrested—about 1,000 in all—as what are called "first-class misdemeanants," that is, in making their imprisonment simply confinement, and allowing them in their jail all their usual comforts and conveniences, including frequent visits from their friends. Balfour determined on a sterner course, and proceeded to subject all his political prisoners to the treatment of ordinary criminals as regards food, dress, and occupation.

Every one remembers the pitiful uproar to which this policy gave rise. The determined resistance offered to it by O'Brien and others had an effect on English opinion which made it impossible to persist in it. It was accordingly abandoned, on one pretext or another, and after a while the arrests diminished in number also, and were more and more confined to the obscurer members of the Irish party. Some features of "coercion" still continued very odious, such as the practice of "shadowing"—that is, dogging—the footsteps of obnoxious local agitators with two policemen, who never left them, and listened to all their conversation—a practice which one Conservative member in the House pronounced "damnable," and which even the *Spectator* deplored, and in characteristic language hoped Mr. Balfour would "see his way" to dispense with. But, on the whole, the police pressure was diminished, and there was no doubt that the whole system was condemned by an increasing body of public opinion in England. The upper classes approved, but the masses were scandalized and exasperated, and the sympathy with the Irish spread among the Radicals, as the vote at the bye-elections showed. In the meantime, although there was more appearance of order in Ireland, there was no sign of more affection for the law, and no reason to believe that the military and police force could be diminished with safety, and it has not been diminished, nor have any of the coercive precautions been laid aside.

The probabilities are, that the Ministry did not anticipate, when they began it, that their experiment would have to last so long. Belief in Irish persistence is not strong among Englishmen, and the expectation of Gladstone's death or disability before now, and the consequent collapse of the home-rule agitation, exercised a great influence on their plans. They hardly looked forward to coercing for six years, and coming before the voters at the general election without a single remedial Irish measure to show, without any visible abatement of disaffection in Ireland, and with Gladstone alive and active. But this is exactly what has happened. The defeat of the Irish Land Bill last session has rendered the situation little short of desperate, and it is aggravated by an approaching Irish famine. Something has to be done to show that the Ministry still has a policy and energy to carry it out, and we presume the arrests shadow forth what it is. There is to be something in the nature of "resolute government" to the end.

Lord Hartington is the leader of the Liberal Unionists, partly owing to his sincerity and moderation, partly to his being the heir of a duke, hardly at all to his natural ability—for he has very little; but he is the dull, safe kind of man who, when he has family and wealth, has a powerful hold on the English imagination, and the duller he is the more profound the attention with which he is listened to. He has just been making a speech in Yorkshire before a large meeting of Unionists which has attracted a great deal of attention, on account of the extremely gloomy picture he draws of the political prospect. He indirectly, and certainly without meaning it, pays a most remarkable tribute to the capacity of the Irish party in the House. After showing how successful they had been with their tactics of obstruction, and how they had succeeded in getting an English party to act with them, he went on to say:

"I do not know, gentlemen, that these tactics have had very considerable success, but they have made of the Parnellite party a party more formidable and influential in Parliament than the Irish Nationalist party has ever been, either in the days of constitutional agitation, as carried on by O'Connell or Butt, or of physical force under leaders like Mitchel or Smith O'Brien. It is true the tactics of the Parnellite party have not been confined to Parliamentary efforts. It is quite true that they have carried on in Ireland, with equal determination and equal ability, a campaign founded upon agrarian discontent and appealing to agrarian greed. . . . . .

"They have carried on with equal energy and equal determination another campaign among the enemies of England in the United States and in every English-speaking colony.

He added that they had converted the Liberal party to Home Rule by convincing Harcourt, Morley, Trevelyan, and other Liberal leaders

"that the power of Parliament to administer the affairs of this empire in the face of the determined and resolute hostility of a small section of its members had ceased to exist—in fact, that the game of parliamentary government was up, and that it was useless longer to contend against this insidious poison. Well, I have never denied the gravity of these arguments; I have always thought that it was the strongest which is to be found in the Home Rule armory."

It is impossible to overestimate the gravity of these admissions. They show that, in the belief of one of the calmest and most phlegmatic of the Unionists, the Irish question has entered on a more serious stage than ever before; that it is being pushed to a crisis of some kind, with an audacity and ability never before displayed; that it is putting the very existence of parliamentary government in England in peril, and that deliverance through the total withdrawal of Irish constitutional rights and a determined military government, which would have been easy a century ago, has now become impossible, owing to the rising of the democratic tide in England. A policy of irritation, such as these arrests apparently indicate, as the latest Conservative resort, seems, under these circumstances, to be marked by great folly.

THE SOCIALIST OUTLOOK IN GERMANY.

ON the 1st of October will terminate the anti-Socialist laws framed in Germany twelve years ago under the influence of the indignation caused by the attempts of Hödel and Nobiling on the life of the Emperor William. The expiration of these laws finds the Social Democrats not only possessed of a numerical strength in the Reichstag undreamed of even two years ago, but convinced that the fostering care extended by the present Emperor to the working classes involves the virtual recognition of the principal claim of the Socialist party. But a few days ago the Emperor, at a banquet at Breslau, expressed a hope that the other provinces of Prussia would follow the example of Silesia in ameliorating the condition of the laboring classes, and the *Vossische Zeitung—quantum mutatus ab illo!*—applauded the words of the Emperor,

which testify to his "steadfastness in opposing the increasing ire of the hard-hearted caste that cannot bear the social equality of the laborer, nor become reconciled to the termination of the anti-Socialist laws." The Emperor is announced to have given further proof of his interest in the laboring classes by causing the publication of a pamphlet addressed "To the Workingmen of Germany," which will discuss the social reform in the spirit of the imperial decrees of February, and which will be offered for sale after the 1st of October in all the principal manufacturing towns of Germany.

That, in view of all this, the Socialists should be filled with exultation, that they should make their influence felt in the Municipal Council of Berlin, and ask for permission to celebrate the return of the expelled members of their party in the Town Hall, might have been expected And yet in the very hour of triumph the Social Democracy of Germany is seriously divided against itself, and the theories of Bebel and Liebknecht—the leaders who have spent a lifetime in disinterested devotion to thorough-going social reform—are being rapidly supplanted by the ultra-revolutionary doctrines of Dr. Bruno Wille, the apostle of the latest phase of German Socialism. It is true that the noisy meeting held on the 25th of last month at Berlin ended in an enthusiastic endorsement of Herr Bebel and his party associates in the Reichstag, but the victory has only served to bring out clearly the antagonism between the old and the new leaders.

The editors of the principal organs of the radical Socialists —viz., the Berlin *Volkstribüne*, the Dresden *Sächsische Arbeiter-Zeitung*, and the Magdeburg *Volksstimme*—have withdrawn from their papers in order to consolidate their efforts in a new and powerful opposition journal; and Bebel and Liebknecht, after more than twenty years of unquestioned supremacy in the party councils, are forced to repel, with all the power at their command, the charges of treason brought against them by Herr Wille and his associates. These charges come, first of all, under the general head of what might be termed truckling to the existing order of things, and resolve themselves specifically into the accusation of having participated in the Government commission for the workingmen's protection, and voted on several occasions with the Freisinnige party in the supplementary elections. The very victories achieved by the Social Democrats in the elections to the Reichstag are viewed with contempt by the anti-parliamentary school represented by Herr Wille, whose motto is: No agreement whatsoever with State and society; parliamentary rivalry is in itself corruption.

While it is easy enough for Herren Bebel and Liebknecht to dispose of the arguments of their opponents, who have strayed so far from Lassalle's postulates of universal suffrage and productive associations supported by the State, it is decidedly difficult for them to cope practically with the spirit of discontent which has seized many of their former adherents. The turbulent followers of Herr Wille refuse to be satisfied with the crumbs of comfort held out to them either in Bebel's vision of a pan-republican socialism, brought about by the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine to France, or in the panaceas of the young Emperor. Neither do they concede the correctness of the view that religion is a private matter with which Socialism as such has no concern, but they unequivocally demand the formal secession of the party from all established religions. In other words, the end and aim of the new Social Democracy, even if still occasionally veiled in the phrases of the "Socialists of the Chair," is revolution *per se*.

In dealing with the discordant elements within the party, Bebel and Liebknecht have the advantage of well-organized leadership and of a tangible programme. As an illustration of the thoroughness of their methods may be mentioned the new way of distributing Socialist literature, as recently described by Herr Liebknecht. The large cities having been won over to Socialist doctrines, he explained that it now became necessary to convert the rural population. For this purpose Socialist papers, as soon as read, are deposited in certain places, generally cigar-stores, in the city of Berlin, for distribution in the provinces. Hitherto this distribution had been made indiscriminately, but henceforward papers collected in the First District of Berlin will be sent only to the province of Westphalia, those from the Second to Hanover and Hesse, and so on. Other German States will be similarly supplied from their capitals. Increased attention will henceforth be paid to the language of the party journals, which must be adapted to rural comprehension. One of the most curious of the means by which discipline is maintained in the ranks of the old Social Democracy is a mysterious agency called the "Iron Mask," which watches over Government spies surreptitiously seeking admission, warns backsliding members, finds out in advance whether it will be safe to distribute Socialist tracts in any given locality—in short, plays the part of a secret inner council with great success. It employs almost exclusively the telegraph, and few can boast of having seen the handwriting of the "Iron Mask." The story goes that the person hidden behind it is a police official of high rank, who thus guards the secret of his affiliation with the Socialists, and that he is unknown even to the party leaders. Whatever the explanation of the mystery, the "Iron Mask" is certainly well calculated to fulfil its purpose, and supplies the touch of the romantic so dear to every German heart. It is, therefore, not probable that the proposition to dispense with the "Iron Mask" will prevail at the Socialist Congress shortly to assemble at Halle.

Not to be outdone by the old leaders of the Social Democracy, Dr. Bruno Wille has put in his bid for popularity in the shape of a Social Democratic theatre, the "Freie Volksbühne," which is shortly to be opened in Berlin, and whose manager he will be. The performances are to take place on Sunday afternoons, and the cost is to be defrayed by voluntary contributions, fixed, however, at a minimum of one mark for the initiation fee, and fifty pfennigs and twenty-five pfennigs for the winter and summer months respectively. The principle of equality being recognized in the conditions of membership, it is to be decided by lot whether each individual spectator is to receive a seat in the pit or in the gallery. If the enterprise is a success, Freie Volksbühnen are to be established in Hamburg, Stuttgart, Dresden, Leipzig, and other cities of Germany.

While what may be called the humor of the Socialist agitation receives its due share of public attention, the German press, on the whole, rarely takes the hysterical view of the relations between labor and capital which, thanks chiefly to the efforts of well-meaning clergymen, occasionally finds expression in American periodicals. The Berlin *National Zeitung* especially, which is distinguished by its soberness in discussing politics, and has always endeavored to have the anti-Socialist legislation supplanted by modifications of the common law, protests in advance against the pessimistic expectation of a Socialist invasion after the 1st of October, as well as against the optimistic hope that the split in the Socialist camp will result in the speedy disintegration of the party.

Among the former advocates of the anti-Socialist laws, such journals as the *Kölnische Zeitung* and the Munich *Allgemaine Zeitung* are still opposed to concessions to the Socialists, and, more or less openly, to the reformatory schemes of the Emperor. Of less interest are the antics of Government organs like the *Kreuz-Zeitung* and the *Post*, which, while opposed tooth and nail to Socialism, profess to expect a harvest of peace from the termination of the anti-Socialist laws.

The Government itself seems to be preserving a quietly expectant attitude with regard to what is to happen after the 1st of October, and pays little attention to the question discussed in the papers as to whether the excesses of the Socialists may not render necessary a revision of the press laws and modifications of the right of association throughout the Empire. The Socialists will probably be on their good behavior for some time to come, and will be strictly watched by the Government. The Liberal papers share the hope that the days of exceptional legislation are past, and even the Conservative press has learned that expulsion and persecution are dangerous political weapons nowadays, and invariably injure those who employ them.

THE MORMON QUESTION IN IDAHO.

BOISÉ CITY, Idaho, September 18, 1890.

I HAVE now, during the last five weeks, traversed this State on its eastern margin from south to north, and along its central portions from east to west, and though my first object has not been political, nor sociological, nor even religious, questions of this character have been continually thrust upon my attention, until the survey of facts seem to warrant some inferences that are worthy of consideration.

The experiment in Idaho in dealing with the Mormon question is one of the most radical that have ever been taken in modern times. Both political parties seem agreed in the policy adopted. The Mormons, as a class, are disfranchised. Not only is the practice of polygamy treated as a crime, but to be an adherent of a religious body that considers polygamy lawful is regarded as so far criminal as to debar him from taking any part in the government, either local or general.

Perhaps, however, the case should not be stated in just this form. The exact form of the elector's oath bearing upon the point is as follows:

ELECTOR'S OATH.

I do swear that I am not a bigamist or polygamist; that I am not a member of any order, organization, or association which teaches, advises, counsels, or encourages its members, devotees, or any other person, to commit the crime of bigamy or polygamy, or any other crime defined by law, as a duty arising or resulting from membership in such order, organization, or association, or which practises bigamy or polygamy, or plural or celestial marriage, as a doctrinal rite of such organization; that I do not, and will not, publicly or privately, or in any manner whatever, teach, advise, counsel, or encourage any person to commit the crime of bigamy or polygamy, or any other crime defined by law, either as a religious duty or otherwise; that I do regard the Constitution of the United States, and the laws thereof, and of this State, as interpreted by the courts, as the supreme law of the land, the teachings of any order, organization, or association to the contrary notwithstanding.....

.....

So help me God.

The Mormons have been accustomed to make an oath something like this, by the subterfuge of having the bishop formally dismiss them from the church just before the election, so that they could vote, but with the understanding that their temporary apostasy would be speedily forgiven, and they received back after election. To provide against this the Mormon is now debarred from voting for two years after it is found that he is a Mormon. This proof places him in the same condition as a foreigner, and he has to get out naturalization papers, and disown his church, just as he would the sovereignty of a foreign Power. The penalty for perjury in such cases is a long term in the penitentiary.

With these severe conditions wrought both into the Constitution and into the statutes, the feeling seems to be pretty general that the Mormon question is settled for Idaho. A goodly number, however, are less sanguine. A familiar exhibition of this is seen in the suspicion each party has that the other, after all, is going to pander to the Mormon vote. The Republicans express a total lack of confidence in the professions of the Democratic platform upon the question, and fear that when they have the power they will wink at the registration of Mormons and encourage them to vote. A prominent Democrat, however, assured me that in his vicinity it was the Republicans that were encouraging the Mormons to register, and he railed against the sect more vigorously than I ever heard a Republican do. In fact, he advocated the total extermination of them from the face of the earth. On the other hand, a prominent Republican candidate assured me that if a Mormon would only vote the Republican ticket, it was equivalent to abjuring the faith, and was sufficient proof that he was not in heart a Mormon.

Under territorial government the Mormons have been dealt with with a pretty high hand. As the officers were not amenable to local public sentiment, there has been little to restrain them, and many acts of petty spite have left their impress among the people. For example, in Bingham County I was struck with some remarkable discrepancies between my post-office map and that which had been furnished me by the Land Office. In one instance (and there were several other similar ones in the vicinity) what was called Kaintuck by the Post-office authorities was called Rexford by all the local authorities. The meaning of this was that a violent United States marshal had, through his influence at Washington, wreaked his vengeance upon a whole community by securing this most offensive change of name.

But the influence of local public sentiment will doubtless rapidly reassert itself under the machinery of a State government so as to justify the fears of those who cannot regard the Mormon question as settled. In Cassin, Oneida, and Bear Lake Counties the population is so overwhelmingly Mormon that the Gentile office-holders will be little more than carpet-baggers expending for schools and all local matters the taxes that have been levied upon those who have had no voice in raising them. Bingham County, if a single railroad town is excluded, is in scarcely any better condition. The effects of such a condition of things have been too evident in Ireland and at the South to need comment.

An important inquiry with all citizens of the State relates to the permanent population likely to occupy it in the future. At present the high price both of lead and of silver is pretty evidently giving an unnatural stimulus to the mining industries, and encouraging hopes in the Republican campaign that are likely to prove delusive. It is doubtful if the mining population will ever have a very large permanent increase. Nor is the railroad population likely ever to be a much more important factor than it now is. On the other hand, through irrigation schemes the agricultural population is likely to increase pretty rapidly. There is in immediate prospect a large increase of irrigated land in the vicinity of Eagle Rock which the Mormons will doubtless occupy. A great irrigating canal costing $1,000,000 is nearly completed in Ada County, which will make a large tract of desert land available for cultivation. Whether this will be occupied by Gentiles or Mormons it is impossible to tell. But the familiarity of the Mormons with that mode of cultivation, their general industrious habits, and their contentment to cultivate a small section of land all together will give them a great advantage in the race. As to manufactures, the absence of coal seems to put them out of the question, unless some of Ericsson's schemes for utilizing sunlight shall be put into effect in this land of cloudless sky and fierce midday heat.

I do not wish to throw any unnecessary damper upon the hopeful enthusiasm which leads so many to regard the Mormon question as settled in Idaho; yet it is important for all parties to face the real difficulties. The existence of such a hierarchy as their priesthood presents is certainly alarming, and perhaps calls for measures which, logically applied, would, in the opinion of great numbers of the people, exclude various acknowledged religious organizations and various secret orders from the ballot-box. But the boldness of the experiment almost takes the breath away from an Eastern man. The reply of the citizens is that we do not know the Mormons, that they are completely under the power of their Bishop, that they believe in a "higher law" than the Constitution, that their oath cannot be believed in things pertaining to Gentiles, that they committed the Mountain Meadow massacre, that the Chinese are the ruin of the country, and that the Indian is not fit to live. It is curious how these three classes are joined together in malediction. But for all this the Mormons, as we have met them, seem much like ordinary human beings who are laboring under a temporary religious delusion. Their congregations are not materially different from others in the vicinity. When called out, as the laymen habitually are, to give in public meeting a reason of the faith which is within them, they invariably respond with arguments that seem sincere, if not always cogent or logical. The great mass of the families could not be distinguished in their homes from those of the Gentiles. It certainly seems a hazardous experiment in popular government to attempt to punish a large body of such people, ignorant though they be, for the specific sins of their leaders; and hence we cannot regard the Mormon question as settled in Idaho.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

ENGLISH LIBRARIES AND LOCAL MUSEUMS.

CHESTER, September 7, 1890.

MY interest in libraries, muniments, and prehistoric records has direc ed my attention for many years to the means of bringing to a better state of usefulness and safety what we have to show in America in the material which is slowly placing our collections on a level with the accumulations of the Old World. Though I have sometimes had feelings of discouragement, there is not a little that is reassuring in the care which some of the older States have bestowed upon their archives, and in the steadfast purpose which some of our antiquarian and historical societies, and, indeed, some of our older families, have devoted to such interests. The general Government has, however, been seriously neglectful, and I suppose one must expect that long years are needed to bring such heterogeneous and incongruous elements as make up the body of Congress into any condition favorable to grappling with the problems that interest the student of the past so greatly. The national Legislature allowed the Library of Congress to become a disgrace before any movement could be completed that promised to insure for its collections security and order. It was mortifying to see Congress after Congress potter with the subject, till at last the contentions became vexatious, and in sheer despair they summarily rid themselves of the subject by committing the matter without restraints to the Chief of Engineers. When the American Historical Association was made a department of the Smithsonian Institution to secure some vantage ground to compass with Congress some measures in the interest of preserving our records, the bill was only got to the attention of the House by the devotion of weeks on the part of Mr. Phelan of Memphis, to secure its exemption from summary tabling on the part of politicians. Every historical student who has had occasion to consult the older records of the Government knows how ignorant he may find the custodians of them of what is really in their keeping. I have known two of the departments at Washington resolutely to declare they had not certain important papers; when forced to make a search, the documents were discovered, and in one case the department had bought the manuscripts within thirty years. The massing of archæological collections at Washington, instead of being invariably carried on in the interest of a science pure enough to await developments, have been in some cases formed in pursuance of theories. With all this against the higher hopes, there is no doubt that progress is making, and we

may yet live to see the literary, historic, and archæological wealth of Washington brought into a condition which will gratify the workers in those fields.

It has accordingly come naturally to me, during my present wanderings in England, to look pretty carefully into what I could find to be instructive in these respects. My route for two months has not taken me into the neighborhood as yet of the centres of such information, but I have not failed to note the lesser examples. I was glad to see at Salisbury that the Blakemore Museum, upon which Stephens based his well-known 'Flint-Chips,' is most admirably housed, and arranged so as to make its collections, in sequence and comparison, of the utmost interest to the students of prehistoric times. The Squier and Davis collection, which, during the engrossments of our civil war, we allowed to be taken from the country, is here added to the local antiquities which have made in so many places in England the study of the palæolithic and neolithic man the centre of so much energy. The public-library system in this country takes on, in its museums of antiquities, an adjunct in the popular instruction which we have failed in America to embrace in its agencies. The local antiquary and archæologist has here a recognized duty beside the public librarian. I found at Worcester, for instance, that the inner walls of the library building were painted with geological charts of the neighborhood, thus presenting to the minds of the young the place in the development of the country's surface of the remains to be seen in the cases. Similar helps, I was told, were arranged in the library at Shrewsbury, though the building was temporarily closed when I was there.

I have met everywhere with people who were popularizing a knowledge of the local British and Roman antiquities, and one cannot fail to see how the dissemination of such information makes more intelligent readers for such books as Green's 'Making of England.' I found at Tintagel, built in as part of the Cornish stile at the entrance of the village churchyard on the cliffs, a Roman incised stone, which everybody saw as the passage within was made. I found at Barnstaple the hotels and streets filled with the members of the North Devon Archæological Association, then holding a session there, and among them was a retired medical practitioner, who was emphasizing his interest in his own and Raleigh's native village by following every step of Sir Walter in his checkered career, and who knew perfectly well everything which had been done in America in illustration of Raleigh's connection with our own history. I found the municipality and leading citizens at Bath working out the problems of Roman civilization in the sumptuous baths which the luxurious imperialists left behind them, and in the carvings and relics which are sedulously preserved in their mu eum. The surprising Roman ruins of Uriconium (at the modern Wroxeter) near Shrewsbury have given important contributions to their museum, and I could but wonder that the vast area of the Roman town, as shown by the traces of its *vallum*, had not been explored beyond the extent of an acre or two. I never saw finer testimony to the constructive art of that people than the binding cement which holds to-day without the aid of arches, in firm consistency, the breach in the walls of the only extensive fragment still standing. Everybody knows how the Roman remnants here in Chester have been made, in its museum and *in situ*, to do their work of instruction.

I have not been struck as yet with the value of the Cathedral l braries as I have examined them. That at Bath was scant, and I was more interested in the old record-book of loans, which showed how some of the English scholars of the eighteenth century drew upon it during their sojourn under the bâton of Beau Nash. I am told that I shall find similar traces of Dr. Johnson's reading when I get to Lichfield. The newly arranged library of the college of the Cathedral at Wells was not so interesting as the restored hall in which it was kept, and in which a fine old oak ceiling had been disclosed under a coating of plaster and whitewash. The library at Worcester was not without attractiveness to the student of old books; but I could not help observing, as I did in others, that the long series of the Rolls Chronicles, which could be got gratis from the Government, constituted a large part of the current increase. The Chapter library at Worcester was well arranged, and a long and narrow space over one of the Cathedral aisles had been made very happily to fit the collection, with abundance of external light. One of the canons, who showed me the collection, handled the old folios lovingly, and I could see that it had users of no ordinary kind. At Chester I find the library lodged very conveniently in the Chapter-house, which shows, as many other parts of the Cathedral do, that arrangements have been adequately made by so ardent an ecclesiologist and scholarly critic as the late Dean Howson was. I looked with sad interest on his grave in the grass-plot of the cloisters, and was witness to the filial devotion of his daughters, who were at the moment adorning the grave with flowers, as they had done every week during the five years that he had been gone from them.

I have everywhere found the local historiographer gracing his leisure with a devotion to the literature of his county. A leading citizen of Bath showed me how the history of Bath, and the works of those who have been associated with its social annals, could afford him the scope for a large collection. When one looked upon the portraits by Gainsborough which hung on this gentleman's walls, and scanned the great mass of mural monuments which, under his care, had been rearranged on the walls of the aisles, after disburdening the columns of the nave of the Abbey church, where they had been offensive by their intrusiveness, and found that the atmosphere was redolent with such contrasted memories as those of Prynne and Quin, it was easy to believe that *Bathiana* must run to almost any extent.

Warwickshire and Shakspere are prëmi nent subjects for the local antiquary. I did not see the county literature which is stored in the library at Warwick Castle; but I went over with admiration the collection illustrative of Warwickshire in the Free Library at Birmingham, gathered, as it had been, with the kindly oversight of Mr. Timmins. It embraced manuscripts of interest, the spoils of ardent collectors of former years. This same gentleman introduced me to a citizen of Coventry, who diversified his interests for many years as a teacher in the old school of that town by his antiquarian tastes, which led him to form a library of over ten thousand volumes bearing on Warwickshire annals, and fitted him to become the chief mentor of the architect in the restoration of the beautiful St. Michael's Church. The municipal muniments of Coventry preserved in St. Mary's Hall, amid the memories of Queen Elizabeth and her rival, are some of the most impressive which I have seen in local repositories.

That which is doing for Shakspere's fame both in Stratford and Birmingham is gratifying. When, ten years ago, the Free Library of the latter place was burned, and with it the large collection which they had formed of Shaksperian books, the collection was fortunately insured, and this money, together with the generosity of the sympathy which the loss engendered, has enabled the Committee, mainly in this department acting through the wide knowledge of Mr. Timmins, to rebuild a collection of far larger proportions, and I was struck with the list of desiderata in editions of Shakspere, because of its smallness. This list, however, does not include their considerable deficiencies in the early quartos and folios of Shakspere, which they look to receive—as they doubtless will in time—from the munificence of individuals rather than from the public taxes. Except for an increased security from such dispersement, it hardly seemed to me desirable that the energies of the librarians in this direction should be divided into separate channels, as in the three collections of this Shaksperian region—that already mentioned and the two at Stratford, of which last one is at the Birthplace and the other in the Memorial Theatre, so munificently supported by Mr. Flower. I soon perceived the warm devotion of Mr. Savage in the museum and library in Henley Street, as I turned over with him the manuscripts of the loving Shaksperians of the past which are garnered there, and the wonderfully complete town records of Stratford, which are in his custody in a muniment-room constructed in the lower story of the old house. I found him in the midst of investigations which he thought were going to show that Charlecote had no deer park in Shakspere's day, and that *Justice Shallow* must have a prototype of other affinities at least. I looked with interest on the long row of bound notebooks, labelled each with the name of a Shaksperian play, which had been the accumulation of Halliwell's industry, and had been given by him to the Birthplace library.

I have no purpose to make a tourist's record of what I saw in Stratford, but two things I observed more closely because I had the benefit of the assistance in exploring of Mr. Timmins and of the vicar of the church. I found in the old school building which the boy Shakspere frequented, that only recently had a crumbling of the plaster revealed, at one end of the old hall in which Shakspere saw his first play, the traces of a mural painting upon which he must have gazed. In the choir of the church I found that the dead wall which has heretofore filled in the lower part of the window against which the bust of Shakspere is placed, has been knocked away; and I was glad to learn that the friends of Shaksperian scholarship were to fill the space with a memorial window inscribed with the name of Halliwell.

I have looked, as will be noticed, occasionally into a private library in my wanderings. I found Freeman at Somerlease, with his books scattered in various rooms, largely indicative of the well-known range of his studies; and though I sat up with him in talk one night till one o'clock, he told me at breakfast that he had been at work on the siege of Malta since six. This is an episode in his 'History of Sicily,' now in progress; and there was little in the diversified currents of conversation at his dinner-table that did not serve to tap the fulness of his acquaintance with that Mediterranean theme. I saw the proofs of his first volume; and the two volumes which I suspect will be welcomed by scholars this winter, will make but a bare beginning of his protracted story. I went into one or two private libraries at Worcester, and

there was much to make the bibliophile gaze in the Shakspere folios and other rarities that grace an ancient and vaulted room in the deanery. I found the Dean of Gloucester cosily and delightfully closeted away amid his books in a corner of the beautiful cloisters of his cathedral, and I thought that never a sacred pile looked so impressive as I glanced from the books to the wonderful uplifting of the cathedral above the cloisters.

I remarked in what I said of family libraries in English country-houses, some years ago, that there had come a change over the manners of the country gentry in respect to libraries, and it had in large part come about by the introduction of the Mudie subscription system. There seemed to be few of the representatives of old families buying books in these days: they depended on the weekly boxes from the London subscription libraries. Lord Spencer, with all his rightful pride in the great library at Althorpe, told me he never bought books. I remember asking once the late Mr. Charles Francis Adams if, in his experience in visiting country families while he was our Minister, he had found this dearth of purchased books in their libraries, and he told me he had. It was some relief, then, to find the other day, at Eaton Hall, that there was one nobleman in England, and he the richest of his countrymen and living in the most princely of residences, who had not given up the wholesome habit of forming a library. His collection even now is not a very large one, and is in no way remarkable, except, as is rather singular, in Puritan tracts. It is the amassment of a gentleman interested in intellectual stimulants, with no very decided tastes, a cultivator of that most gentlemanly accomplishment, whose purposes are so often misestimated, namely, a smattering of acquirements. As his chaplain and librarian courteously led me through the beautiful room where the family find their reading, and I stopped here and there at the shelves, I could see by the appearance of the books that Thoreau and Lowell were not strangers to their minds, and New England history had so good a representative as Palfrey. I was glad to accede to a request to give them the titles of other recent American books. It was also a satisfaction to observe that in all the complete appurtenances of the highest type of an English household, where the master of all was not without the most commendable domestic habits—where he kept in his hall the axes with which he wanders about his park to score the trees that the woodman may fell—he was not unmindful of the family muniments, and had them preserved in a fire-proof room. I saw some of them, with their seals, going back to the times of the Conqueror, when the Grosveneurs were in his train. These parchments were just at the moment affording his librarian the task of making an index. I found that the Royal Historical MS. Commission had already been before me, and had noted for scholars' use what there is of historic interest in these household manuscripts. I shall have something more to say of the operation of this Commission in another letter, and I hope I may yet see Congress willing to fashion a similar Commission for the preservation and registry of our own American records.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

BOURGET'S CŒUR DE FEMME.

PARIS, September 4, 1890.

NOVEL-READING goes on at the same pace as novel-writing. I am often amazed at the amount of novels published nowadays every year; I believe that, on the average, it could safely be said that each day of the year has its new novel. Of these numerous productions, which are seen in our book-shops and railway-stations, with catching and multicolor title-pages, how many will be remembered and read in the future? It would probably be an exaggeration to say that hardly eight or ten of these novels deserve to be read to-day. The hunger for novels is such, however, that they nearly all find some readers, and we now count by many thousands the copies which are sold of a novel when it bears the name of some popular writer, such as Daudet, Dumas, Zola, or Guy de Maupassant.

Among the rising stars of the day I must cite one as deserving special mention, viz., M. Paul Bourget. Like many of our most successful writers, Bourget came out of the École Normale, the school which trains the professors of the French University. He soon abandoned the routine of public education, and first published critical articles on our best French writers. These articles were marked by a very delicate taste and a peculiar refinement of style and of thought. Literary criticism is not, however, the road to popularity nor to pecuniary success, and Bourget began to write novels. He struck immediately a new vein: his novels are not sensational; his stories are of the most simple sort. They are not complicated; they are simply the development of the most ordinary passions, but this development is accompanied by the most subtle analysis: Bourget's novels may be called psychological novels.

Nobody has ever better understood what may be called the fatality of passion. It is with an almost painful minuteness that Bourget describes the struggles of the human will with the human instinct, of conscience and duty with the irresistible movements of the carnal heart. In this sense, Bourget may be classed in the realistic school, for he is a keen observer and only describes what he has observed, but he is not a realist of the Zola school. He cares little for material details, he indulges little in descriptions of things; the *milieu* in which his heroes and heroines move only interests him by its relation to the state of their souls. This tendency gives to all his works a spiritual character; thoughts and feelings interest him more than anything else.

He also separates himself from the common naturalistic and realistic school by the fact that he has no preference for low people, for vulgarity; on the contrary, he prefers to live with people of society, of the highest, richest, most refined, and civilized society, probably because he expects to find in this society the greatest complexity of human passions. He does not belong to the school of those who mean to simplify themselves, if I may be allowed to use this Russian expression. Simplicity has no peculiar charm for him; he is an analyzer, and there is nothing to analyze in what is too simple. Human nature is the same in the highest walks of life as in the most humble stations; but where there is wealth, and the power which wealth confers, the leisure which leaves the mind and the soul in constant freedom, it is natural that temptations should be greater, that the play of human passion should become more active and more entangled. Bourget's novels do not belong to the class which our English neighbors call silver-forky—novels in which you all the time feel the sentiment which Thackeray defined by the words, "meanly to admire mean things," and to which he has attached the term snobbishness. Bourget likes to dissect elegant young women, men of fashion and of pleasure, but his sympathies go with the enthusiast, the poet, the simple and pure spirits who are thrown amid the confusion of a perverse and wicked world.

In the work called 'Mensonges,' which gave him his great popularity (though he had already written some exquisite books), his hero is a young poet, full of illusions, who becomes the prey and for a while the victim of a woman of the world, who has two lovers at the time, and is nevertheless adored by her husband. The success of 'Mensonges' was very great. People thought that they could recognize all the actors; names were pronounced which are all well known in Parisian circles; the quiet perversity of the heroine reminded many of the Mme. Marneffe of Balzac's 'Cousine Bette,' and it is clear that Bourget is often inspired by Balzac (when he is not by Henri Beyle). He is, it seems to me, the only writer of the day who can put society ladies well on the scene as Balzac did his Duchesse de Maufrigneuse, etc. This acquaintance with the ways of the world is even better shown in Bourget's last novel, 'Cœur de Femme.'* I confess to have read it twice, with a painful interest. The conception of 'Cœur de Femme' is morbid, but the author's faculty of analysis was never better shown. One of his first novels was called 'L'Irréparable'; and the name was well chosen. Nobody better understands than Bourget the irreparable character of a fault, of a sin, as well as the fatality which leads the sinner to his doom. A friend of mine, who is a Protestant, once told me that he greatly admired confession in the Catholic doctrine. It seemed to him that, as the proverb says, "Péché confessé est à moitié pardonné." He longed for the absolution which would wash the soul and make it white again. Humanly speaking, there is no complete absolution; what has been, has been, and we can no more abolish the memory of a fault, and its moral consequences, than we can hinder a stone from falling when it is thrown in the air.

Mme. de Tillière is a lady of the best society; her reputation is perfect, and the breath of calumny has never touched her; she lives, however, secretly with M. de Poyanne, for whom she has a great admiration. Poyanne is a rising statesman, whose eloquence has won him a great popularity. He is the chief representative in the House of Deputies of a new school of Conservatives and Royalists; he is an ardent Catholic and a sort of Christian Socialist. If you wished to compare him to anybody, you might compare him to M. de Mun or to Montalembert. Why do two such persons as Mme. de Tillière and Poyanne conceal their mutual passion? It is because Poyanne is already married. His wife is in an insane asylum, and he must wait till she dies before his secret engagement to Mme. de Tillière can be made public.

You see at once the difficulties of such a position; you imagine what it must cost two high-minded, enthusiastic natures to cover themselves with perpetual deceit. They both suffer from the strangeness of their existence; they are to each other a secret remorse and reproach, though they are bound to each other by the most sacred ties. Poyanne finds consolation in his ardent love for Madame de Tillière, in his work, in his active life. She on her part is idle; her love is not ardent—she has mistaken admiration for love; she respects Poyanne, but her respect becomes every day colder. She is not conscious of the gradual change; she struggles against her own confused sentiments; she is in a highly nervous and agi-

*'Cœur de Femme.' Paris: A. Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern.

tated condition, and finally she becomes ready for the tempter.

The tempter comes to her in the most unexpected way and form. There is a man whose name she has never heard pronounced without obloquy; a man famous for his duels, his gambling habits, his reckless expenditure, his conquests—a sort of Don Juan, hard, shrewd, clever, intelligent, and heartless. How does Casal, for such is the name of our Parisian Don Juan, come across her? How is she led to him, by curiosity, by a desire to give him good advice, by the hope of saving him and of touching in his heart the chords which nobody has yet touched? How does Casal himself, so accustomed to easy conquests, so corrupt, so selfish, find himself by degrees drawn into an entirely new world of thought and of feeling? How does he become in his turn the slave of that passion of love which he has always professed to master? And how, finally, do these two creatures, coming from the most opposite poles, find themselves led towards each other by a sort of inexorable fatality? The answers to all these questions must be looked for in the book itself, and there only you will find the delicate shades of this extraordinary transformation.

Poyanne finds out the truth: he is no longer loved, and Casal is loved. The two men, under a futile pretext, call each other out, and Mme. de Tillière must, at any price, prevent the duel. She finds no other way than to go to Casal's house and ask him not to fight. Hitherto she had preserved her purity, though she had lost her heart; now it is all over: she becomes the mistress of Casal. For an hour only; she wakes from a sort of dream, and is horrified at herself and her own action. She will never see Casal again; when he thinks that he can put her, at last, on his list of victims, when he himself feels for the first time in his life real love, she disappears. Her mother is still living; she goes with her to the country, buries herself in solitude, and, when her mother dies, enters a convent.

The book ends with these lines, which contain the whole philosophy of Bourget's works: Casal is on board a steamer, and meditates "on this sea and under this sky, less infinite and less changing, less mysterious, less dangerous, and less magnificent also than can be, through tempest and calm, the passions and the sacrifices, the contrasts and the sufferings of that thing which it is impossible thoroughly to understand—a woman's heart."

Correspondence.

STEEL RAILS AND PAUPER LABOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Yesterday, while knocking about the Calumet River, I had the curiosity to pull into the slip of the Illinois Steel Co., whose extensive works are located in this place. There an unusual sight met my eye. Generally one can see the company's steamers unloading ore from Lake Superior points. But the *Roswell P. Flower* was not unloading; she was loading. For fear my eyes deceived me, I inquired what her cargo was: *steel rails*, and *for Canada*.

I spoke never a word, but as I rowed home I fell a prey to reminiscences. It was only a few years ago that the company told the men who asked for higher wages (which they got, by the way) that if prices fell below $75 and $80 a ton (as indeed they did), it would be necessary to close down the works (which was done later, but for the purpose of enlarging them to accommodate the rapidly increasing business).

It was only a few years ago that I had had thrust into my hands, for I was working in the mill at the time, a cheap and lying pamphlet by one Swank, to prove that it was impossible for us to compete with the pauper labor of England; that English workmen lived in hovels, had meat only once a week, and were indescribably miserable; that to compete with them we must come down to their level; and that until the American workman was prepared thus to degrade himself, we never could sell rails as cheaply as England, etc., etc. This was the stock argument of the protectionist mill owners in those days: "We can stand it, men, but it will be awfully hard on you to come down to the level of the pauper labor of Europe. We can stand it to run on half time, but as true American patriots we hate to cut your wages and see you degraded, forced to live in close, ill-ventilated tenements, starve on insufficient food, and freeze in winter, while your wife and children die by your helpless side—all because you *will vote* the Democratic ticket."

Well, now, what has happened? The price of rails has come down, and that same mill is competing, and successfully, too, with the aforesaid pauper labor. Has the mill closed? No, indeed; on the contrary, the company have been busy adding to their already enormous plant, putting in new blast furnaces, new docks, new shops; running at the full capacity of 40,000 tons a month. And the men—do they starve and freeze in hovels? Apparently not. They can be seen any day about the streets, well dressed, their families comfortably provided for. Their children are kept neat and clean, and are sent to school. In the homes of the better-paid workmen one finds good furniture and often a piano or organ, and some books, technical, political, or historic. The Swedes and Poles are the poorest paid of all the workmen; yet the Polish church is a large and expensive building, and the Swedes have recently put up a second church of their own, which is really a creditable structure. In fact, as I saw the rails going into the hold of the *Flower* yesterday, I began to realize how true the predictions had turned out that we wicked free-traders had made eight and ten years ago. We are successfully competing with the much-heralded pauper labor, the mill is running full time, the men are earning as good wages as ever, and they have lived to see the whole protection argument knocked into a cocked hat.

And how about the owners who so calmly faced the men and drew a ghastly picture of European labor toiling for a shilling a day, of banked furnaces, smokeless stacks, starving workmen, etc., etc.? Sold out at a round figure and gone to Europe; and are now probably laughing in their sleeves at the economic ignorance and credulity of the American workman. That is all very well; but wait awhile—the American workingman is waking up. Free-Trader.

South Chicago, September 17, 1890.

THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL AND THE HIGHER CRITICISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish, with your kind permission, to offer one or two suggestions on some points raised by your correspondent "B. E. H.," in No. 1315 (September 11), who has conscientious scruples about teaching the Old Testament to his Sunday-school class.

"B. E. H." finds his love of truth in conflict with his early religious training. He is not alone in that. The disease is epidemic and contagious. The only way to escape it is to let the "Higher Criticism," or any other criticism, alone. Criticism and the Sunday-school are incompatible.

But the trouble with many of us is, that criticism will not let us alone. The modern spirit lays hold of us, whether we will or not, and makes the Sunday-school seem "stale, flat, and unprofitable"—as ancient as the Deluge. I suggest that those intended for Sunday-school teachers shall not be taught to read.

To those upon whom the "Higher Criticism" has fastened its relentless grasp, I suggest that the Sunday-school is no place for them. They should not remain in it pretending to believe what they do not believe, and to teach what they do not teach. They should get out. "B. E. H." seems to forget that the very fact of holding certain positions, and allowing one's self to be called by certain names, carries with it implications which one cannot escape.

"Not a few of the children taught in this disingenuous way are attacked by serious doubts as they grow older." By "disingenuous way" I take it "B. E. H." means the way children are usually taught in Sunday-schools. I raise the question whether Sunday-school teaching can possibly be other than disingenuous. To induce children, by whatever means, to profess their belief in propositions the import of which they are totally unable to comprehend, the evidence of which they are totally unable to examine, is to practise a fraud upon them which may well lead them to doubt not only the truth of the propositions, but the honesty of those who take this unfair advantage of their ignorance and immaturity. Whether or not this is a case in which fraud is justifiable, I do not here inquire.

"To conclude the whole matter," "B. E. H." asks, "Why shall we not have the courage of our convictions and act intelligently about them?" A difficult question. Why we *do* not have the courage of our convictions, is not so difficult. A partial explanation is found in the fact that only a short time ago it was very dangerous, and is still very unpleasant and inconvenient, to have the courage of one's convictions. Bruno and Servetus had the courage of their convictions. Is it too much to say that to this day we feel the heat of the flames in which they perished?

Again, society, public sentiment, does not require that we should practise honesty in the matter of our beliefs. It encourages just the opposite course. And for this laxness there are good reasons. It is the effect of causes that have been in operation for centuries. To set them forth would require a volume. I cannot refrain from saying here, however, that honesty in the matter of opinion will not be demanded by public sentiment until the evils of the opposite course are more widely and keenly felt. Men feel most keenly those acts of their fellows which affect their lives and property most directly. The injury that is inflicted upon society by the prevalent practice of concealing our real opinions and professing, either openly or tacitly, opinions which we do not hold, is too remote and indirect to be keenly felt by the masses at the present day. For some time, doubtless, society will go on putting a premium on false pretence and trampling honest men under foot, and we shall go on lying about our beliefs in certain matters, without feeling that we are a whit more dishonest than our neighbors. A. F. H.

HYPHENATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your paper of September 18, "F. L. P." suggests the use of the "German double hyphen [=] . . . to connect the parts of a compound word, reserving the single hyphen to indicate a break caused by the alignment." The difficulty in dividing a compound word at the hyphen is plain, and "F. L. P.'s" remedy is a good one; but a simpler way in such a case would be to use two hyphens, one at the end of the line containing the fore-part of the compound word to be divided and the other beginning the following line. I have used the hyphen in this way for several years. It seems natural and could not easily be misunderstood; and no one need hesitate to adopt it because it is not common usage. Furthermore, the "double hyphen" could be used for other purposes: for instance, to help the overworked comma.

I respectfully assure "F. L. P." that I have no treacherous design in making this suggestion.

William W. Anderson.

Washington, D. C., September 20, 1890.

THE STACCATO CHEER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "staccato cheer" was used by the "Wide Awakes," as the Republican campaign clubs were called, during the campaign of 1856, and was invented, I suspect, by them to reduce the labor of cheering when they marched in torchlight processions. As a mechanical device to save vocal wear and tear, it has certain merits. Its other attractions are not so conspicuous to at least one

Elderly Graduate.

Boston, September 18, 1890.

[We are certain that its introduction at Harvard post-dated the commencement of the war.—Ed. Nation.]

THE ARCHITECTURE AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I trust that Mr. Van Brunt's interesting letter in this week's *Nation* may have an adequate answer from some competent hand.

I fear he is right in saying that the later Harvard buildings express the civilization of the time. But the University ought to criticise, reprove, and correct the civilization of the time—that is a large part of its function. *Its* buildings ought not to be monuments of pretentious ugliness, inappropriateness, and disorder. Mr. Van Brunt seems to think they should be valued and respected whatever the qualities they express. His plea would cover such monstrosities as the "Public Buildings" of Philadelphia and the United States Post-office in New York, which are, I suppose, for their size and cost, as ugly structures as can be found in the world. Yet they, alas! only too accurately express some of the most marked characteristics of the civilization of our country and age.

I rejoice at Mr. Norton's suggestion that the buildings should be pulled down as unsuited to the noble, civilizing functions of a great university.

A Harvard A. M.

September 20, 1890.

Notes.

"The new volume of the 'American Catalogue' will cover the period July 1, 1884, to June 30, 1890. The edition will be 1,250 copies only, and there will be no reissue. . . . This work is indispensable to the bookstore or library. About 100 copies each remain of the Subject Catalogue of 1876 . . . and of the Catalogue of 1876–84." So reads the advertisement of this enterprise, whose publication office is 330 Pearl Street, N. Y., in the new issue of the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual.' Nothing is more sure than that the 'American Catalogue' will become a scarce work, and that many a library, public and private, will deplore the lack of it when too late. If its deserts as a national work of which we should be proud, or as a useful book of reference in any cultivated home, were understood, an edition three times as large would be in request. Of the 'Trade-List Annual' we need say nothing further than that for the eighteenth time the publishers of the United States bind their catalogues together and sell the collection for a sum which hardly exceeds the cost of binding.

The Executive Committee of the Selden Society have decided that the fourth volume of the Society's publications shall contain a very interesting and hitherto unpublished collection of precedents in French for proceedings in Manorial Courts. The date of the collection is doubtful, but is certainly not later than 1350. The rest of the volume will consist of actual cases from Court Rolls. The volume will be edited by Professor Maitland of Cambridge and Mr. W. Paley Baildon of Lincoln's Inn. The fifth volume will consist of the well-known 'Mirror,' edited from the only MS. in existence, with a translation and a commentary. The third volume is nearly ready. The annual subscription is $5.18, payable in America to Professor William A. Keener, Columbia Law School, New York. Each subscriber will receive a copy of all the publications issued in respect of the subscription for the year. Subscribers paying now $20.72 will receive a copy of the volumes published by the Society for the years 1887, 1888, 1889, and the volume for 1890 when published.

A really important announcement is that of Julius Bien & Co. of this city, the leading cartographic establishment in the United States, that they have nearly ready an 'Atlas of the Metropolitan District,' comprising the environs of New York within a radius of fifty miles. The maps will be engraved on copper and printed in color, and "will give on a large scale all the details of the topography, hydrography, and economic features" of the area in question, with population according to the new census (would it were some other!). For the New Jersey side the material was already available in the State survey; for the rest, special surveys were necessary. The volume will not be costly.

The *Century* Company is about to begin issuing in ten volumes the 'Life of Lincoln,' by Messrs. Hay and Nicolay, but by subscription only. To the regular trade will be offered the 'Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson,' also partly known to the public through the pages of the *Century Magazine*; 'Another Brownie Book,' by Palmer Cox; and 'Santa Claus on a Lark,' a book of Christmas stories, by Washington Gladden.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'Sidney,' by Mrs. Deland, and 'Piero da Castiglione,' a story-poem by Stuart Sterne.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly bring out a two-volume work on Psychology, by Prof. William James of Harvard.

A work on Socialism, by Prof. Richard T. Ely, is in preparation for T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Fleming H. Revell announces a wholly new and authorized edition of Matthew Henry's 'Commentary' in six octavo volumes.

Thomas Whittaker publishes directly 'The Makers of Modern English: A Handbook to the Greater Poets of the Century,' by William J. Dawson.

Ginn & Co. have in press the second part of Tarbell's 'Lessons in Language.'

'Races and Peoples,' a review of the whole domain of ethnography, by Dr. D. G. Brinton; and 'The Time-Relations of Mental Phenomena,' by Prof. Joseph Jastrow, are to be published by N. D. C. Hodges of this city.

Bernard Quaritch, London, proposes to publish 'The Saga Library,' edited by William Morris in conjunction with Eirikr Magnusson. It will consist of a series of translations of Icelandic works of the thirteenth and first part of the fourteenth centuries. Another enterprise of the same publisher is 'The First Half-Century of the Latin Bible,' a bibliography for the period 1450–1500, by W. A. Copinger. But 250 copies will be printed.

The autumn list of T. Fisher Unwin, London, includes 'Gypsy Sorcery and Fortune-Telling,' by Charles Godfrey Leland; 'Travels with the Beduins,' by Gray Hill; 'The Vikings in Western Christendom (A. D. 789–888),' by C. F. Keary; 'Nelson,' by G. Lathom Browne; a reprint of Mary Wollstonecraft's 'Vindication of the Rights of Woman,' with an introduction by Mrs. Henry Fawcett, tracing the development of the theory of the equality of the sexes to the present day; and 'National Life and Thought,' lectures on various nations of the world by Prof. Thorold Rogers, W. R. Morfill, J. Theodore Bent, and others.

From Macmillan & Co.'s autumn list of publications we select 'Landmarks of Homeric Study,' by Mr. Gladstone, who has planned this work for America; a translation of Dr. Carl Schuchhardt's 'Schliemann's Excavations at Troy, etc.,' presented in the light of recent knowledge; 'The Greek World under Roman Sway,' and a 'History of Greek Literature,' by Prof. J. P. Mahaffy; 'A Geography of Europe,' by James Sime; 'The Ruined Abbeys of Yorkshire,' by A. Brunet-Debaines; 'The Oxford Movement,' by R. W. Church, Dean of St. Paul's; 'Chronological Outlines of English Literature,' by F. Ryland; 'Selections from English Prose Writers,' edited, in five volumes, by Henry Craik, on the plan of Ward's 'English Poets'; 'Elements of Politics,' by Henry Sidgwick; 'A Manual of Public Health,' by A. Winter Blyth; and the 'Buccaneers and Marooners of America,' by Howard Pyle—in the entertaining "Adventure Series."

Macmillan & Co. will, in addition to the foregoing, publish 'The Book of the Forty-five Mornings,' by Rudyard Kipling, who, in a letter addressed to them on September 9, denies having given authority to any other house in this country to issue the work, or that he has received any royalties from John W. Lovell & Co., who announce "a special arrangement" with the author for an edition of their own.

A school and college edition of Sidney's 'Defence of Poetry' (Ginn & Co.), by Prof. A. S. Cook of Yale, adopts the classical text-book model in its most extreme form. There are fifty-eight pages of text and seventy-five pages of notes in finer type, besides an introduction and index. The text of Sidney is not difficult to understand, and his style in this work approaches the modern, but he is rich in allusions and in ideas derived from the ancients, and so may be submitted to this elaborate annotation. Considerable space is occupied, too, by the citation of parallel passages in other authors. For

those who think it desirable to have literature studied in this way, the book is as complete as could be wished. The editor, to judge by the specimen questions which he prints, would make the volume a text-book of literary knowledge on a still more extended scale, as he requires the collateral reading of Xenophon's 'Cyropædia,' the 'Utopia,' Plutarch's 'Alexander,' three of Virgil's 'Eclogues' (besides the character of Æneas and the tale of Turnus), a play of Shakspere, the Odyssey, a portion of the 'Iliad' and of Ariosto, besides "brief accounts" of the earliest Latin, Greek, and English literatures, three poetical extracts from the Bible, the biography of Miltiades, and anecdotes of Phalaris and Dionysius; and these "suggestions" are not meant to be "exhaustive." This is a striking example of the disproportion into which such a mode of studying literature tends to run.

The fifth volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell & Co.) carries on the history of fourteenth-century literature, and is devoted to Wyclif and Chaucer. The increase of Wyclif literature during the last thirty years makes a compendious account of his life and works, such as this, of exceptional value, and none will regret the scale upon which Prof. Morley has conceived the essay. Chaucer is treated of with great detail, both as man and writer: the facts of his life, the discussion of the authenticity of his works, and abstracts of their contents make 265 pages, much of it in close print. The volume thus maintains the encyclopædic character of its predecessors, with little literary criticism and much learning, but without sinking into mere compilation. Under Chaucer, for example, the author advances his own judgment against some conclusions of Prof. Ten Brink.

That just medium of the annotator between the too much and the too little which has distinguished the Shakspere text-books of Dr. Rolfe and made them exceptionally good for school use, marks the latest of his works, the 'Poems' (Harpers), in which are included revisions of his previous editions of some of the poems. The volume is a library edition, and contains all poems (apart from those in the plays) thought to be Shakspere's. Those pieces from the 'Passionate Pilgrim' which are not his are given in the notes, where, too, the 1599 edition of 'Venus and Adonis' is collated. Dr. Rolfe, as usual, has made use of the critical work of other authors in his introduction, and in the Sonnets has indebted himself very much to Dowden's edition in the notes as well. He adds at the end a brief account of the evidence to connect the Sonnets with Mary Fytton. A few engravings are introduced by way of ornament rather than of illustration, though we should except that of Mary Fytton's effigy from her tomb.

It sounds fitting that three Italians should unite in illustrating "Romeo and Juliet." This is what Ludovic Marchetti, Lucius Rossi, and Oreste Cortazzo have done, in color and in monochrome, and Raphael Tuck & Sons have made a fair-looking folio of the text for the display of so much ornamentation. The result, however, is neither imagination nor noticeably good draughtsmanship, and the archæology (looked after by Signor Rossi) hardly counts. The spirit of melodrama pervades the compositions.

A number of new editions are grouped on our table. From Macmillan we have Southey's 'Life of Nelson' and the 'Essays of Elia.' The former belongs in the series intended for Indian schools, or for "Oriental students of the English language," to whom Southey's latest editor, Prof. Michael Macmillan, recommends the Life as a wholesome corrective of "a style embellished with florid ornamentation." The notes in this series are obviously for foreigners, and explain such common expressions as "to repair to their respective frigates," "not upon good terms with," etc.; but when the editor attempts to correct Southey's English, in "the two first ships," he is on dangerous ground, "Adams' *English Language*, §522" to the contrary notwithstanding. The 'Essays of Elia' (if we do not mistake, a resetting of the "Temple" edition) has the guarantee of Mr. Augustine Birrell for the scrupulousness of the text, and he furnishes the introduction. The new form is less handy than the old, the type is small, and the presswork pale. The Messrs. Putnam send us a cheapened, popular reissue of Nadaillac's 'Prehistoric America,' with Mr. Dall's competent editing—to all intents and purposes as good a book as its dearer predecessor; and the "Vandyke Edition" of Amicis's 'Holland and its People,' in large print with heterogeneous illustrations, the body of which we would, for our part, have exchanged for an index. Charles Scribner's Sons revive Prof. Guyot's 'The Earth and Man,' printed from new plates, with additional patching in the appendices. The twelfth and final chapter, "History and Geography," is too futile and obsolete to be worth retaining, and should have been excised. This is no longer the year 1848. The same house have produced two really charming volumes in a "Cameo Edition"—so called from the embellishment of the cover—out of Mr. Cable's 'Old Creole Days' and Thomas Nelson Page's 'In Ole Virginia' ("Marse Chan," etc.). Each has an etched frontispiece, and both will be in demand for holiday gifts, since we may speak no longer of summer reading. Both show the negro still dominant in our literature, as he has been in our politics for sixty years.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. give a new lease of life in a pretty dress to Thomas Hughes's 'Alfred the Great,' and have added to their delectable "Riverside Classics" a new edition of Dr. John Brown's 'Rab and his Friends, and Other Dogs and Men'; "Marjorie Fleming," the exquisite memoir of the author's father, and the estimate of Dr. Chalmers, being the chief of the non-canine matter. In the memoir, on p. 169, it were but just to Dr. Brown and to Wordsworth to repair the maimed extract from the lines to Hartley Coleridge; and justice to Rab called for better press-work on the title-page, where there is an amorphous vignette that needs at least two glances to be interpreted, in the manner of Lewis Carroll's nonsense verses:

> "He thought he saw a Banker's Clerk
> Descending from the bus:
> He looked again, and found it was
> A Hippopotamus."

The frontispiece is a fine portrait of John Brown.

The Riverside Edition of Mr. Lowell's Writings proceeds apace with vols. 3 and 4. These contain the Essays on Shakspere, Dryden, Chaucer, Pope, Milton, Dante, Spenser, Wordsworth, White of Selborne ("My Garden Acquaintance"), "A Good Word for Winter," and the much-read "On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners." We need hardly repeat our remarks on the beauty of this reissue, of which six volumes are yet to come.

Amid the debate over the architecture visible and desirable at Harvard College, we receive from the publisher, Mr. J. Eastman Chase of Boston, a large etching (12x17) of the new gateway. The artist, Mr. Charles H. Woodbury, has well chosen for his purpose the central feature of the design, to the exclusion of the wings, and, by diminishing the height of the elm just in front of the gate, has picturesquely exaggerated the towering effect of the belfry of the adjacent Harvard Hall, with which the view is cut off. He has followed, with some license, a well-known photograph (taken, by the way, in the leafless season), and has thus secured substantial accuracy of proportion and detail, at the sacrifice of some larger qualities which an original drawing might have resulted in. But many Harvard graduates will be glad to own this souvenir of a construction which would seem to have evoked a disproportionate amount of attention, were it not that too commonly "architecture" is looked upon as having no concern with such trivialities, and that this gate is likely to alter the whole scheme of the enclosure of the college yard, with perhaps still wider consequences for the better.

A new quarterly magazine of philosophy, science, religion, and sociology, the *Monist*, is to be launched on October 1 by the Open Court Publishing Company of Chicago. An imposing list of colaborers is given, American and foreign.

Another new venture is the *Tribune Monthly*, a reprinting in magazine form of the more valuable matter from the daily *Tribune* which used to be consigned to "Extras." No. 1, for September, is devoted to "A Summer at Chautauqua," with process illustrations.

—The second volume of the *Archiv für Soziale Gesetzgebung und Statistik* (Tübingen: H. Laupp; New York: International News Company), is a stately book of nearly 700 pages, attractively printed in Roman type on good paper, and containing a number of well-written and interesting articles on a wide range of subjects, as well as copious information concerning recent legislation in Europe on economic topics. The striking feature in this, as in most of the remarkably numerous German periodicals devoted to the science of economics, is, if not always a socialistic leaning, at least a consciousness on the part of the writers that socialistic demands and theories are to be dealt with in a conciliatory manner. Indeed, the leading article, one of 136 pages, on the draft of a new civil code for the German Empire as it will affect the working classes, is an emanation of the rankest Socialism, filled, not only with the bald sophisms which constitute the staple of all socialistic and protectionist writings, but with the most perverse misrepresentation of facts and insidious incitement to class antagonisms. What makes the appearance of such an article in a serious scientific publication more remarkable is the fact that its author, Dr. Anton Menger, is Professor of Law at the University of Vienna. It must be admitted that some of the articles are quite free from bias, socialistic or otherwise. Dr. P. F. Aschrott, a Berlin judge, who visited this country in 1888, contributes an intelligent and candid account of Trusts, particularly the Standard Oil Trust and the Sugar Trust, and expresses the opinion that the public reprobation of them is partly due to exaggerated and excited newspaper clamor. Among other articles may be mentioned one on agrarian legislation in Rumania, showing a deplorable condition of the peasantry; one attributing the downfall of the Roman Empire also to the deplorable condition of the agricultural class; one on the Truck system of Great Britain and the laws directed against it; one on the status of factory operatives in Russia; one on the French census of 1886, etc., etc. The variety of topics, as will be inferred from the above brief and imperfect account, is wide enough; but the one prevailing impression received by

an American reader will be that of astonishment at the childlike faith of writers and legislators on the continent of Europe in the efficacy of legislation in reforming economic evils, and in removing economic conditions, which have been naturally evolved in the progress of civilization, and must ultimately be dealt with in the self-reliant and self-restraining spirit to which all human civilization is due.

—A new composer has appeared in Italy who, we are informed, promises to write operas worthy of being known outside of his own country. The promise, of course, *may* not be kept, but its present look is brilliant. It consists in an opera, or, as it styles itself, a *melodramma*, in a single act, called "Cavalleria Rusticana" (Homespun Chivalry), written by a young man named Pietro Mascagni. He is the son of a baker of Leghorn. Count Florestano de Larderel took it upon himself to give the youth the benefit of a musical education at the Conservatory of Milan, and Sonzogno, the proprietor of the *Secolo* of that city, stimulated the production of this first fruit of Mascagni's talent by offering three prizes for the three best operas to be submitted to him. The works that gained the first and the third prizes will perhaps never be heard of again; but the second prize was the "Cavalleria Rusticana," which last spring was a great success at Rome and afterwards at Leghorn, where the young composer's townsmen burst into and filled the theatre at the last rehearsal, and at the first representation even bore down the soldiery placed on guard, and took the house by storm. The new opera will be heard next winter at Turin, Milan, Bologna, Genoa, Florence, Naples, and perhaps elsewhere. The libretto was taken from the "Scene Popolari" of Verga, a play in three acts sufficiently well known on the Italian stage. The reduction is cleverly enough done. The scene is laid in Sicily, and the story is a simple one of peasant love, unhappy, and ending in bloodshed. To this the composer has written music full of freshness, grace, and brilliancy. As is natural in a first work, there are indices of the author's admirations, and there are repeated one or two turns of musical expression which may later degenerate into mannerisms (or may either be given up or become the earmarks of genius), but there is also plenty of force and originality, and—so far as can be judged from the piano-forte edition—the essential quality without which all others are as sounding brass, namely, charm.

—A singularly practical application of the study of theoretical meteorology is given in a memorandum lately prepared by John Eliot, meteorological reporter to the Government of India, "on the snowfall in the mountain districts of northern India and Afghanistan" during the first five months of this year. The records of previous years have shown that when the cold-weather snowfall in the Himalaya is heavy, the succeeding summer monsoon is delayed in its arrival and is apt to be weak when it comes; the summer rains are consequently late and light, the crops fail, and famine results in the densely populated peninsula. But if the winter snows are light in the mountains, the rise of temperature in the hot season is earlier and stronger, the rainy summer monsoon comes sooner and is more powerful, and all goes well—or as well as it can with an ignorant population of a hundred millions or so. Mr. Eliot's recent memorandum shows that the mountain snows of 1890 have been distinctly less heavy than usual, and he therefore anticipates a favorable season for crops this year. The actual case is hardly as simple as this brief presentation would make it, and the original paper discusses several factors not mentioned here.

—Mr. Eliot has recently published also an essay on nocturnal inversions of temperature; the high and low-level meteorological stations on the mountains and plains of India being particularly well adapted to investigations of this subject. It appears that, while the average temperature of the air decreases upwards, and while this decrease is especially marked in the daytime, when the lower air is heated by the warm ground, yet on still, clear nights the air near the ground on the broad Indo-Gangetic plains is absolutely colder than the air at the hill stations, and hence presumably colder than the open air a thousand or more feet above the plains. It is this reversal of the usual conditions that is known as the nocturnal inversion of temperature. Following several other investigators of the subject, Mr. Eliot shows conclusively that the cold of the lower air at night is not due to the descent of the upper air, such as occurs in the descending nocturnal breezes on mountain-slopes, but is the direct product of the cooling of the lower air, by reason of its closeness to the ground, which is cooled by radiation. The same strong nocturnal inversion certainly occurs on our Western plains. It has been reported, but not in as full a manner as is desirable, that the temperature at night generally sank to a lower degree on the open plains than at their margin, where the nocturnal breeze flowed out at the mouth of valleys opening from the mountains, and that, for this reason, it was possible at certain high-level stations to raise more delicate crops close to the foot of the mountains than out on the plains. This accords very well with the theory of the subject, for the descending mountain breeze would tend to warm somewhat by compression in descent, and thus its cooling by conduction to the ground would be diminished, while on the level plains, where the air lies quiet all night, its cooling is not checked. Can any of our Western readers report specific examples of this occurrence?

CHILD'S CHURCH AND STATE UNDER THE TUDORS.

Church and State under the Tudors. By Gilbert W. Child, M.A., Exeter College, Oxford. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

This work, appearing at the moment when Newman closes his singular career, might be regarded as a sort of supplement to his 'Apologia.' It helps to prove, if not that he was right in going over to Rome, at least that he was right in leaving the ground on which he had before stood. The theory with which he and his party set out, and which they fondly called the *via media*, was that the Church of England had always been Catholic; that she could prove her unbroken tradition and her continuous authority as a branch of the Catholic Church independent of the Church of Rome; that for a time she had been subjected to Papal power and overlaid by Papal abuses, but had set herself free and spontaneously reformed herself in the sixteenth century; that the authors of her emancipation and reform had been, not any external power, but her own clerical assemblies and authorities; that she had always held the doctrines of the Eucharistic Real Presence and Baptismal Regeneration; that she had always maintained Apostolical Succession and the necessity of episcopal ordination; that she had never been Protestant herself, and that she had never acknowledged or been in communion with the Protestant churches of the Continent.

This is the view which Newman, Pusey, and the rest of the Tractarians persuaded themselves to accept, and which it is to be presumed the Ritualists still maintain, though Ritualism, for the most part, corresponds strictly to its name, and is more æsthetic than it is theological, whereas the original school of Newman and Pusey was more theological and historical than it was æsthetic. Hook's 'Lives of the Archbishops of Cauterbury' is throughout an attempt to accommodate the facts of history to the theory of the *via media*, and a very desperate attempt we must say it is. Poor Charles Kingsley exposed himself to a terrible mauling by a maladroit impeachment of Newman's theological integrity; but it is hardly possible to imagine that any intellect, however straightforward to begin with, and however pure the motives of its possessor might be, could go through such a process as that of wrenching the facts of ecclesiastical history into conformity with the Tractarian hypothesis without itself undergoing serious sophistication.

The opposite view really stands in little need of statutory or detailed proof. It is almost superfluous in support of it to explore the dusty and uninviting records of ecclesiastical legislation under the Tudors. The fact is as broad and patent as any fact in history, that the changes in the Anglican Church throughout the sixteenth century followed those in the personal character and policy of the sovereigns and their counsellors. Henry VIII. broke with Rome and carried the English Church with him on a ground manifestly personal to himself. He assumed the full power of the Pope; and the ecclesiastical legislation, including the doctrinal enactments, to the end of his reign, bore the plain impress of his personal tendencies, which were those of a Catholic and a former opponent of Luther, admitting of Protestantism only so much as was requisite to sustain his own position of antagonism to the Pope. The personal genius of his terrible minister, Cromwell, is equally impressed on a policy the object of which was to put the Church as well as the State under the feet of the despot and his vicegerent. Under Edward VI. the Church of England becomes Protestant indeed, with an ever-increasing tendency in the Zwinglian direction, and at the same time distinctly Erastian, her bishops being required to take out patents for their offices as mere servants of the Crown, while she enters into open and avowed communion with the Protestant churches of the Continent. This revolution, again, was manifestly brought about by the policy of the Protector Somerset and the other councillors of Edward who had thrown themselves for support on the Protestant party, as well as by the personal tendencies of Edward, a precocious theologian and an extreme Protestant. Nobody, we suppose, doubts that the counter-revolution which took place under Mary, and which restored the full supremacy of the Pope and the whole Roman system of doctrine and worship, with the persecution of Protestantism which ensued, were the direct consequences of the accession of Katharine's daughter to the throne and of her bigoted devotion to the Roman faith. As little can it be questioned that the overthrow of Mary's system and the substantial restoration of that of Edward VI. and his Council were the personal acts of Elizabeth, who, whatever might be her religious belief, could not have recognized the authority of the Pope without acknowledging that she was herself a bastard and a usurper. If it was true, as the Anglican theory of ecclesiastical history assumes, that there was no doo-

trinal revolution or counter-revolution, but only a gradual self-reformation of the Church through her own organs, what are we to say of the martyrdoms? Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley, if they held the doctrines now held by Tractarians or Ritualists, must have been fools to go to the stake for differences so trivial, or rather formal, as those which in that case would have separated them from Rome. Dr. Pusey, in his 'Eirenicon,' pronounced in effect that there was no vital contradiction, such as would be a bar to union between his Church and that of Rome, on any points except Papal Infallibility and the Adoration of the Virgin: and of these neither was at issue in the case of Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley. Why, again, did all Mary's bishops, except the unscrupulous Kitchin, resign upon the accession of Elizabeth, and leave apostolical succession in the Church of England hanging by so slender a thread that the adversary has been able to raise doubts, not wholly without plausibility, whether the succession continued to exist at all?

However, if statutory and detailed proof is needed, we think it has been furnished by Dr. Child, who has travelled with persevering industry through all the documentary evidence, whether in the shape of acts of Parliament or in any other shape, and has set the results before us with great distinctness, with judicial calmness, and in a very clear and forcible style. He seems to us to have demonstrated the principal propositions which he set out to demonstrate, and which are that the Church of England, down to the time of Henry VIII., was Papal; that the separation from Rome was purely and simply the act of the King and Parliament—the share of the clergy in it, such as it was, being entirely involuntary; that the Act of Supremacy transferred the whole power of the Pope to the King, while the submission of the clergy bound them to entire dependence on him; that Henry thus created a National Church, of which he himself was in all but name Pope; that he did not make this church Protestant; that in Edward's reign, the personal papacy of the sovereign having fallen into abeyance, its powers were taken up by the predominant Protestant faction at the Council, which took a Zwinglian direction and retained it to the end of the reign; that Mary, by two acts of Parliament, swept away the Protestant legislation of Edward and the anti-Papal legislation of Henry, and restored the full supremacy of Rome; that Elizabeth, by her royal power, restored Edward's liturgy, and by the Act of Supremacy deprived all Mary's bishops, and that this act and the Act of Uniformity were passed against the unanimous opposition of the spiritual Peers in the upper house, while Convocation took no part, except in so far as the lower house passed resolutions approving the whole of Mary's legislation; that almost all the prominent Elizabethan bishops and divines were in doctrine Zwinglian or Calvinist, declared themselves at one with the leading Swiss reformers, especially with Bullinger and Peter Martyr, and regarded their own church as one of the sisterhood of Protestant churches; and that there was no mention of the divine right of bishops in the English Church till it was suggested in 1588 by Bancroft, who accompanied his suggestion by a distinct claim of the whole Papal power for the Queen. Dr. Child makes it plain that the clergy, from the time when Henry brought them to his feet by the Premunire, never initiated the changes or exercised any real control over them, though their chiefs were consulted as experts, and the assent of a subservient Convocation was used to give color to the action of the Government in Church affairs.

That the Thirty-nine Articles are Protestant, not Catholic, is as plain as the sun in heaven. By no efforts of interpretation possible even to so subtle an intellect as that which elaborated Tract XC, can they be wrested to any other sense. Hence the Tractarians were driven to the desperate expedient of maintaining that the Prayer-book, in which some vestiges of Catholicism lingered, not the Articles, ought to be taken as the canon of faith, and that by the language of the Prayer-book the Articles were to be construed. Dr. Child meets this allegation conclusively by pointing out that while both Liturgy and Articles were the work of the same hand, the Articles were the later composition of the two; that, in a new edition published in the same year with the Articles, the Liturgy was brought into conformity with them in such respects as were deemed important, and (what is really decisive in itself) that it is preposterous to take the devotional and rhetorical document as the expression of the framer's belief instead of that which was meant to serve a controversial and legal purpose. The fact, which is patent, that the Liturgy was an old document modified with the evident desire of retaining as much of the ancient and customary as possible, while the Articles were an original manifesto directed to the questions of the day, is enough to decide in which of the two compositions the opinions of the theologians who put them forth are to be sought. The very novelty of the hypothesis which made the Liturgy, instead of the Articles, the standard was enough to condemn it. How came it to pass that the Church, the keeper of all truth, had remained in total ignorance of this momentous truth concerning herself till it was revealed to her by the Tractarian party in the fourth decade of the nineteenth century? Keble felt the objection, and tried to meet it by suggesting that the lateness of the discovery in the history of the Church had an analogy in the lateness of the Christian Revelation in the history of the world. Of all the strange applications of Butler's much misused argument, this is perhaps the strangest.

The necessity of episcopal ordination is of course maintained by all high Anglicans, and their inflexible adherence to it stands fatally in the way of reunion with any non-episcopal church. But Dr. Child asserts, and we believe it will be thought makes good the assertion, that it can be proved beyond reasonable doubt that episcopal orders were not insisted upon in practice in the Church of England as an indispensable condition of ministry, down to the Great Rebellion, or, in one or two instances, even after it. In the cases of Whittingham and Travers, cited by Dr. Child, the fact that episcopal ordination was not by the ecclesiastical jurisprudence of the day held indispensable seems clearly to appear. But the testimony of Bishop Cosin, also cited by Dr. Child, in itself would suffice. Cosin was, as Dr. Child says, a Laudian High Churchman, a learned casuist, and one of the principal speakers at the Savoy Conference. In a letter written in 1650, while he shows his Laudian disposition to disparage French Protestant orders, he distinctly admits that the English bishops had in many instances admitted persons so ordained to charges in the English Church without reordination, and that the laws of the English Church did not require more of such persons than that they should declare their public consent to the received religion and subscribe the Articles. No opposition or protest, so far as we are aware, was raised when James I., the head of the English Church, sent deputies to the Calvinistic Synod of Dort, thereby affirming that the two churches were in communion with each other, and that the orders of the Calvinistic divines who composed the Synod were valid. The deputies, one of whom was a bishop and two others became bishops, took exception to an anti-episcopal resolution; but by sitting in the Synod they recognized the orders of their Calvinistic colleagues.

Those who hold that the existence of a valid ministry, the preservation of the truth, and the life of the Church, depend upon an episcopate tracing its descent by unbroken succession from the Apostles, must tremble when they think how near, as we have said, at the accession of Elizabeth, the Church of England was to being left without any bishops at all. But, setting this aside, if the bishops, as successors of the Apostles, are the divinely appointed transmitters of the true faith and spiritual life, is it possible to believe that the immense majority of them comprised in the Roman and Greek churches is in error, while the small minority comprised in the Anglican Episcopate alone is in the right path? This is a dilemma which must be faced, though Anglicans who regard Rome as a true church and look forward to union with her are unwilling to confront it. Theology at all events must not shrink from practical consequences, however startling or inconvenient. Either the Anglican Church is heretical, or the other Episcopal churches, with all the bishops whom they contain, are schismatical for refusing her communion, in which case Church authority, with the power of holding a General Council, resides in her alone. That the Greek Church, as well as the Church of Rome, does refuse her communion is a fact in which she must now, after more than one abortive overture to the Greeks, be constrained to acquiesce.

That the Church of England under the Tudors was Protestant and Erastian, Dr. Child, we repeat, seems to have clearly proved, if any proof could be needed. Nor will he have any difficulty in carrying on his demonstration, as he promises to do, through the reigns of the Stuarts and the Hanoverians. That in which we cannot concur with him is his apparent approval of the Erastian system. Religion may, as many people now think, be a delusion, and in that case, no doubt, the more its disturbing influence on society and the false enthusiasm which it generates are restrained by statesmanship, the better. But if spiritual life is a reality, surely nothing can be more pernicious or more revolting than that it should be dealt with for worldly purposes by such a set of politicians as the Tudor sovereigns and the political intriguers, some of them public robbers and judicial murderers, who sat in those councils. Dr. Child seems inclined to fall in with the idea that the ecclesiastical work of Elizabeth was a monument of practical wisdom, while he chimes in also with the conventional praise of that vain, arbitrary, and capricious as well as immodest woman. But the eulogy is belied by the events which followed. The attempt to found a National Church on the politic principle of neutrality and amalgamation, and to force the spiritual life of the nation into it, signally failed. The latter part of Elizabeth's reign was spent in the cruel and ungrateful persecution of the Puritans, who, as readers of Motley know, had saved her throne and the country when both had been brought to the brink of destruction by an insane parsimony which had left England defenceless against Spanish invasion. Persecution of course exasperated and drove at last into rebellion a set of men who would have remained the most loyal of subjects had not the self-will of the Queen denied the concessions which wise

statesmen, like Burleigh, and, to their credit be it said, the leaders of the hierarchy, would have made. Through the reign of Elizabeth's successor the storm continued brewing till in that of his son it burst in civil war, and levelled the whole edifice of Elizabeth Tudor's vaunted wisdom with the ground. Nor would it be easy to show that the revived establishment of the Restoration and the Hanoverians was either spiritually or politically a blessing to the nation. The happy experience of the New World has proved that the most profound statesmanship in matters ecclesiastical is that which confines civil government to its proper purposes, and leaves conscience and worship entirely free.

MORE NOVELS.

The Master of the Magicians. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps and Herbert D. Ward. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Julius Courtney; or, Master of his Fate. By J. Maclaren Cobban. D. Appleton & Co.

Two Women or One? By Henry Harland (Sidney Luska). Cassell Co.

The Shadow of a Dream. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

The Merry Chanter. By Frank R. Stockton. The Century Co.

Armorel of Lyonesse. By Walter Besant. Harper & Bros.

The Locket: A Tale of Old Guernsey. By M. A. M. Hoppus (Mrs. Alfred Marks). London: Richard Bentley & Son.

Albrecht. By Arlo Bates. Boston: Roberts Bros.

The Broughton House. By Bliss Perry. Charles Scribner's Sons.

UNLESS we are mere raging heathen, we acquire in the nursery a knowledge of the marvellous career of the prophet Daniel, the "Master of the Magicians." Perhaps more than any other hero in that book which the authors of the novel before us graciously acknowledge as "an older book than this is," he appeals to a child's imagination. He is young, beautiful, and extremely wise. He is a poor captive commanding great kings, receiving highest honors, and inspiring unspeakable awe. The tests and trials to which he is subjected are peculiarly picturesque and thrilling, and the mystery of his communion with God in heaven only heightens his fascination without detracting at all from his perfectly sympathetic humanity. He is, indeed, a sacred inheritance, quite apart from any early belief in the divine inspiration of the only record through which we know him, and unimpaired by any later scepticism. Perhaps the people who have arrived at conviction of the human origin of the record are those who would be most offended by any tampering or trifling with Daniel, and most reluctant to have their mental image of him disturbed by the capricious embellishments and invention of a modern novelist. With the luck which ever attended him, Daniel, in these later days, has been adopted as a hero of romance by people whose skill in interpreting character from visible signs or granted facts is almost comparable with his own skill in the interpretation of dreams. To the human Daniel they have done no harm at all, and, considering the sad travesties of Biblical characters which prance and rant through some not unpopular modern novels, to say that they have done no harm is unequivocal testimony to the merit of their work. They have approached him with reverence, sympathy, and dignity of style, and have developed his character in perfect conformity with the hints and indications given in the "older book." But, animated by the modern so-called scientific spirit, the propensity for destroying mystery which science is not sufficiently advanced exactly to explain, they have rather belittled the superhuman Daniel. Not by direct assertion, but by unquestionable implication, Daniel falls from the unapproachable height of a person whose mystic powers we accept on faith, without desire to investigate, to the level of a very sensitive hypnotic subject—in fact, a "trance medium," a person whom we insist on investigating, and concerning whom we entertain much scepticism with little respect.

Daniel's is the only character which provokes comparison—indeed, the only one for which the multitude has any standard of comparison. Among the personages whose story is woven with his, Nebuchadnezzar still continues to enjoy wide fame, not for the extent of his conquests or the splendor of his capital, but because he became as a beast of the field and ate grass as oxen. Arioch, the captain of the King's guard, is known only by name, and Amytis, the Median Queen, is unknown except to scholars. After Daniel, these three are the most prominent figures in the 'Master of the Magicians.' They never suggest laborious reconstruction from odd bones showing here and there in dusty heaps of Oriental lore, but are real people, hotly bent on the achievement of personal desires, fundamentally human, with a superficial strangeness only, attributable to their high position and gorgeously spectacular surrounding. A sense of humor would probably restrain people from shedding tears for Nebuchadnezzar (he is somewhat pedantically called Nebuchadrezzar), yet the King is so kinglike in his pagan way that his hideous fate appears peculiarly sorrowful. Amytis is a wicked woman, worse than most of her kind because her opportunities were great. Wickedness in men has infinite variety, but ages have produced only one sort of wicked woman. Arioch is a courtier and a soldier, a man of his world and time, raised above both by the ability to recognize virtue when he saw it and to love well. The authors have not exhausted their power and patience in the delineation of these mighty people. The most insignificant has some touch of individuality, and every scene and situation is described clearly, naturally, with wonderful simplicity, too, considering the temptations to pedantry. They nowhere appear as critics of the Babylonians or as apologists; they are impersonal observers of life glowing with barbaric, sensuous magnificence and black with shame. They are free alike from prudery and grossness, and out of the fulness of knowledge illumined by imagination have written a story which for an hour or two plunges the reader into the heart of a dim and almost fabulous antiquity.

The whole story of 'Julius Courtney' leads up to an Oriental secret, and it must be said to his credit that he was perfectly willing to reveal it, and would have done so but for the scruples of Dr. Lefevre about receiving knowledge through which he would be able, like Courtney, to spread havoc among his fellow-men. Dr. Lefevre is distinctly a person whom the story-readers will never forgive—Courtney's secret was, from a selfish point of view, such a desirable and useful one to know. This faint show of explaining the inexplicable spoils a very good story, for it stigmatizes as impossible all the preceding narrative, which, though strange and far outside of common experience, has been made by the author's art to appear highly probable. It also disturbs confidence in the soundness of his apparent knowledge of the point reached by experimenters in what he calls that strange annex of modern medical science known as psycho-dynamics. No conclusion could be further from those of modern investigators than that the power of hypnotizing, or the aptitude for being hypnotized, or the process of transmitting nervous force, can be learned from any writings of mediæval alchemists or Asiatic sages.

Desirable though the possession of Courtney's secret must appear to individuals, its general dissemination would result in the speedy annihilation of the race. Once revealed, the subsequent chapters of human history would be few, and their substance comprised in the tale of the Kilkenny cats. By contrast, knowledge of the secret possessed by Dr. Benary, the skilled physician, in 'Two Women or One?' would be incalculably beneficial to all. If by simply depressing a bone of the skull, all criminals and fools could be made virtuous and wise, how soon we should be enjoying an earthly paradise! The point is to know what bone to depress. Up to that critical point Dr. Benary's scientific explanations are positive, lucid, and amazingly glib. He is committed inflexibly to the doctrine of heredity. Nobody is himself; everybody is but an agglomeration of the good and evil tendencies of innumerable ancestors, dependent for the direction and completeness of development upon his early environment and tuition. It is really curious, the avidity with which story-writers have snapped at and swallowed the bait of heredity, and their solemn convictions about the potency of environment are truly comforting in this hour of doubt. Some day, we fear, an iconoclast may arise for the destruction of his brethren. He may perhaps call his book 'The Romance of a Parson's Son.'

But to return to Dr. Benary. He discourses on his hobby with such eloquent assurance that a woman who confesses herself a most guilty sinner perceives gradually how her enormities may admit of palliation, and finally yields herself to a surgical experiment which shall either kill her or convert her into an innocent, grown-up child. Dr. Benary satisfies her natural curiosity about the proposed operation no further than to say that it is "very remotely like trepanning." Until the moment when the miracle is wrought, the story has sufficient semblance of reality, but from that moment it becomes more and more ineffective. No one could believe that the miracle had been wrought, and all that follows is palpable invention. The author of 'Julius Courtney' conceals his weakness till the end, but Mr. Harland, less cunning, breaks down in the middle. He has not at his command that fund of circumstantial yet preposterous detail in which French triflers with scientific marvels shroud an intrinsic impossibility, and no description of the New York blizzard or of joyous, Herculean artist, can atone for failure to sustain curiosity about the problem by which it has been excited.

The physiological puzzle and psychic mystery in Mr. Howells's 'Shadow of a Dream' remain unsolved when the story of the lives which the dream clouded and the hearts it broke has come to a tragic close. The author nowhere intimates that he alone holds the secret of the sort of stuff that dreams are made of, so the mind is free to attach itself to the effects of Faulkner's dream-habit on himself, and on those so intimately related to him that they were compelled to dwell within the shadow. The conversations about visions and scientific hypotheses are casual and speculative, clearly without intention to excite anticipation of spe-

cial enlightenment. The precise and conservative remarks of Dr. Wingate have a convincing air of authority which is quite fatal to any admiration one may have conceived for his more daring confrères who claim to have probed the infinite. In short, Mr. Howells's well-known and admirable method of narrating ordinary events and depicting ordinary characters is applied with notable success to the narration of an unusual, though hardly extraordinary episode, and to the drawing of several people not quite like everybody else even in their superficial character. No one could feel for a moment that he is inventing, that for the sake of effect he exaggerates or conceals, or that he is ever insincere in his criticisms and conclusions. The virtue of intellectual honesty shines as a torch from his pages, and let no one disparage that even if he believe that it is founded on illiberality.

Mr. March, who tells the story, displays more warmth than in any of the novels in which we have known him; but the situation demands more, and there is no surprise in his ability to rise to it. He has an understanding sympathy for people unlike himself, and a beautiful tenderness for Faulkner, who was not only unlike him, but objectionable in many respects. No matter in what future novels he may appear, he cannot be more finely magnanimous than when, in Faulkner's great distress and need, he quite forgets the offence against modern taste committed by a man who had once wanted to talk about Byron and Shelley, and whom he suspects of trying to live up to the rather high-strung literature which he might have written had his lot been cast in a literary community. Face to face with a dying man, a man driven to the verge of madness by an agonizing dream or mental delusion, March is just as kind, as gentle and pitiful as if that man had spent his best years in denouncing the whole tribe of romantic writers that ever infested any land.

Unfortunately, perhaps, for March, every one is familiar with Mr. Howells's literary creed or dogma, and it is impossible to dissociate March's judgments of books and literary methods from the author's. Identification is inevitable when March, in the midst of his story, apologizes for appearing to be wholly absorbed in the Faulkners' affairs, which of course he is not, nor yet Mrs. March, that estimable corrective of enthusiasms which she does not share. This apology is an amusing instance of the author's horror of fictitious misrepresentation. Less scrupulous people may be of opinion that even if thoughtless readers should see visions of Mr. March letting the insurance business languish to the gross injury of Mrs. March and the little Marches, the author could afford to let the mistake go, content that in such a lapse from veracity he is not flagrantly imaginative. At the close of the first part, the melancholy, painful, wonderfully vivid bit of narration which comprises the introduction and the knot, we tremble lest March shall apologize for a dramatic crisis. But the sight of death overwhelms literary predilection, and his silence gives consent to the argument that life may be productive of dramatic moments, and that the world may read about them without serious vitiation.

The second part, in which the consequences of Faulkner's dream are developed, falls a little below the first in vividness and feeling. Mrs. Faulkner, who bears the chief burden, is not so well studied, or at least not so well measured, as Mrs. March, for instance. The author recognizes that she is an exceptional woman—that is, a woman of unusually large nature, passionate yet righteous, of a clear and courageous intelligence. Yet when she is called on to decide for her own joy or despair, she behaves exactly as one of Mr. Howells's well-understood women might, women who have none of Mrs. Faulkner's presumable ability to arrive at proportion and value in questions of duty involving sentiment. Besides, experience counts for nothing in her character. An ingenuous young girl might work herself up to the belief that she had done wrong because wrong had been dreamed of her; or a Mrs. March, who never changes. Such irrational sensitiveness influences seriously only the very young or the inflexible. Mrs. Faulkner was not young, she was distinctly not guilty, she knew the world, and had adaptability; therefore, considering her conclusions in the face of facts, she is vague and unsubstantial, perilously near a mere creature of romance. March's entreaty to Neville to reconsider the decision reached by him and Mrs. Faulkner may be taken as the author's conclusive utterance on the problem of conduct involved. It is a passionate admonition against the self-analysis that leads to self-destruction.

Prophecy is generally vain, not always gratuitous. There is tolerably sure ground for the prediction that posterity will pronounce Mr. Stockton's stories and method unique. He has followed no school and founded none. He is as far from a realist as from an idealist. His fancy dictates without rule or precedent, and his ingenuity supports its wildest extravagance. Though his people are severely moral, he has nothing to do with morals, and though actual puzzles of character and conduct are outside his province, he invents amazing problems of both, and discusses and solves them plausibly. His perfectly serious manner and matter-of-fact style lend a temporary appearance of probability to the impossible, and invest ludicrously irrational people with the semblance of acute intelligence and of prosaic common sense. He addresses himself neither to the understanding nor to feeling, but to the imagination and the sense for fine-spun absurdity. The first situation in the 'Merry Chanter' promises an unusually amusing entanglement. Perhaps it is too good to be heightened; at all events, most of the incidents that follow the engagement of their crew of captains by the owners of the *Merry Chanter* fall short of what goes before. Some are excruciatingly funny, but the whole lacks the author's customary spontaneity and air of unimpeachable veracity. Towards the end he seems to be weary of the extraordinary collection of passengers that he has got on board the schooner, and not to know exactly how to get rid of them. He does manage to arrange a destiny for each, but not very happily. The best device is that which permits the fugitive British peer, Lord Crabstairs, to become a freeman on his native soil. The payment of the accumulated debts of several generations of Crabstairs in exchange for all the legal papers relating to their indebtedness is a nice stroke of satire on the madness that sooner or later overtakes the persistent collector of antiquities.

Of all the novelists Mr. Besant is the most fertile, fluent, and uniformly agreeable. Dear to him is every kind of romance, and doubly dear the romance of love. He can tell a stirring tale of military adventure; a pathetic tale of the grievances of the poor, the sorrows of the oppressed; an amusing tale of transient fashionable follies—but he is most at home and most attractive when he is leading young lovers through deep waters of affliction to joy everlasting. The romance of 'Armorel of Lyonesse' is a very pretty one, packed full of romantic events and situations for which no apology is offered. When Tristram, pressing day by day through Lyonesse, came at last to "Tintagil half in sea, and high on land," Iselt, the Queen,

> "Down in a casement sat,
> A low sea-sunset glorying round her hair
> And glossy-throated grace."

Just so is Armorel, queen by courtesy of one of the Scilly Islands, introduced, but here ends comparison between her and the false wife of Mark the Cornish King. Mr. Besant did not choose his scene and title for the purpose of inflicting a modern and enfeebled version of Sir Thomas Malory, and, but for one or two references to Sir Bedivere, one might suppose that he dwelt in darkest ignorance of the Arthurian legend. Armorel in her island home is an innocent, ignorant, and robust young person, with definite religious opinions, and a slight quaintness of expression, both derived from an ancestress nearly a hundred years old, who sits with her bonnet on all day dozing in a big chair, and can only be roused to speech by the scraping of Armorel's fiddle. When the ancient dame falls into her last sleep and Armorel becomes the mistress of long-hidden treasure, she shows that shrewdness and ability to take care of herself which come by right to the descendant of gentlemen who had been the most daring smugglers and wreckers in the Archipelago.

Armorel's inheritance, as it comes pouring out of long-locked drawers and sea-chests, strains credulity, but of course she had to have a fortune in order to go forth and see the world, and fit herself to wed the beautiful prince who has already knocked at her door, smiled in her eyes, and ridden away. The singleness of her devotion to her prince when, after several years, she finds him again, a pauper and bond slave to a cruel-hearted villain, is quite beautiful to dwell upon; so are the combined delicacy and pluck with which she forces him to strike for freedom and lay the villain low. Laying him low is no child's play, for his villany is not vulgar and superficial; it is subtle, intellectual, with ramifications many and deep. He preys upon the brains of the needy, buying very cheaply their paintings, their poems, their stories, and, thus being enabled to pose as a universal genius, waxes fat, famous, and fashionable at their expense. Thanks to the courage and fidelity of the girl from Scilly, his discomfiture is complete. Nobody can feel quite sure after reading 'Armorel of Lyonesse' that the most cunning sinner may not dig pits for his own betrayal, or that righteousness never triumphs in a wicked world.

A romance of the Channel Islands is almost as rare as a romance of Scilly, and the manners and customs of dwellers upon one group of islands are about as unknown as those of the other to the average Britisher. Especially was this the case when George II. was King and the melancholy little drama described in the tale of 'The Locket' was being enacted in Guernsey. The opening chapters of 'The Locket' are rarely dainty and smooth and pleasing. The picture of the Grandméau girls, in their quaint summer-house overlooking the sea, is as exquisite as the miniatures of their century. One sees their faces blooming in a thick-set circle of pearls. The gloomy figure of Leonard Delafaye casts a slight shadow over the sunny scene, but it vanishes with the coming of Andrew Morier, the young Jerseyman, and is forgotten in the happiness of his love for Clementine Grandméau. The atmosphere of peace is so well expressed that we are un-

prepared for tragedy, and the suddenness of its coming hurts and shocks. When the tragic situation is once accepted, an appreciation of the strength with which Delafaye is drawn follows. His revelation to John Ambrose of the facts of his life and their influence on his nature is a passionate cry from a weary, guilty soul given its full force by the author's admirable restraint. Had John Ambrose been a less guileless man, he could never have taken Delafaye's confidence for anything less than full confession. Delafaye's character and temperament fully account for his yielding to a horrible temptation, account for everything except the giving of the fateful locket to Clementine. When he insisted on her keeping it, he was plainly in a state of emotional excitement, but one cannot help thinking that in a cooler moment, knowing how dangerous for him was her possession of the trinket, he would have taken it away from her. This gift of the locket is very important to the development, and its striking improbability infects the whole set of circumstances which surround the death of Morier. Somewhere the author intimates that the events of the tale are true, but such a fact is so startlingly exceptional that an impression of its truth or even its likelihood cannot be given in fiction.

In what is called the fore-word of 'Albrecht' the author anticipates criticism. His first valuable comment is, that "it must be evident to the most casual observer that the treatment of the theme with which the present story deals would probably not have taken the form it has had 'Undine' not been written before it." The remark is profoundly true, subject to a slight modification. If the casual observer should happen to be at all familiar with 'Undine,' it is not in the treatment of the theme which he will find resemblance, but in the theme itself, the idea of 'Albrecht.' If, on the other hand, he knows not 'Undine,' he will find that Mr. Bates has written a pretty fairy story, and credit him with a fine imagination chiefly on account of the idea—Fouqué's idea, with a cumbersome addition. The story of 'Undine' is a literary creation which, humanly speaking, has conferred immortality upon its author, a fact of which Mr. Bates was well aware when he undertook to write 'Albrecht.' The most curious and interesting feature of his performance is his complacent readiness to stand comparison with perfection. Wholesale appropriation of great ideas is not a crime punishable by law, but it may be characterized without undue severity as a literary impertinence.

The story of 'The Broughton House' is long enough and uneventful enough to give ample opportunity for a complete representation of the group brought together for a month in a quiet New England hostelry. Still, the impression left by the book is of incompleteness and of imperfect grasp of salient points of character. Sonderby, the schoolmaster, on whom the author expends pages of detail, is, after all, an indefinite and enigmatical person. Perhaps he achieved the greatness which is confidently predicted for him, but the assertion of his fine possibilities is not supported by his recorded words and deeds. His ambiguous sentiment for Mrs. Floyd appears worthless and irritating. It has not the selfish force of passion (the passion of a man for another man's wife is always supremely selfish), nor the steady helpfulness of pure sympathy for a woman whose circumstances are most unhappy. Mrs. Floyd, who has intense capacity for feeling and almost none for expression, is the most distinct figure of the group. Married to a man with the artistic temperament, the temperament which makes itself the excuse for every kind of moral delinquency, the absolute helplessness of a Mrs. Floyd to shape destiny is a pitiful and not uncommon spectacle. The situation between Mr. and Mrs. Floyd is rendered so naturally and adequately that it goes far to compensate for minor deficiencies, and, in a novel of character, it is fairer to judge the author's fitness for his work by one success than by half-a-dozen approximate failures.

Locke. By Alexander Campbell Fraser. [Philosophical Classics for English Readers.] Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood & Sons; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1890.

Mr. Galton's researches have set us to asking of every distinguished personality, what were the traits of his family; although in respect, not to Mr. Galton's eminent persons, but to the truly great—those men who, in their various directions of action, thought, and feeling, make such an impression of power that we cannot name from all history more than three hundred such—in respect to these men it has not been shown that talented families are more likely than dull families to produce them. The gifts of fortune, however, are of importance even to these. It is not true that they rise above other men as a man above a race of intelligent dogs. In the judgment of Palissy the potter (and what better witness could be asked ?), the majority of geniuses are crushed under adverse circumstances. John Locke, whose biography by Berkeleyan Professor Fraser is at our hand, came of a family of small gentry, his mother being a tradesman's daughter. The family had shown good, but no distinguished ability, and no remarkable vitality. The philosopher, John, the eldest child of his parents, was born (1632) two years after their marriage; there was one other child five years later. John Locke himself never contemplated marriage.

He resembled not in the least a genius of the regulation pattern—a great beast, incapable of self-control, self-indulgent, not paying his debts, subject to hallucinations, half-mad, absent minded. He did not even, like the popular hero, attribute all that distinguished him to his mother's influence. He called her "pious and affectionate," but rarely mentioned her. On the other hand, he often spoke of his father with strong love, with respect for his character, and with admiration for his "parts." That father gave him all his instruction up to the age of fourteen years; and since he alone of Locke's teachers escaped the bitter maledictions of his later life for their pedantry and "verbal learning," the father it doubtless was who first taught our philosopher to think for himself.

"I no sooner perceived myself in the world," says Locke, "but I found myself in a storm." When he was ten years old, the Civil War broke out, and the house was near Bristol, one of the centres of operations. His father at first joined the Parliamentary army, but returned within two years. Such events made food for reflection and doubtless suggested toleration.

At fourteen he was put to Westminster school, under stern Dr. Busby, whose pedantry he detested; at twenty sent to peripatetic Oxford, and was still thoroughly discontented. He had not been a precocious boy, and was quite unconscious of superior power. At first he only read romances, and probably never studied very hard. He was awakened by the books of Descartes, whose system he did not embrace, but whose lucidity encouraged him to believe himself not a fool. "This same John Locke," says Anthony à Wood, "was a man of turbulent spirit, clamorous and discontented; while the rest of our club took notes deferentially from the mouth of the master, the said Locke scorned to do so, but was ever prating and troublesome." But this is the distortion of hatred, such as that which later prompted the lie that caused Charles II. to order Locke's expulsion from his studentship. The envious tribe said to infest colleges must take everlasting comfort in the reflection that efforts like theirs expelled John Locke from Oxford, and almost stifled the 'Essay concerning Human Understanding.'

Two years before the Restoration, he took his master's degree, and was afterwards appointed to that life studentship, to lectureships in Greek and rhetoric, and to a censorship in moral philosophy. At a later date, he took the degree of Bachelor in Medicine. His father and brother died in 1661, leaving him about half enough to live upon. In 1666, being thirty-four years old, he made the acquaintance of Lord Ashley, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, grandfather of the author of the 'Characteristics.' This nobleman took up Locke and formed him into a man of business, a man of the world, and a politician, fit to become, as he did become, the philosophical champion of the Glorious Revolution.

Locke falsifies the maxim that he who has done nothing great at twenty-seven years of age never will. His first publication (barring a few early verses) at double that age consisted of two anonymous articles in an encyclopædia. He never learned to write a good style. His great 'Essay' appeared three years later, May, 1689, though he had been at work upon it for nearly twenty years. He only lived fifteen years more, during which he was much engaged in public business, so that the time of his active authorship was brief.

Locke's was a frail and diminutive figure, with sloping shoulders, a gracefully set head, a forehead appearing low because cut off below by strong eyebrows rising to an angle over a nose long, pointed, and high-ridged. His eyes were prominent, his mouth well-formed, his chin strong. He must have resembled a little the late E. H. Palmer. His health was always delicate; he was a great sufferer from asthma.

That great observer, Sydenham, many years before Locke became famous, wrote of him as "a man whom, in the acuteness of his judgment and in the simplicity—that is, the excellence—of his manners, I confidently declare to have amongst the men of our own time few equals and no superiors." That Locke's *manners* should have made so powerful an impression upon Sydenham bespeaks magnetism if not greatness. A fascinating companion, gay, witty, observant, shrewd, thoroughly in earnest in his convictions, he added to his good fellowship the air of meaning to get himself all the happiness out of life he could, and to impart it to those about him. He maintained he had the sanction of Scripture in living for enjoyment, and the great pleasures he pursued were, he tells us, these five: health, reputation, knowledge, the luxury of doing good to others, and the hope of heaven. Few men have had so many warm friends; and to these friends he was devoted with a passion strong as a lover's.

At the same time he was no mean diplomatist, knew well enough how to play upon weaknesses, and no one more than he possessed the art of turning men inside out. Many little maxims on this head are scattered through his writings. He himself was impenetrable. "I

believe there is not in the world," said one who had tried a lance with him, "such a master of taciturnity and passion." He confesses himself to be choleric, though soon appeased; but, in fact, self-control is the characteristic mark of his thoroughly well-regulated life. His personal economy was strict. He was methodical in business to a fault. His prudence was carried to the point of excessive caution. He was moderate in everything, and probability was his guiding star. He was deeply religious; but it was public spirit, the benevolent wish to improve the condition of his country and the world, which was the mainspring of his life and inspired all he wrote.

Hence, the vast influence which Locke's philosophy exerted upon the development of Europe for more than a century. If it be said that in truth no such force was exerted, but that Locke only happened to be the mouthpiece of the ideas which were destined to govern the world, can there after all be anything greater than so to anticipate the vital thought of the coming age as to be mistaken for its master? Locke's grand word was substantially this: "Men must think for themselves, and genuine thought is an act of perception. Men must see out of their own eyes, and it will not do to smother individual thought—the only thought there really is—beneath the weight of general propositions, laid down as innate and infallible, but really only traditional—oppressive and unwholesome heritages from a barbarous and stupid past." When we think of the manner in which the Cartesians, Spinoza, and the others had been squeezing out the quintessence of blindness from "First Principles," and consider to what that method was capable of lending itself, in religion and in politics, we cannot fail to acknowledge a superior element of truth in the practicality of Locke's thought, which on the whole should place him nearly upon a level with Descartes.

Prof. Fraser's is the fourth life of Locke drawn more or less from unprinted sources. It cannot be said to be a sympathetic account of him. The biographer seems to see no charm in his hero, and is perpetually speaking of his want of imagination; which only means he was not given to unpractical dreaming. The account of Locke's writings is, however, unusually good; and the insufferable sophistry of T. H. Green is well disposed of in a paragraph. Prof. Fraser pleads for a new edition of Locke's works, and it is very true that this great man, whose utterances still have their lessons for the world, with wholesome influences for all plastic minds, should be studied in a complete, correct, and critical edition.

Literary Papers of William Austin. With a Biographical Sketch by his son, James Walker Austin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890. (250 copies printed.)

MR. WILLIAM AUSTIN has gained a niche in American literary history as the author of "Peter Rugg, the Missing Man," in which some critics have seen a forecast of Hawthorne's peculiar style of romance. The present volume contains this and other tales, together with the Bunker-Hill Oration of 1801, a paper on the Humanity of Jesus Christ, and a reprint of Letters from London originally issued in 1804. The author was born in 1778, graduated from Harvard in 1798, was a short while schoolmaster and chaplain in the navy, studied law at Lincoln's Inn, London, and on his return to America practised his profession and took part in politics until his death in 1841. The stories were written between 1824 and 1837, in mature years, and are perhaps more remarkable for being few in number than for any other reason. In "Peter Rugg" we have a local version of the Flying Dutchman. It is not without cleverness in the telling when judged by the time of its production, but its foreshadowings of Hawthorne's genius seem to us purely imaginary. It was exceedingly popular. The other tales are even more crude. They are five in number, and are, in general character, of the class of "moral tales": their titles, "The Late Joseph Natterstrom," and "The Man with the Cloaks," may still occasionally be met with, and these are the best. Of the Bunker-Hill Oration we can only say it is a curious survival of Revolutionary eloquence; and of the essay upon Christ's Human Character, that it has likewise some historic value as an illustration of style and of religious feeling.

The most interesting portion of the volume is the "Letters from London." They are the work of a young man in his student days, and are written in a very ambitious vein; but they show very vividly the enthusiasm of the time in favor of our newly developed political system. The comments made upon England are those natural to an American, and there are some glimpses of English statesmen and literary men, containing nothing novel, but adding to the passing interest of the reader. Mr. Austin's point of view was that of the student of institutions, and the burden of his remarks is the inferiority of the English to the American Constitution in procuring general happiness for the people. Among the marks of the then contemporary thought we observe the disapproval of commerce:

"Thank God," he says, "the United States are rather an agricultural than a commercial country; otherwise, in spite of our Constitution, our republic would soon be lost in an odious aristocracy, and, what is still worse, a commercial aristocracy, which experience proves to be the most inexorable and cold-blooded of all tyrannies, where maxims are founded on cautious speculation and acted on in all the varieties of monopoly—maxims which, fortified in law, strengthen the powerful at the expense of the weak."

Manufactures fare even worse in his eyes. "Every nation," he says, "is miserable in proportion to her manufactories," and he draws a picture of their social effects in most vigorous rhetoric. He looked to the farms of the West to preserve the health of the body politic, even if poverty, artisans and capitalists, manufactures and commerce, should gain a hold in the Atlantic cities. He also apprehended powerful results from the development of the Democratic idea by our future writers on civil polity: "All that which is connected with or related to man will be treated in a manner which must shock the feelings of all Europe and oppose the principles of all ages." His sympathies were clearly with that view, which he apparently derived from Beccaria, that society by its laws tends to develop the very rich and the very poor—the former few, the latter the masses. It is to be noted that Godwin was his principal literary acquaintance in London, and he seems to have shared the radical admiration for that author's 'Political Justice.' The practical remarks made upon the Establishment, the poor laws, the class structure of society, the criminal law, and similar matters are acute, sound, and often strongly expressed. The Latin quotations, the contrasts of the Indian with civilization, the Rousseau-like questions, give a pleasant flavor of a past time, and the self-glorification of the young patriot in his own country's political promise reminds us of that vigorous hopefulness which has since his time become much sobered. The portraits of Pitt, Fox, Erskine, and others are labored, but have the freshness of contemporary impressions, and the sketches of Godwin, Holcroft, and Fuseli are not without a minor interest. The entire collection of letters affords a clear-cut example of the first impression made by England upon a young American of the beginning of the century, who was disposed to reflect on what he observed.

The biography of Mr. Austin might, we think, have been treated with advantage upon a larger scale. Only a few pages, of which much is quoted matter, have been devoted to it. His literary papers belong to his youth or to the little leisure of professional years. They show a very vigorous mind, well-instructed and touched with a public enthusiasm; but of the action of his mind in real life very little is shown, and of his individuality and personal traits next to nothing. He appears to have been more largely endowed with character than with literary talents, but the present volume limits our view to his works as a writer. Their interest is historical only, and necessarily provincial.

Japan and the Pacific, and a Japanese View of the Eastern Question. By Manjiro Inagaki, B.A. Scribner & Welford.

THE name of Manjiro is honorably associated with the modern navigation of the Pacific by the Japanese. In a junk as a waif, in a whale-boat as a returned castaway, and as the captain of the first Japanese steamer worked by the Mikado's subjects, Manjiro has made honorable fame. It is highly appropriate, therefore, that one of the same name, a graduate of Cambridge University, in England, should politically exploit the Pacific and forecast its future history.

In a handsomely printed volume of two hundred and sixty-five pages, Mr. Manjiro Inagaki gives his views of the "Eastern Question." The matter is divided into two parts, the first essay, on "Japan and the Pacific," occupying fifty-two pages; and the remainder of the book, in nine chapters, treating of Eurasian politics since the sixteenth century. There are also five maps, which illustrate the text fairly well. The genesis of the book appears to have been a student's thesis prepared with a view to obtaining a degree, and afterwards expanded and properly divided and annotated for book form. That it was written in England, and mostly in the company of Russophobists, is evident at a glance. While the author is an independent student in his reading, it is pretty certain that in his interpretation of facts he has been very ably and powerfully assisted. We read with pleasure his statement in the preface that he intends to continue his investigations in eastern Europe, America, and Asia. Should he publish, at some future time, the result of his further researches, a comparison of his earlier and later views would be interesting. In the present work Mr. Manjiro Inagaki gives us such an anti-Russian, not to say British, view of the Jingo sort, that we can hardly accept it as a genuine "Japanese view." Indeed, it reminds us somewhat of the opera of "The Mikado," in which almost the only Japanese features are the clothes, more or less correctly worn; the language, music, postures, and ideas being almost wholly European.

Evidently the essay will be published in Japan, and do its work in preparing the military classes for future complications. The Pacific Ocean is fast becoming the focus of international politics, and Japan may soon be involved in defensive or offensive alliance with either Russia or England. These Powers,

as the author thinks (p. 69), "will at some future period fight for supremacy in the North Pacific." It is with intense interest, and with exultation, that he adds, "Japan lies between the future combatants." He shows only too clearly that the Japanese, in imitation of European nations, are concentrating their energies on militarism. Instead of looking to the United States as an example, the Japanese are expending their resources disproportionately on armies, fleets, forts, and the paraphernalia of war. "*Japan is the key of the Pacific*," writes the author in italics. The future seizure of Fusan in Corea by Japan is hinted at. The episode of the British wanton and unprovoked seizure of Port Hamilton is narrated in detail, and it is shown that as a "head-station for the Canadian Pacific Railway trade," it would be useless without an Anglo-Japanese alliance. To complete the British chain of islands round the world, the possession of Formosa, "the Malta of the Pacific," is deemed necessary, and "England will without doubt occupy Formosa."

The geographical and maritime situation, and the future commercial possibilities of Dai Nippon, are concisely discussed. Mr. Inagaki thinks, and we agree with him, that Japan may yet become one of the greatest of manufacturing countries.

The second part of the work calls for no special notice, being merely a clever student's résumé of the movement of European politics during the past three centuries, especially as these have concerned Russia and England in Asia. The final chapter, on Central Asia, is a good statement of the present situation; but we imagine that the whole second part of the book will be read with curiosity as a study in Japanese literary art, rather than for exact information at first hand. As a monograph, it will have greater value in the author's own country. As a means of counteracting Russian power and progress in Asia, the author urges a forward policy of railway construction by the British in all the countries in their possession or under their influence.

Die Entstehung der Arten durch räumliche Sonderung. Gesammelte Aufsätze von Moriz Wagner. Nach letztwilliger Bestimmung des Verstorbenen herausgegeben von Dr. med. Moriz Wagner. Basel: Benno Schwabe; New York: Westermann. 8vo, pp. 667.

MORIZ WAGNER, journalist, traveller, and zoologist, is hardly as well known in this country as he should be. Besides the fact that he is one of the three greatest authorities on the distribution, migration, and variation of organisms, his attitude towards the Darwinian theory is another that gives him an especial interest for American students. He is an evolutionist, an advocate of Lamarckism, in the theory of descent, and in a measure of Darwinism, but only in so far as it may not call for advocacy of selection as the all-powerful and almost the sole factor in the transformation of descendants and the formation of new species. The work in hand, on the origin of species through migration and isolation, is a republication by his nephew of a number of articles from different periodicals, the earliest bearing the date 1868, the latest that of 1886. The discussions by which endeavor is made to establish the migration theory involve the greater part of the evidence, recent or palæontological, brought forward by others in support of zoölogical evolution, as well as a great deal gathered by Wagner from fields traversed by himself. The scientific value of the book is not impaired by being written in a style that will appeal to a wide circle of readers, and the result is a solid volume, nearly 700 pages, of which we should be glad to see a good English translation. For an understanding of the author's peculiar theory, and of his position as an opponent of the Darwinian, we may refer to the propositions on page 96, in which are put forth what he considers to be the (in themselves) very simple causes or laws which set bounds to the form and fix its typical difference upon the migrating organism:

"(1.) The greater the total amount of change in the hitherto existing conditions of life which the emigrating individuals find on entering a new territory, the more intensely must the innate variability of every organism manifest itself.

"(2.) The less this increased individual variability of organism is disturbed in the peaceful process of reproduction by the mingling of numerous subsequent immigrants of the same species, the more frequently will nature succeed, by intensification and transmission of the new characteristics, in forming a new variety (*Abart oder Rasse*), *i. e.*, a commencing species.

"(3.) The more advantageous the changes experienced by the individual organs are to the variety, the more readily will it be able to adapt itself to the surrounding conditions; and the longer the undisturbed breeding of a commencing variety of colonists in a new territory continues without its mingling with subsequent immigrants of the same species, the oftener a new species will arise out of the variety."

Wagner makes migration and subsequent isolation a necessity in the formation of species. He says a new race cannot be formed without a long-enduring separation of colonists from their fellows of the same species. Unlimited crossing in a species produces uniformity, and brings a variety (if its characteristics have not been fixed through a series of generations) back to the common form. In part this could not apply to asexual and to some hermaphroditic forms; yet migration would place them under conditions favoring variation, and isolation would be all the more perfect from lack of sexual crossing.

"Jede Spezies oder konstante Varietät im Tier- und Pflanzenreich entsteht durch räumliche Absonderung eines Emigranten oder Emigrantenpaars vom Wohngebiet einer fruchtbaren Art, d. h. einer Spezies, welche noch im Stadium der Variationsfähigkeit sich befindet. Der Akt der Sonderung und Kolonienbildung (durch aktive oder passive Migration) ist stets die nächstwirkende Ursache, welche zur Entstehung einer neuen Art den Anstoss giebt und ohne welche keine Form zur typischen Konstanz sich ausprägt. . . . Der 'Kampf ums Dasein' spielt im Haushalt der Natur überhaupt eine wesentlich andere Rolle, als sie die Darwin'sche Selektionstheorie postuliert. . . . Der 'Struggle for Life' wirkt daher für den gesunden und normalen Bestand der organischen Typen, aber er selbst ist keineswegs von formbildender Wirkung. Er ist in den meisten Fällen weder die Ursache des Entstehens einer neuen, noch des Erlöschens einer alten Spezies."

Enough has been said by way of making the basis of Wagner's theory intelligible; we can give but a faint idea of the wealth of fact and argument with which he supports himself or confronts his opponents. Much of the evidence is familiar—the persistence of low types, the lack of difference between the mummied crocodile and ibis of the Nile and those of today, the necessity of isolation in artificial selection (shown, for instance, by the single race of dogs in western Asia, where religion by making the animal unclean prevents selection), and so on—it needs no recapitulation. One impression left from reading the book is, that less has been heard of the author because his opponents found it easier to meet him by silence than by argument.

To make a very distinct separation between the migration theory and the selection theory is difficult, if possible. Wagner opposes his theory to that of Darwin; he says in the latter it is the struggle for existence, but in the former it is isolation, that is the most powerful factor in building species. It is evident that to produce the results claimed by selectionists, migration is not an absolute necessity, as is claimed by Wagner. On the other hand, the effects claimed by the latter are abundantly proved to follow migration. This, however, is not the same as proving migration to be the direct cause of the variation. The objections to be urged against this theory differ somewhat from those to be brought against one that demands the retention only of beneficial variations, the survival of the fittest, one that preserves rather than originates. Whether an individual is ultimately to survive may be decided many times before it comes to depend on particular beneficial organs that might be traced to selection. The struggle begins in the ovary; the competition fraught with the greatest percentage of danger may occur in the nest of eggs; and continuation of existence depends on so many, on such a changeable and disconnected succession of factors—factors appearing, serving their purpose, and disappearing by the thousand—that "natural selection" becomes simply a convenient term, designating the effects of a legion of causes. Migration and isolation, again, are the means of bringing into action upon the emigrating individuals different modifying agents; they favor the action of causes producing diversity among the members of a species without more than indirectly being causes themselves. The origin of new species and varieties may in fact be ascribed to inheritance of acquired tendencies toward variation in special directions by some, or many, of the individuals constituting the species; tendencies induced by stress of circumstances, external or internal, climate, food, habits, use, disuse, etc., etc., being favored in their persistence and increase, and in the accumulation of their effects, by isolation of those members of the species, or endangered by intercrossing them with others.

The book contains a good biographical sketch of the author by Dr. Karl von Scherzer.

Universités Transatlantiques. Par Pierre de Coubertin. Paris: Hachette. 1890.

IN the fall of 1889, M. de Coubertin, already known by writings on education in England, was sent by the French Minister of Education on a tour of inspection among the schools and colleges of the United States, of which some results are presented in the volume designated above. The title is somewhat of a misnomer, for M. Coubertin gives us miscellaneous *impressions de voyage*, on the great cities, the elections, the political tone, and what not, which serve to vary the somewhat monotonous notes on educational institutions. Even in regard to these latter, his title is not fairly descriptive. His main interest obviously lies not with the higher study and research which we begin at last to associate with the term university, but with the academies and with that part of the colleges which falls rather into the domain of secondary education; and the most appreciative passages in the book are concerned with some of the preparatory schools. The larger institutions get very unequal treatment. Princeton and Cornell are described with care; Harvard and Johns Hopkins are but briefly noticed.

Throughout, the life of the students receives more attention than their course of study; the author writes with more or less covert reference to the changes which he would see intro-

duced into the French schools, and which he sums up at the close of his volume in the words *sport et liberté*. The foot-ball field is prominent in his pages, and he is astounded to learn that even at the Catholic University in Washington it is proposed to encourage the young theologians in this sport. He finds the game somewhat more scientific and rather more brutal than in England (*quaere* as to this), but it has his hearty sympathy as part of the general cultivation of outdoor exercise. On the other hand, the gymnasiums which are springing up in all our colleges meet with very scant recognition, and the craze for anthropometry with even less. M. de Coubertin has a strong preference for exercise in the open air, and a great suspicion of the efficacy of gymnastic apparatus. The labors in anthropometry of Dr. Sargent at Harvard and of Dr. Hitchcock at Amherst are perhaps treated too lightly; but we confess to having read with satisfaction, as well as amusement, the gently sarcastic remarks with which the courteous Frenchman touches on the eagerness shown by some of our gymnastic directors in striving to attain a "normal" development and to manufacture a "normal" man.

The Menœchmi of Plautus. Edited on the basis of Brix's edition by Harold North Fowler. [Students' Series of Latin Classics.] Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 1889.

To the special introduction to the "Menœchmi" has been prefixed, though in an abridged form, all that is of general value in Brix's introduction to the "Trinummus," such as information in regard to the life of Plautus and the principal manuscripts, rules of prosody, etc. Traces of haste or carelessness are discernible in the fact that the numerous examples of metrical peculiarities which Brix, as was natural, drew from the "Trinummus," have here been retained (without the references) instead of being replaced, as might easily have been done, by similar examples from the play in hand. A feature of the introduction which will commend it especially to our students, is a sketch of the many modern imitations of the "Menœchmi"; in which, however, we should prefer a more extended treatment of Shakspere's play than the editor gives. The new edition of the "Menœchmi" by Schoell appeared too recently to be available for the criticism of the text, which is mainly that of Brix. In a few cases the manuscript reading has been retained, and usually with good reason. The great majority of the changes in this edition, as compared with the original, are to be found in the commentary and critical appendix. And in the commentary lies also the greatest defect in the work. Brix's commentary is not adapted to American college students. It contains too much erudition and too many exhaustive notes. Mr. Fowler has transferred many of these to the appendix, but there still remain a great number in the commentary, which is marred, likewise, by frequent references to authorities which are not only inaccessible to the mass of American students, but, even if accessible, would probably never be consulted. A number of notes have been added from other editions, notably Wagner's, and a few, of minor importance, seem to be original. In a very few instances Brix's view is attacked, usually with reason. Some metrical notes could easily have been omitted if a short treatment of the senarius had been given in the introduction—a lack but inadequately supplied by any of the grammars.

Numerous quotations from the "Comedy of Errors" are scattered through the commentary, and some good translations of idiomatic passages insure the interest of the student.

The Nine Worlds. Stories from Norse Mythology. By Mary E. Litchfield. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1890.

'THE NINE WORLDS' is a successful attempt to retell for children of all growths the story of the old Norse gods, in much the same way that Hawthorne, in the 'Wonder Book,' has written of the gods and goddesses of classical mythology. Judiciously attuned to modern ears, the stories of Norse mythology are not only intrinsically worth the telling, but are the interesting record of a stadium in the history of the culture of our own Teutonic ancestors, a knowledge of which the recent increased attention in this direction has rendered almost imperative. The author has well succeeded in reincarnating for us these very human deities, in the midst of their characteristic northern environment. Compared with the gods of the south, they are naturally, as the impersonations of a people of a much more primitive culture, in their ideality more than a plane lower. They are nearer a condition of nature: their motives of action are simpler, their impulses more superficial, their physical needs larger and more palpable. The whole tone of the northern legends, too, is pitched in a sterner key, as befits the natural surroundings of the people among whom they were evolved and the corresponding impress made upon the manner of thought. The writer of the present stories has not forgotten this when she has found it necessary to fill out an occasional hiatus in the original myth. It was hardly necessary, however, for her to give a list of authorities; for the dramatic story of the gods as the author has written it is, in reality, as a connected whole, to no small extent the product of her own fertile imagination.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amicis, E. de. Holland and its People. Vandyke ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.
Ballard, Julia P. Among the Moths and Butterflies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Banks, Nancy H. Stairs of Sand. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Bardeen, C. R. Home Exercise for Health and Cure. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Barr, Amelia E. The Household of McNeil. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Betham-Edwards, M. For One and the World. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Bixley, J. E. C. The Catholic Democracy of America. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 25 cents.
Brown, Alton, and Brown, Mary. Famous Novels by Great Men. The Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Browne, T. S. In the Riding-School. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Cable, G. W. Old Creole Days. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Cooper, S. W. Think and Thank. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Cropper, J. The Faith of a Realist. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Dane, D. "Vengeance is Mine." Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Dumas, A., fils. The Lady with the Camellias. Belford Co.
Fawcett, E. How a Husband Forgave. Belford Co.
Fontaine, C. Historiettes Modernes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 65 cents.
Glazebrook, M. G. Lessons from the Old Testament. London: Percival & Co.
Goss, W. L. Recollections of a Private. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.25.
Guernsey, Lucy Ellen. The Hidden Treasure. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Gunter, A. C. Small Boys in Big Boots. The Home Publishing Co.
Guyot, Prof. A. The Earth and Man. Revised ed. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Hall, E. The Turnover Club. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Halstead, Ada L. Hazel Verne. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Harkness, A. An Easy Method for Beginners in Latin. American Book Co.
House and Pet Dogs. *Forest and Stream* Pub. Co. 50 cents.
Hughes, T. Alfred the Great. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Judge, W. Q. Echoes from the Orient. New York: *The Path*.
Ladd, G. T. Introduction to Philosophy. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Lamb, C. Essays of Elia. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Lowell, J. R. Literary Essays. Vols. III. and IV. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 per vol.
Macmillan, Prof. M. Southey's Life of Nelson. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Mead, T. H. Our Mother Tongue. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Morley, Prof. H. English Writers: The 14th Century. Book II. Cassell & Co.
Murray, D. C., and Hermann, H. The Bishop's Bible. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Nadaillac, Marquis de. Prehistoric America. Pop. ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.
Page, T. N. In Old Virginia. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart, and Ward, H. D. Come Forth. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Poor's Hand-Book of Investment Securities. H. V. & H. W. Poor.
Preble, H., and Parker, C. P. Handbook of Latin Writing. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Preston, T. The Theory of Light. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Prudden, T. M. Dust and its Dangers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Randall-Diehl, Mrs. A. Practical Delsarte Primer. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen.
Reddall, H. F. A Pocket Handbook of Biography. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.

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OCTOBER NUMBER.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 2, 1890.

The Week.

THE report of the Tariff Conference Committee was a division of spoils such as takes place in some parts of the world in caves after a successful raid on the travelling public. The Binding-Twine Trust gets seven-tenths of a cent per pound, instead of one and one-fourth; but, as a compensation for this moderation in taxing the farmers, the duties on other kinds of twine and cordage are raised to one and three-fourths cents per pound, which is one-fourth of a cent higher than either house had agreed to. The sugar question was settled by the conferees making all sugar above No. 16—that is, all that has been passed through a refinery—dutiable at one-half cent per pound, and an extra one-tenth for any sugar from countries that pay a bounty, either directly or indirectly; the Secretary of the Treasury to determine whether a bounty is paid or not. A bounty is to be paid on domestic sugar of 2 cents per pound on sugar testing ninety degrees, and 1¾ cents on that testing between eighty and ninety. The provision regarding the free admission of tin plate in case the domestic production does not exceed one-third of the consumption, is amended by postponing the date of that boon till 1897. The duty on metallic tin of four cents per pound is not to take effect until 1893, and is to come off in 1895, unless the domestic production at that time has amounted to as much as 5,000 tons in a single year. The reciprocity clause is postponed to January 1, 1892, after which time, but not before, the taxing power of Congress on the articles of sugar, tea, coffee, and hides, is transferred to the President of the United States. The bill is a dreadful hotch-potch, but through it all can be discerned the robbery of the people for the benefit of special interests and classes in a higher degree and more brazen fashion than even in the Tariff of Abominations of 1828. The reduction of the revenue is estimated by the conferees at $66,000,000. Whether this will produce a deficit in the Treasury or not, the report does not say.

There is something truly pathetic in Senator Sherman's appeal to the protected Trusts and "combines" not to take advantage of the McKinley tariff, but to break up and go to competing with each other like good fellows The Trusts and "combines" began their operations under the shelter of the tariff three years ago, the Sugar Trust being the first in the field. Then came the Lead Trust, followed by the Cotton-Bagging, the Binding-Twine, the Plate-Glass, the Linseed-Oil, the Window-Glass, and ever so many more. The Republican newspapers began to threaten them with all sorts of penalties if they did not desist, and Senator Sherman made a speech in which he said that he should have no hesitation in voting to remove all duties from any article which was made the subject of monopoly in this manner. Yet not only have the duties on the trusted articles not been repealed in a single instance, not even on sugar, but in many cases (notably linseed oil and cotton bagging) they have been increased. And now Senator Sherman himself votes for these things, and then gets up in the Senate and solemnly warns these "combines" not to take the plums thrown into their laps, but to separate and compete vigorously with each other, because if they do not, he (Sherman) will some day "be as ready to vote for the repeal of this law as he is now ready to vote for it." We can imagine the derision with which this speech will be received by the Trusts.

There is an ingenious method of settling disputes about money which is in very common use, and which is known as "splitting the difference." A claims that B has borrowed five dollars of him which never has been repaid; B claims either that he never had the money or that he has returned it. The dispute is referred to a third party as arbitrator. B either owes five dollars or he owes nothing, but the arbitrator saves himself the trouble of investigating the facts by "splitting the difference," and decides that B must pay two dollars and a half, and that A must receive it as payment in full of his claim. Having thus certainly wronged one party or the other to the extent of half the sum in dispute, he departs contented, and everything is well. On this venerable principle the Conference Committee has settled the question of the tariff on works of art. The House having voted for free art and the Senate for the continuance of the old rate of duty, the matter came before the Committee with the other disputed clauses of the Tariff Bill. The House conferees were naturally committed to free art, while of the Senate conferees, four, viz., Messrs. Aldrich, Sherman, Hiscock, and Carlisle, had given assurance that they favored it. The advocates of free art felt that the matter was in the hands of their friends and awaited the decision with considerable confidence. Alas! they had not reckoned on this ancient and honorable method of settling a dispute. The Senate had voted for 30 per cent. and the House for no duty at all. The Conference Committee "split the difference," and gave themselves no further trouble in the matter. No more flagrant instance has been seen of the lack of any rational principle in our tariff tinkering than this compromise. It is wrong from every conceivable point of view, and can please no one.

Mr. P. Henry Smith puts the following question to us:

"Why is it that all industrial Europe at the present time is actually in a demoralized state because of the passage by the American Congress of a measure which is known as the McKinley Bill? Do we legislate for the United States or for the countries of Europe?"

A short answer to this question may be found on pages 164 and 165 of the last volume of our Diplomatic Correspondence, where Secretary Blaine sends to Minister Reid at Paris the resolutions of the Chicago Board of Trade in reference to the exclusion of our pork products from France and Germany. The resolutions say that "whereas, under this legislation, our exportation of hog products has diminished in value from $104,000,000 in 1881 to $59,000,000 in 1888," etc., etc., our Government is urged to take steps to remove the exclusion and reopen those markets to us. Now, what kind of an argument or answer should we consider it to be if Minister Ribot or Chancellor von Caprivi should say: "Why is it that America is actually demoralized at the present time by our pork decrees? Do we legislate for ourselves or for the United States?" Secretary Blaine, as the correspondence shows, thought that legislation which restricted our sales and their purchases was injurious to both, and this view was pressed with considerable vehemence by Mr. Reid in his communications to the French Minister. Perhaps Mr. P. Henry Smith had better address his future communications to the *Tribune*.

Since the passage of the Tariff Bill in the Senate the subject of chief concern, judging from the shower of petitions and memorials pro and con, is the Conger Lard Bill. This is another bill to protect one particular industry at the expense of another, or of several others. It is not a bill to prevent deception of the buyer of lard, but to put such obstacles in the way of selling mixtures of lard and cotton-seed oil as will give a great advantage to the producers of lard. The manufacturers of "lard compound" have no objection to a law requiring them to brand their packages so as to distinguish it from pure lard. In fact, they adopted in their business the brand "Lard Compound" two years ago. Nor have they any objection to the most stringent law against unwholesome food products. What they do object to is a lot of jesuitical provisions in the bill which fix the amount of lard compound that may be sold at one time, or in one kind of package, and prohibit the use of wooden pails or buckets, or tin cans or caddies, etc., etc. These provisions are plainly intended for other purpcses than the prevention of fraud or injury to health. A more honest way of creating a monopoly would be to enact that the manufacturers of lard compound shall pay one cent or two cents per pound of all they make to the producers of lard, or, more specifically, to John P. Squire & Co. of Boston.

Republican newspapers are discussing the evil of absenteeism in Congress, which has never before reached such alarming proportions as during the present session. "It has become a serious question," says the New York *Tribune*, "how to cure this great evil of neglect of duty by Representatives." One obvious remedy would be to remove the

immediate cause, which is the assumption by the Speaker of the power to say that there is a quorum present. Democrats cannot be expected to be regular in their attendance when their presence is seized upon as a means of forcing the passage of measures to which they are opposed; and Republicans are naturally lax when they reflect that "Tom" Reed can count a quorum if he chooses, whether they are in the chamber or not. The effectual cure for this evil is the adoption of a rule for the House of Representatives like that embodied in the Constitutions of New York and many other States, which requires that a majority of all the members shall be present and vote yea in order to pass any measure. If the dominant party has but a narrow margin, as commonly happens to the Republicans in the New York Assembly, it must keep nearly every member in his seat or it can pass no measure to which the Democrats are opposed, because 65 of the 128 members must vote yea in order to pass any measure. There is never any serious trouble about absenteeism in the New York Legislature under this just rule, and there would be none in Congress if it were adopted in that body.

"Turn about is fair play." The House of Representatives of the Fifty-second Congress, with Idaho and Wyoming represented, will have 332 members. Suppose that the Democrats elect 170, while the Republicans have but 162, and that the Democrats organize the body. Suppose that a number of seats are contested. Suppose that a partisan Democratic Committee on Elections reports in favor of unseating a Republican whose claim to his seat is so strong that a fair-minded Democrat feels constrained to make a speech opposing what he styles the "ridiculous proposition" that the Democratic contestant ought to be seated on a claim which "would not be considered by any court in any State of the Union for one moment." Suppose that other Democrats are known to share this view, and to be so averse to carrying out the scheme that several of them will refuse to vote to seat the Democratic contestant, so that it is doubtful whether a majority of the 332 members can be found who will answer yea on the roll-call. Supposing all this, does anybody believe that a Republican newspaper in the United States would maintain for one moment that the Democratic Speaker ought to have the power of compelling Republican members to enter the chamber in order to secure a quorum, and then of making their presence as effective towards consummating the outrage as though they voted in its favor? Yet that is precisely the point which was involved in the Venable-Langston controversy, with the simple change of party relations. Every fair-minded Republican will concede that the supposititious case in the Fifty-second Congress would be intolerable. All that the Democrats claim is, that the actual case in the Fifty-first Congress is equally intolerable.

The official report of the proceedings in the House of Representatives on Tuesday week, when that body unseated a member holding a certificate of election from the Governor of his State, and put another man in his place, should receive the careful attention of every thoughtful reader. That such action could be taken without a word of debate; without the reading of the Committee's report; without even "a statement of the reasons for the seating of this man," when a conscience-stricken Republican ventured to ask for it; without a verification of the presence of a quorum when the Speaker's dictum was questioned—would seem incredible if it had not really happened. Fifteen years ago Mr. Blaine declared that "the moment you clothe your Speaker with power to go behind your roll-call and assume that there is a quorum in the hall, you stand on the very brink of a volcano." Are we not so standing when the *Congressional Record* reports such a substitution of brute force for the orderly methods of parliamentary government?

The final action of the House on Mr. Kennedy's famous Quay speech amounts to a suppression of it in the permanent edition of the *Congressional Record* of one date, and allowing it to stand in the same edition of a subsequent date. If this is a satisfactory result to Quay, he must be singularly constituted. Furthermore, the final vote was far from being even a party vindication, for thirty-two Republicans voted against the expunging of the speech, thus taking the ground that Mr. Kennedy's characterization of the leader of the party as a "Judas Iscariot" and a "branded criminal" was not a censurable, but an entirely just and proper performance. Mr. Kennedy himself was not at all quelled by the act of suppression, but declared his willingness to stand before the people of the country on the speech as he first delivered it, with entire confidence that his words would be approved. We are quite sure that he will not be asked by the Republicans to stand before the people in Pennsylvania or anywhere else in order to get a verdict on his words.

The Republican managers in Pennsylvania had good cause for the anxiety which they revealed in advance concerning the character of Senator Emery's speech against Delamater, the Republican candidate for Governor, which was delivered at Bradford on Friday. The speech is one of the most crushing indictments ever made against a candidate of a great party for high office. It should be remembered that Senator Emery is a Republican of life-long party loyalty, with no "taint" of Mugwumpism or independence of any kind. He speaks against his party's candidate now because he believes him to be a dishonest man, having given notice, in advance of his nomination, that he would do so if he were thrust upon the party by Quay. He sums up his indictment of Delamater in the following three charges:

"I charge that he procured his election to the Senate of this State in 1886 by improper means; that he procured by improper means citizens of Crawford County to vote for him at the general election, and that, when a memorial had been contemplated to be presented to the Senate of the State to prevent him from taking the oath of office, he paid large sums of money for the suppression of said memorial. I charge that he did take the oath of office, thereby committing a crime against the good name and statutes of the Commonwealth.

"I charge, also, that during his service in the Senate he attempted to alter a public record, by framing a conference report on a bill before it had been properly considered, contrary to all rules and practice, signing or having had signed the names of the alleged members of the Committee, and in so doing offended the dignity of the Legislature and the laws of the Commonwealth. I make these charges without fear of successful denial, and I court an action at law, whereby I may place my proof before the people oath-bound."

In support of these charges, Mr. Emery offers a great array of evidence, some of which is already in the form of affidavits, and some of which he presents without giving the names of the witnesses, merely speaking of them as X., Y., and Z., but promising to produce them in person if he is summoned into court to sustain his charges. This is a wise movement on his part, for if he had revealed their names, the Quay-Wanamaker managers would have had no trouble in getting all the liars they desired to swear in the newspapers to the contrary effect. As the matter stands now, Senator Emery must be called into court, or his charges must be allowed to stand uncontradicted. They leave the Republican campaign in Pennsylvania in a more disreputable condition than ever. With their platform warmly endorsing a public thief and "branded criminal," and with a man at the head of their ticket arraigned by an honorable member of their own party as a briber, perjurer, and forger, the Republicans have a pretty heavy burden to carry.

The answer which Quay's candidate for Governor of Pennsylvania, Delamater, makes to Senator Emery's charges that he is guilty of bribery, perjury, and forgery, is: "I wish to say, with the fullest force and vigor of my voice, that they are wilful and malicious lies." His answer to Senator Emery's invitation to come into court and have the charges tried on the evidence which the latter is ready to produce, is: "No man lives in Pennsylvania who thinks more of probity of character in social, political, and business life than your candidate for Governor. His reputation rests in the confidence of his people, as evidenced by his overwhelming nomination and election for Senator, and in the subsequent testimonial of their approval and esteem in his nomination for the highest office in the Commonwealth." That is called by the Philadelphia *Press* "branding Emery's charges," and it may be regarded in that light in Pennsylvania. Viewed from this part of the country it looks like a very weak evasion, and as being much feebler as a defence against unanswerable charges than the weapon which the *Press* is accustomed to use with such telling effect in similar emergencies, and which it has frequently used in behalf of Quay. That is, to say flatly that the real motive of the charges is a desire to break down the protective tariff. That covers everything. If

Delamater had declared boldly his belief that Senator Emery is a free-trader in disguise, and is very likely bribed by Cobden-Club money to take the course he is pursuing, there would not have been a particle of doubt about the charges being thoroughly "branded."

What must be the feelings of Quay and Wanamaker when they find the name of Robert Ellis Thompson among the supporters of Pattison in the present campaign in Pennsylvania? Mr. Thompson is the Professor of Protection for the United States of America. After he signed the Independent address, there was no excuse for anybody to say that the issue before the people of the State was a tariff issue, because that would imply that the pupils know more than the master, which is absurd. Quay, Delamater, and Wanamaker are the catechumens of Thompson in the school of protection. If the latter says that "there is but *one issue* in this campaign: purity of the ballot, fair elections, honest and courageous men in office, clear administration of public affairs are and always will be supreme questions in a republic," it is not open to Quay to say that the true issue in the State is protection to home industry. Leave Prof. Thompson and Henry C. Lea to take care of that.

There is a touch of Quayism about the latest Republican scandal at Washington. It has been revealed that the Postmaster of the House, J. L. Wheat, a protégé of the Speaker, let the contract for carrying the mails for $5,000, on condition that the contractor should pay back to him $150 a month for his kindness in awarding him the contract. Wheat admits having received five monthly payments, or $750, in this way; but when an investigation was called for on Thursday, a Republican member, Caswell of Wisconsin, came forward with the defence that the practice of receiving money in this way "had obtained during several Congresses," that Wheat had fallen in with it without sufficient thought as to its character, but that he had now become convinced that "the money was not a proper and legitimate perquisite, and had, therefore, covered every dollar into the Treasury." That is, as he had, under fear of discovery, paid back into the Treasury what he had taken without warrant, there was nothing to investigate, since no offence had been committed. The House was not quite prepared to take this view, but amended the proposed resolution of inquiry into Wheat's conduct so as to include the conduct of his Democratic predecessors, and then adopted it. According to this view, Wheat's thievery will be made less heinous provided it can be shown that he merely followed the bad example of his Democratic predecessors in committing it.

The nomination of Sherman Hoar as the Democratic candidate for Congress in a Massachusetts district is significant of the drift towards that party among intelligent men of the younger generation. Mr. Hoar is a son of the ex-Attorney-General and a nephew of the Senator; he was bred a Republican; he is a fair type of the large class of young men belonging to the families of good standing who used to be set down without inquiry as Republicans. A quarter of a century ago the Republican party of Massachusetts was preëminently "the respectable party," and so the one towards which young men were inclined to drift. As the Boston correspondent of the Springfield *Republican* says: "It has been the feeling of the Republicans for a generation that they contained most of the respectability of the State, and that it was not honorable for a man to belong to the Democratic party." But a change has come, and the same correspondent says that now "the men who are at the front of the Democratic party ask no odds of the Republicans as regards standing in the community, and the old stigma which adhered to the Democracy in the days of the war, when most of us were taught to believe that a Democrat was as bad as a horse-thief, is rapidly being removed from the minds of the younger generation. The principles which the Democrats have proclaimed this year, in contrast with those promulgated by the Republicans, will draw to the party many who believe the Democrats are right, but who have felt that they would forfeit some of their social or business standing if they should become affiliated with the Democrats." Another illustration of changing conditions in New England is the nomination on the Democratic ticket in Massachusetts for Secretary of State of a farmer who was formerly a good Republican, but has become convinced that the interests of the farmer will be promoted by a reform of the tariff.

The eleemosynary theory of public office, as a means of support for ne'er-do-weels, has received its most striking illustration in the case of Gen. Nathaniel P. Banks. For a generation past it has been recognized by both parties in Massachusetts as a solemn duty to provide this "old public functionary" with a salary out of the public treasury, and the Democrats have discharged their share of the obligation as scrupulously as the Republicans. The Republicans, however, have at last grown weary, and the Congressional Convention in his district has just refused the General a renomination. If the Democrats had any offices to give just now, a hopeful appeal would undoubtedly be made to them, as it is their "turn"; but they have none. Indeed, unless both parties will join hands and pass a proposed bill placing him on the retired list of the army, it looks as though he had drawn his last official salary. It is melancholy, of course, to see a poor old gentleman deprived of what seems his only possible means of support, but it is a travesty on our theory of government to give the place of Representative in Congress to one whose only qualification is that he needs the pay.

The career of Gen. Banks affords an illustration of the change which has come over the public mind as to candidates for office. The present generation knows him only as a political relic, but he was a great figure thirty to forty years ago—Chairman of the Massachusetts Constitutional Convention, Speaker of the House of Representatives at Washington, and then Governor of his State. It was as "the bobbin boy" that he first came to be known, just as Henry Clay used to be styled "the mill-boy of the slashes," for he had been a poor boy and worked in his youth in a cotton-factory, giving all his spare time to reading and study, according to the old formula by which merit conquered the obstacles of poverty. We do not have "bobbin boys" as candidates for public office in these days; we do not confer place as the reward of fitness attained by industry; we do not point to a man who has been made Governor or Senator, and say to the poor boy, "You see there an example of what you may become if you will work hard, use your spare time in study, and render yourself so conspicuously qualified for a public trust that your fellow-citizens will confer it upon you." The question nowadays is, "How big a pile has he, and how much will he put up if we nominate him?"

The latest developments of the local political situation are all encouraging. In the first place, Tammany is visibly alarmed, and is calling through its solitary organ in the city press for union and harmony for the sake of the Presidential chances in 1892. A plea of this kind from the gang which has put a "knife" into nearly every Democratic Presidential candidate for a quarter of a century, is most moving. Only a few days ago Croker was eager to "go it alone" with Godfather Grant, but no sooner does his wish appear likely to be gratified than he begins to plead for harmony and union. In the second place, the straight-ticket advocates among the Republicans are modifying their demands, and are expressing a willingness to confer with other anti-Tammany forces. In the third place, we are happy to say that there is no longer any danger of precipitate action by the People's Municipal League in the nomination of its ticket.

The recent choice of a layman as President of Amherst College, a Congregational institution in New England, is followed by similar action in the case of a prominent Methodist institution in the West, Mr. Henry W. Rogers, a lawyer by profession, and only thirty-seven years of age, having just been elected as head of the Northwestern University of Evanston, Ill. Not less significant of the remarkable change in the governing forces of denominational institutions is the fact that there is only one clergyman among the twenty-one trustees of the new Baptist university in Chicago, while the head of the committee on the selection of officers is a Unitarian, another member is a Universalist, and a third is not a church-member at all. Such things would have seemed nothing short of incredible less than fifty years ago.

A GENERAL SUMMING UP.

If we were looking for a suitable text for a sermon on the final passage of the McKinley Tariff Bill, we could find nothing more appropriate than the interview with Mr. Henry W. Oliver of Pittsburgh published in the morning papers. Says Mr. Oliver:

"The new Tariff Bill has the best proportioned rates and is the most protective bill that has ever been passed."

This is the same Mr. Oliver who, as a member of the Tariff Commission of 1882-3, put his name to the following words of truth and soberness:

"Early in its deliberations the Commission became convinced that a substantial reduction of tariff duties is demanded, not by a mere indiscriminate popular clamor, but by the best conservative opinion of the country, including that which has in former times been most strenuous for the preservation of our national industrial defences. Such a reduction of the existing tariff the Commission regards not only as a due recognition of public sentiment and a measure of justice to consumers, but one conducive to the general industrial prosperity, and which, although it may be temporarily inconvenient, will be ultimately beneficial to the special interests affected by such reduction."

And much more to the same effect, ending with a bill which the Commission said would reduce the then existing tariff from 20 to 25 per cent. on the average. This report was signed by a selected list of protectionists, including Robert P. Porter, the present Superintendent of the Census; the late John L. Hayes, Secretary of the Wool-Manufacturers' Association; and A. M. Garland, President of the Wool-Growers' Association, as well as Mr. Oliver aforesaid.

If what they said then was true, it is still more so now. If what they said then was applicable to the condition of American industry in its broadest scope, agricultural, mechanical, and commercial, it is still more so now. They pointed out that excessive duties led to improvident investment of capital with consequent failure and loss. "They encourage," continues the report, "the investment of capital in manufacturing enterprise by rash and unskilled speculators, to be followed by disaster to the adventurers and their employees, and a plethora of commodities which deranges the operations of skilled and prudent enterprise." This tendency has led to the creation and multiplication of Trusts among manufacturers whose business had been inordinately stimulated by excessive duties, as Mr. Oliver and his associates said it would be.

But long before the Tariff Commission of 1882-'3 made their memorable deliverance, Republican statesmen who still hold positions of leadership had taken the same position. Said Senator Sherman in the tariff debate of 1872:

"It must be remembered that the present duties taken together are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then surely they are now too high when all these taxes are removed. . . . I have listened with patience, day by day, to the statements of gentlemen who are interested in our domestic productions. I am a firm believer in the general idea of protecting their industries; but I assure them, as I assure their representatives here, that if the present high rates of duties, unexampled in our country, and higher by nearly 50 per cent. than they were in 1861, are maintained on metallic and textile fabrics after we have repealed the very internal taxes which gave rise to them, and after we have substantially given them their raw materials free of duties, we shall have a feeling of dissatisfaction among other interests in the country that will overthrow the whole system, and do greater harm than can possibly be done by a moderate reduction of the present rates of duty. And I am quite sure that intelligent men engaged in the production of various forms of textile and metallic fabrics feel, as I do, that it is wiser and better to do what is just and right, to make a reduction on their products, at least to the extent of the reduction in this bill on their raw materials, rather than to invite a controversy in which I believe they will be in the wrong."

In like manner Mr. Allison of Iowa declared in this debate that the tariff duties at that time were too high, that they were oppressive to agriculture and injurious to the manufacturers themselves. He said that the country had prospered more under the tariff of 1846 (the so-called free-trade tariff) than it had either before or since. This is interesting in the light of Mr. Allison's present position and votes.

"It is claimed," he said, "that the high rates of our present tariff are necessary because the revenue to be obtained therefrom is essential to the Government; and that if we reduce the rates at all, the effect will be the depression of all the industrial interests of the country. The tariff of 1846, although professedly and confessedly a tariff for revenue, was, so far as regards all the great interests of the country, as perfect a tariff as any we ever had. If any interest was depressed under the tariff of 1846, it was the iron interest. I do not believe that this interest, as compared with other interests, had sufficient advantage under that tariff; yet, when we compare the growth of the country from 1840 to 1850 with the growth of the country from 1850 to 1860, the latter decade being entirely under the tariff of 1846, or the amended and greatly reduced tariff of 1857, we find that the increase of our wealth between 1850 and 1860 was equivalent to 126 per cent., while it was only 64 per cent. between 1840 and 1850, four years of which decade were under the tariff of 1842, known as a high-protective tariff, but the average rate of which was about 70 per cent. *below* the existing rate, or 27 per cent. under the tariff of 1842 as against 44 per cent. upon all importations under the present tariff. Our industries were generally prosperous in 1860, with the exception possibly of the iron industry. This was the statement of Mr. Morrill of Vermont on the floor during the discussions of the tariff of 1864."

We might fill columns with similar extracts from the utterances of leading Republican Senators and Representatives dating only a few years back. What has come over the spirit of their dream? Why do we find them now advocating and voting for a tariff higher and more oppressive than any other that ever was heard of or dreamed of in our history? Why do we find them swearing now that everything is white which they called black a few years ago? At which of the two times did they speak the truth, and at which of the two were they telling falsehoods?

This is not a difficult question to answer. At the time when Oliver and Porter, Sherman and Allison, and the rest, were calling for lower duties and showing how the tariff was an injury to the country and an injustice to consumers, the tariff was not an issue in politics. Parties had not divided on it. There was no motive for deceiving people or deceiving themselves. They could afford to speak the truth. The Republican party was not then indebted to a particular class of manufacturers for a campaign fund. It had no debts of a pecuniary nature to discharge. All the conditions were favorable to candor and truth-telling. We do them the justice to believe that they would always tell the truth when they have no contrary motive. But since Mr. Cleveland and the Democratic party took ground for a moderate reduction of the tariff, rather less than Oliver & Co. recommended in 1883, and since the Trusts and "combines" and the protected classes in general put up their money to elect Harrison, the situation is changed and we see what we see.

THE SPEAKER.

ONLY one theory of the nature of the Speaker's office has prevailed in parliamentary countries since its foundation. It was framed on the very establishment of parliamentary government in England, and was carried to this country by the colonists, and has never undergone any change or alteration either in formal rules or in the minds of intelligent men. That theory is well set forth by Cushing as follows, and all other writers on parliamentary procedure fully concur with him:

"The duties of a presiding officer are of such a nature, and require him to *possess so entirely and exclusively the confidence of the assembly*, that, with certain exceptions, which will presently be mentioned, he is not allowed to exercise any other functions than those which properly belong to his office; that is to say, he is excluded from submitting propositions to the assembly, from participating in its deliberations, and from voting. The advantages of these restrictions are supposed to be threefold: (1) the presiding officer is thus left to devote himself exclusively to his official duties, and to the cultivation of the peculiar talents which they require, which would hardly be the case if he were called to take the part and sustain the reputation of a member, and *were influenced by any other ambition than that of performing well the duties of his office; (2) he is thereby secured against the seductions of partiality, and is placed beyond the reach even of suspicion*, by being excluded from engaging as a party in debates and proceedings in which it may become his duty officially to act as judge; and, third, he is relieved *from the danger of weakening his personal consideration by failing in the measures he undertakes, or by giving cause of offence to his associates*, to which a participation in the proceedings as a member would inevitably expose him."

It is obvious that it is only by maintaining rigidly the judicial character of the Speaker's functions that the efficiency or purity of parliamentary government can in any country be preserved. It is as a judge that he enjoys that "confidence of the assembly" which, as Cushing says, forms the very foundation of his authority. It is as a judge that he is expected to interpret and apply the rules. It is because he is assumed to be indifferent between the two political parties in his official action that both submit with a good grace to his decisions. He of course always, as a member of the House, belongs to one or other of these parties, but his highest qualification for the place is the general belief that he will not

allow his party predilections to influence his rulings. A parliamentary body presided over by an avowed partisan would always be on the verge of physical violence. The minority would be constantly tempted to resist what they deemed injustice by force, and parliamentary government would fall into that contempt which has always ended in the appearance of Cæsars, Cromwells, Napoleons, and Boulangers. No such man can long sit in the Speaker's chair without destroying or weakening in every member's mind that delicate respect for law and precedent on which parliamentary institutions rest, and which they never long survive.

It is quite true that it has of late been felt necessary in several parliaments, notably the English House of Commons, to increase the Speaker's control of the procedure, with the view of preventing plain attempts to obstruct or delay business and defeat the will of the majority. But the greater the Speaker's authority becomes, the more needful is it that there should be no doubt or distrust of the spirit in which he exercises it. The larger his powers, the more thoroughly judicial should his temper be, the more carefully should he avoid all appearance of either personal or political partiality.

To illustrate this, let us suppose that when the Speaker of the House of Commons was armed with the greatly enlarged powers which he now possesses over debate, he had come out as a strong and bellicose Unionist, had snubbed and sneered at the Gladstonians, refused to let them "catch his eye" when he pleased, and avowed openly his intention to push the Irish Coercion Bill through to the best of his ability as just what the Irish rascals needed: what a frightful scandal it would have been considered. Suppose, in addition to this, he had left the chair to stump his own constituency against Home Rule, and had loaded the Opposition with abuse, and told his constituents what measures he was going to pass and what to defeat—had, in short, taken openly the position of the party leader—that is, of Balfour and Salisbury; suppose that the Conservatives had supported him in this and shouted, "That's the talk," "Go for 'em, Art.," "Thank God, we have a man in the Speaker's chair at last," what a profound sensation it would have produced throughout the civilized world; what a heavy blow most sober-minded and intelligent men of all countries would feel had been given to parliamentary government everywhere.

And yet we have been witnessing just such a spectacle in this country within the last three months. We have seen this theoretically judicial functionary openly assuming the duties of the leader of his party in the Legislature, and putting himself in direct charge of pending legislation, and seizing for the use of the majority every power, short of physical force, within his reach for the passage of such bills as he approved of, and finally abandoning his place for a stumping tour in his own State, during which he denounced the minority, and produced a full legislative programme in the character of the chief party manager.

Let us admit, for the sake of argument and illustration, that his plan of making a quorum (which he himself denounced vigorously ten years ago) by counting every member whom he sees within the House, is a good one; is it not obvious that this power of seeing members—that is, of substituting his personal testimony for that of the journal—is one which increases enormously the need of the confidence of the House in the judicial quality of his mind and in the rectitude of his character? The more there is left to a man's discretion in dealing with other people's interests and rights, the stronger must be the guarantees of his honesty and impartiality. But Speaker Reed has actually offered the world the grotesque spectacle of increasing partisanship in conjunction with increasing authority and greatly enlarged discretion. Hear what Gen. Garfield said as to the danger of this new power, in 1880:

"Who is to control his seeing? How do we know but that he may see forty members more for his own purposes than there are here in the House? I think my friend from Virginia will see that he lets in the one-man power in a far more dangerous way than ever has occurred before in any legislative assembly of which he and I have any knowledge."

Hear also what Mr. Blaine said of it when he was Speaker in 1875:

"There can be no record like the call of the yeas and nays; and from that there is no appeal. The moment you clothe your Speaker with power to go behind your roll-call and assume that there is a quorum in the hall, why, gentlemen, you stand on the very brink of a volcano."

In other words, the power which is now claimed and exercised for all sorts of purposes by this furious and reckless partisan, a power absolutely destructive of all the best traditions of the Speaker's office, is one which these two prominent Republican leaders pronounced, in times far more exciting than those in which we now live, unfit to be given to any Speaker, as Speakers then were—that is, before any Speaker had openly taken charge of money-making legislation, and browbeaten the minority as public enemies. We look with confidence for the judgment of the country on this wanton attempt to destroy one of its most valuable possessions—the respect within the walls of the Legislature for law and justice and decency.

THE LEADER OF SOCIETY.

Rumor has it, and it is not an improbable rumor, that Mr. Ward McAllister has been offered $50,000 by Mr. Abbey for a winter's course of lectures on Society. Whether Mr. McAllister will accept remains to be seen, but we should say that the chances were that he would accept. The offer is a very flattering one, and evidently by no means an empty compliment. Mr. Abbey backs his opinion of Mr. McAllister's popularity with a mighty sum, and Mr. Abbey is no mean judge of what takes with the American people. We believe there is today no man in the country who excites so much popular curiosity, particularly in the West, as Mr. McAllister, simply because he is supposed to hold the key to what a vast body of people consider an enchanted land, the region called "Society," or more particularly "New York Society." The eagerness to get into it, and the desire to know how to get in, and how to behave when in, are every year ravaging a greater and greater number of American bosoms; and the pressure on the barriers is becoming every year more dangerous. In no capital is Society by any means as hard to enter as it used to be. In every capital a crowd of almost uncontrollable newly enriched people are jostling each other fiercely at the golden gates, and offering the porter fabulous sums to let them squeeze through. But the crowd is kept down in European cities by the greater slowness with which fortunes are made. Curiosity, too, about Society is much less there than it is here, because nearly all aspirants have either had glimpses of it before they actually became candidates for admission, or have received through mere filtration from above, in the course of their previous lives, more or less acquaintance with its usages. There is hardly a newly enriched man or woman in England, struggling to get into the upper circles, who has not had, before he actually came to close quarters with his problem, a certain familiarity with dinner-giving and ball-giving, perhaps on a scale of some luxury. What he gains by social promotion is, therefore, in most cases, simply more distinguished company at his entertainments.

In the United States the conditions are different. Here, as a rule, the candidate for admission to Society arrives at the barriers with hardly any equipment but his checkbook. Neither he nor his wife knows anything about dinner or ball-giving, or about etiquette in general. The way "Society ladies," "club men," and others behave when in each other's company is a great mystery to them both, which they are dying to solve. Hence the demand for "manuals of etiquette," and hence the minuteness of the directions about the minor morals into which these works have to descend. Very often they have to begin with such elementary matter as cautions against spitting on carpets, or using the dinner-knife as a shovel.

The number of these people who have acquired enough money to get into Society, particularly in the West, is enormous. Every year makes additions to the army of them who, having already "travelled extensively in Europe," are dying to "bring out their girls" or marry their boys among the haughty aristocrats who, they fondly believe, fill the mansions in Fifth and Madison Avenues. To this rather helpless and simple-minded multitude Mr. McAllister appears as a kind of Moses, who can lead them into the land of promise. They think he can decide who is fit for "Society," and who is not, and that he may be propitiated into indulgent views about manners and general outfit if properly approached. The report that he had said there were only 400 "Society people" in New York, sent a thrill through the mass which has hardly subsided at this hour. They had no idea the number was so small, and the announcement excited both their hopes and fears to the highest pitch. What he really did say, we are informed on all but the highest authority, was, that there were only about four hundred people in New

York, not "fit for Society"—God forbid!—but who were in the habit of giving dinners and other more or less costly entertainments.

The history of this speech of his has been very droll, and furnishes a striking illustration of the place he fills in the popular imagination. It was treated by the newspapers as something very like the Venetian "Closing of the Council," that is, a final determination who were the ladies and gentlemen of this community. "Official" and "semi-official" lists of them were concocted, sold, and read with great delight or deep depression, as the case might be; and the "Four Hundred" has actually passed into popular parlance as a not wholly humorous designation of the beginnings of an American aristocracy. The fortune of the selection abroad was even more illustrious. In the London *Daily News* the other day, we saw the Four Hundred of New York described as the descendants of a body of "Old Dutch burghers," who lived absolutely to themselves, and constituted one of the most exclusive societies in the world.

Of course Mr. McAllister is not responsible for this nonsense. He knows better than anybody the curious material of which his world is made up, and the smallness of its pretensions to any distinction but that of wealth. All he claims is, that there is something in New York called Society, in which people eat and dress well, and amuse themselves expensively, and that he has more to say than any other one person about the time and manner in which the newcomers can be admitted to it. Some of those who were in it before he appeared on the scene flout his pretensions, it is true, and in moments of excitement call him "a cad"; but to the aspirants he is the very glass of fashion and mould of form, the most interesting, and for certain purposes the most powerful, living American. Wine merchants in particular reverence him much, for he can do a great deal for a brand of sherry or champagne; and the students of etiquette look up to him as tyros in the law do to the Justices of the United States Supreme Court. Even the haughtiest mothers bringing daughters "out" cannot afford to despise his help. Young men who live in boarding-houses, and long for acquaintance with "nice people, don't you know," look on him with awe and admiration. To country people, especially the girls, who come to see the city sights, he typifies all they have read or heard of life at foreign courts, and they fancy he rules over a body of gay people not unlike the Society of the Burg at Vienna. In truth, in the present temper of the American people, laden as they are with a surplus, and eager to spend it in some splendid and luxurious fashion, he is the hero of the time. What kind of a lecturer he will prove we do not venture to guess. Doubtless his success, if he succeeds, will be due to the solid chunks of knowledge he will communicate rather than to the charms of his style. We fear that he cannot succeed equally well as a lecturer and author. If his book fulfils the great expectations entertained of it, it must in some degree interfere with the interests of his platform efforts. But in one way or the other we may be sure he will strengthen his hold both on "Society people" and the people who are getting ready for Society.

BOULANGISM UNMASKED.

PARIS, September 18, 1890.

EUROPE has never been more calm than it is at present: the Triple Alliance professes to be purely defensive; the sovereigns exchange visits and uniforms. The present calm reminds me of the beautiful verse of Racine in "Iphigénie—

"Tout ce tait, et l'armée et les vents et Neptune."

In France the Government has, so to speak, no more difficulties to deal with. M. Constans, the Prime Minister, is the uncontested leader of the Republican party, and it must be said to his credit that he triumphs with great modesty. "Je suis," said he the other day, "un vieil universitaire que le hasard a fait ministre." In this dead season we were reduced to comparing the merits of the two last successful novels, 'Notre Cœur,' by Guy de Maupassant, and 'Cœur de Femme,' by Paul Bourget. But the calm was broken by the publication in the *Figaro* of a succession of articles which appeared under the title "Les Coulisses du Boulangisme."

The author of these "Confidences" does not sign his articles, but it is well known now that he is a M. Mermeix, one of the Deputies from Paris, who belonged to the Boulangist organization while Boulanger's party had a sort of semi-official existence, with its committees called national committees, its papers, its lecturers, its secret funds. Who is M. Mermeix? It is quite possible to represent the "cité-lumière," as Victor Hugo called Paris, the great capital which thinks itself at the head of civilization, and to be perfectly unknown. M. Mermeix has suddenly risen from complete obscurity; he has a duel a day; he challenges and is challenged on account of his "Confidences"; he is wounded, always slightly wounded; he is always ready to meet the persons who accuse him of inaccuracy, economy of truth, calumny, baseness, ingratitude towards his former chief. He is still a young man. He began life as a reporter, and developed in that capacity a great activity, a certain suppleness of intelligence, and a sort of photographic memory, which are the leading characteristics of a good reporter.

Did he belong to any party? No. He went to Frohsdorf after the death of the Comte de Chambord, and reported all the incidents of the funeral, of the journey of the Comte de Paris, his family, and the representatives of the great Legitimist families, in a manner to satisfy the most ardent Royalist. I have been told that on this occasion he received from the Comte de Paris the present of a pin, which probably still at times adorns his cravat. When the Boulanger star began to rise, M. Mermeix followed it, and threw his lot among the followers of the enigmatic General, who came from all the corners of the horizon. Shall we be so severe as to say of them, as Corneille says of the men who were conspiring against Augustus, in "Cinna"—

"Un tas d'hommes perdus de dettes et de crimes,
Que pressent de mes lois les ordres légitimes,
Et qui, désespérant de les plus éviter,
Si tout n'est renversé ne sauraient subsister"?

Shall we use the words of Tacitus, repeated with so much effect by Gambetta in the great speech which made him famous, when, referring to the men who made the *Coup d'État* of December, he described them as "ære alieno et vitiis onustos"?

It has at all times been the fate of the enigmatic men who, in the midst of the confusion of parties, are working for their own ambition, to be surrounded by dubious characters. How was the Boulangist party recruited? What were its objects? This political problem is receiving its solution; the "Coulisses du Boulangisme" throw more light on it than did the indictments of M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire, who was the public prosecutor in the great trial of Boulanger, Rochefort, and Dillon before the French Senate. One of my English friends, who does not believe in the future of republican institutions in France, has invariably asked me for twenty years, when I met him: "How does the army feel on the subject of your politics? Is there no general who will take the army in hand and use it for the benefit, if not of monarchy, at least of himself?" It seemed almost incredible to him, as it probably seems still, that an army of a million of men, recruited from all ranks of the people, should be no political factor at all.

It would take too long to give the reasons for this political inertia; let us accept it as a fact. Marshal MacMahon, who is a Marshal of France, who, to be sure, suffered a great defeat in the late war, but who has a fine military record and bears the title of Duke of Magenta, never dreamed of a *coup d'état;* and when the elections which followed the 16th of May condemned the policy his Ministry had adopted, he changed his Cabinet and finally resigned. Marshal Canrobert, who is probably the most popular man in the French Army, and who is a Senator, has always shown the same spirit. In fact, not a single general ever gave any hope to those who dream of a revolution or a *coup d'état* till General Boulanger became Minister of War. It must not be forgotten that he was the nominee of the most advanced Republicans—of those who call themselves the Radicals. From that day he contrived to keep himself always before the public; he could be all things to all men; he could be theatrical; he was ubiquitous. His enemies as well as his friends were not long in discovering that he had no fixed object but his ambition; that his political phraseology was but a figment; that he was not dogmatic. He became a sort of enigma, in consequence of a kind of versatility and of the contrast between his personal tastes and his language, between the apparent decision of his character and the indistinctness of his real aspirations.

A great American statesman whom I saw long ago, in the days of Napoleon III., remarked to me: "It seems to me that you have always four political parties in France; and when one is in power, the other three combine against it." The remark was very correct, and it is still so, though the Legitimists and Orleanists are now merged into the same party, the Royalist party. We still have four parties: the Republicans in power, whom we call the Opportunists; the Republicans out of power, who go under the general name of Radicals; the Royalists; the Bonapartists. When a general election takes place, coalitions of the parties in opposition are formed against the Government—more or less avowed, according to the circumstances. The difficulty for such coalitions is to find a cry. In 1885 the cry was Tonquin, and, in many places, besides Tonquin, the new law which excluded the priest and religious instruction from the school. The success of the Opposition was great, and there was a minority of 200 members against the ruling party, consisting of Republican Opportunists. At the time of the last general elections, Tonquin was almost forgotten, the *Kulturkampf* had lost its first

ardor; Boulanger offered himself to all the malcontents. To the Radicals he promised the revision of the Constitution; the Monarchists he gave to understand, if he did not say so distinctly to them, that a revision of the Constitution might lead to monarchy, and that no limitation of the sovereignty of the people would be opposed by him. Such was the popularity of the man that the Republican party thought it necessary to replace the *scrutin de liste* with the *scrutin d'arrondissement*. If the general ticket had been retained, it was understood and already accepted by all the malcontents that Gen. Boulanger should head all the tickets in all the departments, whether his name should be followed by Republican, or Bonapartist, or Royalist names. He was to be the great elector, to make the tickets for the whole country; he would have obtained in this way a real *plébiscite* and become the Dictator of France.

History will some day find it difficult to explain the rise and downfall of Boulangism. The "Coulisses du Boulangisme" take us behind the political curtain and show us a sort of comedy which is at the same time comical and saddening. The minor actors in the comedy will soon be forgotten—their names are hardly worth mentioning; but Boulanger himself will perforce have a place in the pages of French history. He will also have his legend. You will find for many years in some cottages, in some country inn, the portrait of the dashing General on his black charger. The philosophy of Boulangism will be explained by future historians, who will find in it a proof of the hidden hero-worship which exists in the Latin race. In want of the real hero, the popular mind had seized a virtual hero, a virtual man of action, a virtual deliverer of Alsace-Lorraine. What this virtuality was, we all know now; and it is not without a sense of shame that many speak of the man of action who ran before danger, of the political adventurer who dreaded adventures. Much dirty linen is washed under our eyes in these "Coulisses du Boulangisme," and all sincere men of all parties cannot help suffering at the spectacle which is placed before their eyes. The general impression which these revelations produce is one of contrition: we see more clearly than we did before that with universal suffrage corruption becomes universal; that a democracy becomes a plutocracy; that political power is the way to wealth, to pleasure, and is no longer the price of pure patriotism; that France is sadly in need of great men, of statesmen, of political guides. Boulanger is fallen, but France herself is humbled. She must feel that Boulanger is not a Napoleon and that Jersey is not St. Helena.

THE NEW PARLIAMENT IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, August, 1890.

IT is a fact suggestive of the frequent failure among Japanese to appreciate certain of our points of view, that there is not a person in Japan to-day who knows the total number of national electors or of the votes cast at the national election of July 1. It has simply not occurred to the officials to take measures for compiling the complete figures. Some estimate may be formed, however, from scattered reports procured for me by the Government. The figures reveal an extraordinary eagerness to exercise the new franchise. The electors numbered very nearly 500,000, and the average voting percentage reached, if it did not exceed, the high figure of 90. Even in apathetic Tokio the percentage rose to 83, and in Osaka to 90; while in some of the provincial constituencies the remarkable record of 97 and 99 was attained. Candidates, too, were plentiful. The average for the whole country was 3 or 4 for each seat, but in many country districts a list of from 5 to 9 appeared, and in Tokio itself there were 93 candidates for 12 places. From the fact that independent candidacies formed a large proportion (one-third) of the whole number, we may appreciate, on the one hand, the high estimate set upon a seat in the new Parliament even by those who have hitherto avoided politics, and, on the other, the limited membership of the bodies calling themselves "parties," and the extent of the reserve force of citizenship ready to show active interest when political power is given to it.

The cardinal fact, however, which has been made clear is, that an election characterized by a hot scramble among candidates, and by the greatest interest on the part of electors, can be held here in the most placid and orderly manner. Needless to say, the unfriendly prophets who for several months have misrepresented affairs here in the foreign press would have had it far otherwise. But, excepting an insignificant case or two of disorder or intimidation, the 1st of July was everywhere a Sabbath of peace and calm.

The constituencies were divided in the most unaccountable manner. In Tokio they averaged 350 electors each; yet one of them contained 1,600, another 182. In country districts some reached 3,000, others only 300. In Saitama province a constituency containing 320 electors returned one member, while a contiguous one in the same province, returning two members, held over 7,000 electors. Such an arrangement was, of course, of the grossest unfairness to candidates. It was not a case of gerrymandering, however, as it would have been had it occurred in any other country: the ordinary local units of county, town, and ward were preserved and taken as a basis, and it was simply another case of failure to realize one of our elementary points of view.

The quality of the material composing this initial national Parliament is, of course, of the first consequence. A few of the choicest spirits, such as Mr. Fukuzawa, have caused some disappointment by refusing to stand; others of conspicuous merit and ability, such as Mr. Hatoyama (a Yale graduate, until recently a legal adviser to the Government, and a professor in the Imperial University), have been defeated by less worthy candidates; while from the provinces will come many men of only ordinary calibre and of limited experience. But on the whole the best talent of the country, the leading minds in every department of activity, have been returned, and certainly not our own country, perhaps no European nation, can show a legislature containing such a large proportion of its best intellectual material. The present occupations of 217 out of the 300 members of the Lower House (*Shiugi In*) are distributed as follows: Agriculture, 77; no occupation, 36; membership in local assemblies, 24 (of these 13 are presidents); Government office, 24; law, 17; trade, 14; journalism, 11; education, 5; banking, 4; medicine, 3; mining, 1; art, 1. That there will be many of tried parliamentary experience is certain, for at least thirty-five have been members of local assemblies and eighteen of them have served as presidents. To be sure, the prominent party men, those who devote themselves almost entirely to politics, are present in large numbers; but this class of citizens represent here, much more than with us, political integrity and earnest thinking. In rank the membership is thus divided: *shizoku* (samurai), 35 per cent.; *heimin* (commoners), 65 per cent.; so that the prophecy of some that this would be a *shizoku* Parliament only is by no means verified.

A glance at the Tokio delegation will convey an idea of the general character and standing of the members-elect. Here is Tanimoto, formerly Paymaster-General of the Navy, President of the Tokio Street-Car Co., and now President of the Tokio Stock Exchange; Kazama, a farmer's boy who came to Tokio so poor that he could study law only by talking with other students, now a successful lawyer and member of the Tokio Assembly; Ota, apprenticed to a wine-merchant, but afterwards successively South Sea trader, editor, founder of a free school, and Government official, now manager of the Stock Exchange and President of his District Assembly; Oyagi, formerly a feudal noble, now a professor of law; Tsuda, diplomat in Holland under the old Shogunate and in China under the present Government, then judge, now Senator; Kusumoto, formerly Governor of Niigata, Vice-Governor of Tokio, Vice-President of the Senate, now President of the Tokio Assembly; and there are dozens of others who have equally good records. Kusumoto and Tsuda are among the candidates for the Presidency of the lower house, as is also Mutsu, the recently returned American Minister. Two things may be predicted: (1) that no Government official will get the Presidency; (2) that none but a Tokio man can hope for it.

A word must be said about the success of the various parties and the probable proportion between Government and Opposition strength. Estimates vary (for party sympathies are not always avowed here), but roughly the members will stand: *Daido* (United) 60, *Jiyu* (Radical) 50, *Kaishin* (Progressive) 50, Independent 140. Of the latter the Government may count on 80. The strength of the first three groups united (for, as I wrote lately, a union is imminent) will be 160, plus a score or more of Independents; so that the Opposition seems sure to have a safe working majority in any case. Already the Government realizes this, and is acting so as to take some of the wind out of the Opposition sails, by amending those obnoxious measures which would be likely to offer the greatest chance of an immediate Opposition victory. The law regulating political meetings and associations, Bismarckian in its restrictions, has been remodelled; and before November comes, the hateful Peace Preservation Regulations of December, 1887 (much discussed in your columns in the spring of 1888), will be repealed, and the unduly severe press laws revised.

One thing must be clearly understood abroad, that the success of the Opposition in obtaining a majority of the seats means not the slightest danger to stability of government or efficiency of administration. Neither the measures nor the men of the Opposition are anything but reputable and conservative. Not the measures, for perhaps the most radical and visionary of those that are advocated is the introduction of trial by jury! Certainly not the men, for all three of the leaders, Count Itagaki, Count Okuma, and Count Goto, though counted among the "outs," belong historically to the very band of Restoration leaders who now control the Government (Goto is, in fact, a member of the Ministry), and are at this moment using their Opposition strength to secure by compromise a more important influence in the control of affairs; while the lesser lights, men of the sort I have already described, are both by character and surroundings too high in the social, the political, the industrial, the mercantile world, to be anything but conservative,

In short, it must not be forgotten that "Radical" and "Liberal" are purely relative words in Japanese politics; that there are in fact no crying grievances; that the real sting of whatever measures are obnoxious is that they are imposed by a close corporation of rulers, who, be it said, have safely conducted the Government through great crises, and, being but men, naturally do not choose as yet to surrender their powers completely to others—others, too, who, though quite as good, perhaps, have not yet proved their capacity. It is the more needful to insist on this utter absence of any elements of instability or of dangerous radicalism, as an impression seems to have been received in our own country that the political outlook here is ominous—an impression wholly without foundation.

Of the House of Peers it is premature to speak. The nominations by the Emperor have not yet been made, and its composition is as yet not entirely certain. It is likely, however, that none of the new nobility whose services have marked them out in public estimation for a seat will fail to receive it; that its membership will vie with that of the lower house in ability; and that its first President will be Count Ito, the framer of the Constitution.

J. H. W.

Correspondence.

A FORCE BILL FOR YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those who are so zealous for the "Force Bill" before Congress may read the following incident with much profit, taken from the *Andover Review* for October (p. 371). The writer is a clergyman who resolved to suspend most of his pastoral duties for a while, and spend some time in personal contact with laboring and business men, endeavoring to find out their habits of life and thought, opinions, moral and religious, and the conditions under which they had to shape their behavior, etc. The incident is as follows:

"It was stated again and again that the negro was not allowed in certain hotels and restaurants. I asked an intelligent, respectably dressed young negro, who was a bookkeeper for a loan company, if he would go with me to different eating-places and see how he would be received. After a little hesitation he agreed, and we first went together to a highly respectable restaurant, and were received and served, so far as I could see, exactly alike. We could not see any difference. To avoid any possible advantage caused by our going in together, we next agreed that he should go to the next place alone, and I would come in a little later. He went to one of the most fashionable caterers in the city, gave his order, and was served politely and promptly. I came in a little after and found him enjoying himself, very much surprised to find matters as they were. We next went separately to another house, which, I have been told, refused to let the negroes come in, and there my friend disposed of his meal with no disturbance except possibly to his digestive apparatus. We then made a move on the city Young Men's Christian Association, and the negro applied for a full membership in the Association, while I waited in the reading-room. He gave satisfactory references, but, after some conversation, was politely refused admission on the ground of color, and that only."

This occurred, not in South Carolina or Georgia, but in Topeka, Kan., and the incident ought to speak for itself to religious people who are allowing politicians to make dupes of them for a lease of power which they cannot obtain by an appeal to intelligence and a sense of justice. Perhaps if the "Force Bill" were applied to Young Men's Christian Associations, it would do some good.

Very truly, J. H. H.

New York, September 25, 1890.

RESPONSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: (1.) In connection with your remarks in No. 1317 (September 25), concerning nocturnal inversions of temperature, it may be in order to state that around the bay of San Francisco, during the colder season of the year, there are frosts at night at the lowest altitudes, but none at higher. The frost-line is very nearly at 100 feet above sea-level. Below this line the gardener finds it necessary at night to cover such delicate flowers as the calla lily, which, when above it, can be left exposed without danger.

(2.) The staccato cheer was introduced at Harvard by the Class of 1866.

A. D. Hodges, jr.

Notes.

The house of Sampson Low, Marston & Co. was formerly the English intermediary of the American house of Harper & Brothers, and still has its imprint on the English edition of *Harper's Magazine*. It is now announced that this relation will be superseded in favor of a new firm, styled James R. Osgood, McIlvaine & Co., about to be established in Albemarle Street, London. Mr. Osgood needs no introduction to the American public. Mr. Clarence W. McIlvaine, the junior partner, has been for several years in the employ of the Messrs. Harper. The hope is expressed that the new arrangement "will tend to promote still closer and more friendly connections between authors and publishers" on both sides of the Atlantic.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will bring out during the present season a Life of Richard H. Dana, jr., by Charles Francis Adams, in two volumes; a Life of William Gilmore Simms, by Prof. W. P. Trent, in the "American Men of Letters" series; a Life of Francis Wayland, by Prof. J. O. Murray, and of Charles G. Finney, by Prof. George Frederick Wright, in the series of "American Religious Leaders"; a Life of Lewis Cass, by Prof. A. C. McLaughlin, in the series of "American Statesmen"; 'The Genesis of the United States,' by Alexander Brown, in two volumes; 'The Discovery and Spanish Occupation of America,' by John Fiske; 'Christopher Columbus,' by Justin Winsor; 'A Browning Dictionary,' by George Willis Cooke; the seventh of the eight parts of Prof. F. J. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads'; 'Verses along the Way,' by Mary E. Blake; 'The Inverted Torch,' by Edith M. Thomas; 'Songs of Life,' by Edna Dean Proctor; 'The Bird and the Bell, with Other Poems,' by Christopher Pearse Cranch; 'Lyrics for a Lute,' by Frank Dempster Sherman; 'Representative Sonnets by American Authors,' selected by Charles H. Crandall; 'American Sonnets,' edited by Thomas Wentworth Higginson and Mrs. E. H. Bigelow; 'The Divina Commedia of Dante,' translated into English prose by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, in three volumes, and a new edition, uniform with the foregoing, of his translation of the 'Vita Nuova'; 'Over the Teacups,' by Oliver Wendell Holmes; 'A Sketch of Chester Harding,' an autobiography edited by his daughter, Margaret E. White; 'A Ward of the Golden Gate,' by Bret Harte; 'Strangers and Wayfarers,' by Sarah Orne Jewett; 'Walford,' a novel, by Ellen Olney Kirk; Hawthorne's 'Our Old Home,' illustrated freely with photogravures; Longfellow's 'Hiawatha,' similarly illustrated; 'The Art of Playwriting,' by Prof. Alfred Hennequin; 'The Silva of North America,' by Prof. Charles S. Sargent, the first of twelve quarto volumes each containing fifty plates; and 'The Butterflies of the Eastern United States and Canada,' by Samuel H. Scudder.

The Messrs. Putnam will put on the market limited editions of the late Sir William Stirling-Maxwell's 'Annals of the Artists of Spain,' in four volumes (large-paper and small-paper), and of "Heroes of the Nations," a series edited by Evelyn Abbott, M.A., of Oxford, which is introduced by W. Clark Russell with 'Nelson and the Naval Supremacy of England.'

Duprat & Co., No. 349 Fifth Avenue, invite subscriptions to an *édition de luxe* of Shakspere's 'Antony and Cleopatra,' with an introduction by Dr. W. J. Rolfe, and seventeen illustrations designed and etched by Paul Avril. One hundred and fifty copies will be printed on the presses of D. Jouaust.

Henry Holt & Co. will publish immediately 'Our Dictionaries, and Other English-Language Topics,' by R. O. Williams.

'The Life, Letters, and Friendships of Richard Monckton Milnes, Lord Houghton,' by T. Wemyss Reid, and 'English Sanitary Institutions, Reviewed in their Course of Development and in some of their Political and Social Relations,' by Sir John Simon, are in the press of the Cassell Publishing Co., together with 'Flower de Hundred, the Story of a Virginia Plantation,' by Mrs. Burton Harrison.

The J. G. Cupples Co., Boston, announce 'Penelope's Web: An Episode of Sorrento,' by Owen Innsly, and 'Joe Cummings; or, The Story of the Son of a Squaw in Search of his Mother,' by himself.

Funk & Wagnalls have arranged for the authorized publication of Edwin Arnold's new poem, 'The Light of the World.' It will appear in October.

The Salem (Mass.) Publishing and Printing Co. have nearly ready for delivery a small edition of the Proceedings at the Meeting of the Thomas Hooker Association held at Hartford, Conn., on May 15, 1890. The same firm are about to bring out 'The Emery Genealogy'; Part II. of 'Notes and Additions to Babson's History of Gloucester, Mass.'; and 'Broad Street Epitaphs' and 'Chater Street Epitaphs' (Salem).

'Two Lost Centuries of Britain,' namely, the period immediately following the departure of the Romans, is the title of an historical study by William H. Babcock, which J. B. Lippincott Company will shortly issue.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, promise 'Civilization: An Historical Review of its Elements,' by Charles Morris of Philadelphia, and 'Hindu Literature; or, The Ancient Books of India,' a popular account by Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed.

One sign of the increasing interest in Oriental life is the issue of manuals of history and literature, which serve to diffuse general ideas on the subject. Under the title, 'Arabic Authors' (London: William Heinemann), Mr. F. F. Arbuthnot has given an entertaining sketch of Moslem literature in the Arabic language, from the pre-Islamic poetry to the seventeenth century of our era, mostly biographical and anecdotal. In general he follows good authorities, though he in some cases retains statements that have been set aside by recent researches, as in his accounts of Lokman and of the Moallakat or Suspended Poems. The book would be improved by the introduction of literary criticism; it is too largely biographical and statis-

tical. The sketch of Mohammed's life might profitably be shortened, and more space devoted to pointing out the peculiarities of thought and style of the Koran. It is precisely the Arabian idea of literary style that is an unknown quantity in Western thought, and it deserves to be expounded for the benefit of Western readers. Nevertheless, Mr. Arbuthnot has collected much interesting matter, and his book is welcome; college instructors may find it useful as a text-book. In the preface he calls attention to the present movement in England to revive the old Oriental Translation Fund, which was established in 1828 and did good work for fifty years. It is to be hoped that the movement may succeed.

The "Finger New Testament," which comes to us from Thomas Nelson & Sons, well deserves its name, having but a finger's length, the breadth of two, and the thickness of a third of an inch (or *pouce*, as we may say in French, to preserve the standard of measurement). For its minuteness the type is remarkably legible, but one can barely use this little curiosity—except for memorizing texts or for the most casual reference—unless with the aid of a magnifier. There is a neat, flexible binding with rounded corners, and the whole thing is nicely calculated for the vest pocket.

A large amount of expert writing is embraced in the third volume of 'The International Manual of Anthony's Photographic Bulletin' (E. & H. T. Anthony & Co.), which has, in fact, a double editorship, English and American. The samples of prints and processes are very numerous, and serve to embellish the well-packed pages. A second edition of the 'Photographer Instructor,' edited by W. I. Lincoln Adams and Prof. Charles Ehrmann (Scovill & Adams Co.), reaches our table at the same time with the foregoing.

In *L'Art* for August 1 (Macmillan), M. Émile Michel begins an elaborate discussion of Rembrandt's drawings, of which a great number of fac-similes are exhibited in connection with the text. The same number contains a full-page etching after Bonnat's portrait of Alexandre Falguière, an artist who has won distinction both as a statuary and as a painter. In No. 630, August 15, there is an etching of equal importance from Boldini's portrait of the composer Verdi, crowned with a silk hat, a muffler about his neck, and an expression in harmony with these suggestions of a bitter cold morning.

The pastels and drawings of Millet form the subject of one of the leading articles in the *Portfolio* for September (Macmillan), by Julia M. Ady, who has something more to say in a future number. The most striking etching is Herbert Dicksee's "Lion Drinking."

Artistic Japan (New York: S. Bing) completed its fourth volume in May, the number for that month containing an excellent first article by A. Lequeux on the Japanese theatre. Numerous cuts from Japanese drawings illustrate this writer's account, and more especially helpful is a folding colored plate showing the stage and interior of the theatre.

The latest map of Africa may well be the best, and the Dark Continent has just been delineated anew, in three sheets, in Part 19 of Hachette's 'Atlas de Géographie Moderne' (New York: F. W. Christern). The boundaries of the several States and Territories are clearly indicated in color, and the whole execution of the map is to be praised. The back of each sheet is utilized for statistical data and minor maps.

The September Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a valuable paper on the Karun River and the commercial geography of Southwest Persia, by the Hon. Geo. Curzon, M.P. This river, the only navigable stream in Persia, empties into the Shat el-Arab, or estuary of the Tigris-Euphrates, about forty miles from its mouth. Small steamers can ascend it, at high water, as far as the ancient town of Shushter, some two hundred miles from the Gulf. Continuous navigation, however, is prevented during the greater part of the year by the rapids of Ahwaz. In October, 1888, this river was nominally opened by a decree of the Shah to the mercantile marine of the world. But serious obstacles have been, till recently, opposed by the local authorities to all attempts of the English, who monopolize the commerce of the Persian Gulf, to avail themselves of the privilege. Now, however, a company runs steamers on the lower river in conjunction with a Government steamer on the upper river. It is hoped by this means not only to develop the rich but uninhabited plains bordering the Karun, but also to make this river the channel for the foreign trade of the central and southwestern provinces of Persia, which are now wholly dependent on the far longer and more difficult caravan routes from Baghdad, Busrah, and Bushire. In the course of his paper Mr. Curzon stated that a company was being formed in England for the commercial development of this part of Persia.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September is wholly taken up with an illustrated paper on the geology of the Maltese Islands, by Dr. John Murray. The introduction treats of the history, population, and agriculture of the islands in a very entertaining manner. Dr. Murray remarks upon the slight impression which the ninety years' occupation by the English has had upon the habits and customs of the Maltese. "Should the British leave the islands to-morrow," said a Maltese gentleman, "there would be no more traces of them in ten years than there are now of Greeks, Romans, or Arabs."

Missouri, Arkansas, and Texas are at present conducting geological surveys from which much information may be expected in the course of a few years. Several bulletins have been issued, the latest that has come to hand being on the cretaceous rocks of Texas and their economic value, by Robert T. Hill. These rocks cover an area of over 70,000 square miles, a fourth of Texas, or more than all New England together. They are of great importance as the foundation of many rich prairie soils, as the providers of water for numerous artesian wells, and as affording valuable building-stones. The principal inland cities of the State are built upon them. Mr. Hill's report is carefully prepared and well illustrated, and maintains his reputation as a hard-working geologist.

The principal articles in part ix. of the 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften' (Jena: G. Fischer; New York: Westermann) are Building Societies (17 pages), Cotton Manufacture (24 pages), divided into two parts, one on history and statistics, the other on tariff history; Building Laws (11 pages), Mining (24 pages), Possession, in law (20 pages), and Statistics of Population, not completed in this part, but covering more than forty pages. There is an unusually large number of biographical notices, among which may be mentioned Beccaria, Bentham, Berkeley, Bernoulli.

On the first of October the Berlin *Nation* completed its eighth year, under the editorship of Dr. Theodor Barth, and improved the occasion to make an appeal to its friends for an enlarged circulation and support. It has well deserved such support by its high political aims and tone and its excellent literary quality. It is such a German periodical as an American wishing to keep informed of German liberalism and to perfect his knowledge of the language would desire to take. The publisher is H. S. Hermann, Beuthstrasse 8, Berlin S. W.

—In the *Atlantic* for October, Prof. Palmer publishes an elaborately wrought translation of the meeting of Odysseus and Penelope in rhythmic prose, with the same traits that made his version of the first part of the 'Odyssey' excellent; and in connection with it he discusses the use of the hexameter in English, especially with regard to rendering Homer. This metrical question is made the principal matter, and the fragment of Homer is given as illustration. He argues that the hexameter approaches the freedom of prose; but as English lacks a dactyllic movement, and hence cannot employ the normal hexameter, it is best to adopt prose with an iambic beat as the medium of translation in which least is lost. The reasoning is close and plausible, but the objections are ignored, and one must look for them in the illustration given. The most obvious defect in rhythmic prose is its liability to fall into short and sing-song metres, which, though they may be infrequent, are fatal to the reader's pleasure so far as that depends on word-music. We take a half-page at random and find examples in plenty. For the sake of bringing out the metrical point, we print the words as they would naturally be divided by the ear:

> "For certainly of iron
> Is the heart within her breast."
> "Move the massive bed out there,
> And throw the bedding on."
> "Round this I formed my chamber,
> And I worked till it was done."

These are enough. The recurrence of such measures, if the ear is conscious of them, is more than trying, and the loss of dignity is beyond question. A weak ending, unobjectionable in prose, imports triviality into English verse, unless the metre is already defined as heroic; but in rhythmic prose there must be many such, and the measure, being variable, is undefined. Our caveat against Prof. Paimer, however, runs further than this. The hexameter does not seem to us nearer prose than the pentameter. Every metre alike establishes in the reader a state of expectation, which prose cannot do; and it is in consequence of this that metre in verse makes reading easier to the mind, and in prose makes it harder; it assists attention in the one, it distracts in the other. The truth seems to be that the music of prose is different in kind from that of verse, nor is Homer's hexameter nearer to Plato's melody than the poetry of *Hamlet* is to his prose. We can only indicate the lines of our disagreement, and it is only upon the metrical question that we differ from Prof. Palmer, as from William Morris or any other writer of this hybrid literary form: his translation, in simplicity, directness, gravity, freshness, truth, charms us, and it is only because of the annoyance of such jingling snatches as we have quoted that our pleasure is not complete. In the rest of the number we notice the unfavorable criticism of Frémont, and the just estimate of Benedict Arnold by John Fiske, out of a number of interesting topics.

— *Harper's* is largely occupied with short stories of very diverse quality, but the paper of Mr. Child upon "Agricultural Chili" continues a series of South American topics which must borrow much interest from the prominence of that part of the world in present politics and trade. "The First Oil Well" and "New Moneys of Lincoln's Administration" are the special topics in the number; and in

the way of literary reminiscences, Mr. George Ticknor Curtis gives a vivid and good-humored sketch of Willis's young foppery in Boston, and of the engagement and early home of Lydia Maria Child, while Joaquin Miller writes of his hero, Byron, and tells a dream he had of him while staying at Newstead Abbey. There are several excellent cuts in the number, and the long series upon Wordsworth's Sonnets seems to come to its end in a kind of glory of decorated pages artistic in their arrangement as well as in the nature-feeling of their artist, Mr. Alfred Parsons.

—Prof. Shaler carries on in *Scribner's* the interesting inquiry which was begun last month into the influence of the physical characteristics of our country upon the nation. The tendency to ascribe a great deal to some one of many causes, and to discriminate imperfectly between conditions and motive powers, is very noticeable, as when, for example, he suggests that the civil war might have had a different issue had it not been for the upland Appalachian wedge striking into the South with its white counties and soil unadapted to cotton and tobacco. The essay is very like a prophecy, and casts our horoscope by means of glacial drift and uplifted ocean-bottoms and timber-belts. The outlook which is arrived at is particularly favorable for New England. The soil, though stubborn, is fertile, and increases in fertility by use, and there is much moist land to be made into fields and gardens; the seacoast and some mineral wealth, and especially an unequalled water-power, are also to be reckoned up; the result is, that when the new lands of the West begin to be exhausted by immigration and by culture, the farming districts of New England will recover, and civilization in its valleys will be full of variety, with manufactures and marine trade, and indeed all that can be desired. We have only to wait a century; but Prof. Shaler, turning from nature for a moment, anticipates that New England cities will then be peopled by citizens of Celtic descent, while the English race will maintain itself only on the farms as an agricultural population. In similar colors he depicts the future of the entire country east of the Mississippi in successive groups. The seacoast lowlands in the Atlantic and the Gulf States, except Florida, are, he thinks, in danger of Africanization. The Ohio Valley has a prospect of Mesopotamian populousness and abundance. Every part of the region bears some olive leaf of future plenty. This is most exhilarating reading for any American pessimist, and we await with confidence the author's forecast even of Nevada, that it may not be a "rotten borough" for ever. The question of architecture in the West is also an encouraging paper, to which we would gladly devote some space, but we can only direct the attention of those who are interested in the future of the art to this very open account of the matter.

—The *Century* has, in connection with Mr. Lodge's review of the present state of civil-service reform ("Why Patronage in Office is un-American"), a good deal of comment upon the subject which deserves to be read. Mr. Lodge devotes himself mainly to showing that historically the reform is not a return to the practice of the founders, but is a new thing; that patronage is an inheritance from our English traditions, and thoroughly un-American and out of harmony with our characteristic principles; and finally he demarcates strongly the patronage from the reform offices, and urges the inclusion of fourth-rate postmasterships among the latter as the next step. It is, he thinks, not possible that any ground gained by the reform can be lost by Congressional action. The second striking article in the number is an account of the bearing of photographs of nebulæ upon our knowledge of their actual conformation and upon the theory of the generation of stars. The writer, Mr. G. H. Darwin, attempts to harmonize speculatively the nebular and the meteoric hypotheses of the universe by showing that the showers of stones may behave in such a way as to be equivalent to the showers of molecules as conceived in the kinetic theory of gases. He does not assume to have proved this, but offers his ingenious train of thought as being at least on the true line of inquiry, and affording, if true, a solution of the main difficulty now felt with regard to the nebular theory. The illustration given of the nebula in Andromeda brings before the eye the marvellous results of the art of photography applied to the heavens, by which we see what even the teiescope cannot make clear. Mr. Darwin says: "There is but little doubt but that one hundred millions of stars would already be perceptible" if the whole heavens were surveyed as thoroughly as some parts now have been.

—Some patriotic citizens of Cambridge have preserved in pamphlet form the admirable and indignant protest of the Rev. Edward H. Hall, minister of the first parish of Cambridge, himself a chaplain in the war, against the wretched degradation of our recent pension legislation. It was delivered on June 1, the Sunday after the last Memorial Day, and is a fine specimen of the old style of plain New England utterance from the pulpit on public questions:

"I am sorry to have devoted this summer Sunday to such a lament; yet it has seemed to me an unavoidable duty, however remote the topic may be from our usual themes. . . . The pulpit is often charged with being vague and general in its denunciations, and dealing with sin in the abstract rather than with particular offences. I bring before you this morning a very specific iniquity, and am much disappointed if I have not succeeded in describing it in the most definite terms which the English language affords. I am anxious to leave upon you the impression that the entire pension legislation of the past ten years is the most disreputable business in which an honorable nation could possibly engage; that it carries in itself all the elements of corruption, hypocrisy, and demoralization; that it is not called for by patriotism, by charity, or by statesmanship; that it is a burlesque upon statesmanship; that it is a libel upon charity; and that it strikes the most cruel blow at patriotism which that noble sentiment ever received."

No braver or better appeal has appeared than this of Mr. Hall; and, if we mistake not, it was the earliest public protest from the pulpit on this subject. It preceded Bishop Potter's oration by several weeks. It is excellent reading, and instructive as well; for its statements are precise and guarded, and it has an appendix "giving statistics of pension legislation and expenditures." It is printed by John Wilson & Son, Cambridge.

—We made brief mention last week of the German Socialistic Association called "Freie Volksbühne," with a membership at present of about 2,000 persons, which has been formed at Berlin for the purpose of "acquainting the people with poetry in its modern aspect, and especially of representing, reading, and explaining dramas which contain criticisms of the existing order of things and wage war against obsolete prejudices." Among the works which the repertory of this Socialist theatre is to include, are Tolstoi's "Powers of Darkness," Ibsen's "Ghosts," Zola's "Thérèse Raquin," and two most unequivocally revolutionary dramas of the young realistic school in Germany, viz., "Sonnenaufgang," by Gerhard Hauptmann, and "Dantons Tod," by Büchner. The regulations and by-laws of the Association are of a most democratic character. All persons over fourteen years of age are admitted to membership, the distribution of seats is to be arranged by lot, each member is entitled to at least one Sunday performance during the winter months, besides the week-day performances that he may attend. On the governing board of the society, which embraces, among other writers of more or less reputation, Otto Brahm, the well-known Schiller biographer, there appear at least three persons who would be classified as workingmen. As we may presume that the police also will not be slow to take an interest in the performances, there seems to be a good prospect of lively times at this theatre.

ADAM SEDGWICK.

The Life and Letters of the Rev. Adam Sedgwick, LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, Prebendary of Norwich, Woodwardian Professor of Geology, 1818–1873. By John Willis Clark, M.A., and Thomas McKenney Hughes, M.A. 2 vols., 4to, pp. x., 539 and vii., 640. Numerous illustrations. Cambridge, England: University Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890.

TWELVE hundred pages may seem overmuch print to give to the biography of a man whose very name is doubtless unknown to most well-informed persons, and who passed away nearly twenty years ago. When we add that the subject of this great memoir was not a man of action, but a scholarly person whose title to fame rests upon his fair success in a long career as a teacher, and his very good, though limited, work in the science of geology, the monument seems at first sight excessively large. This impression will disappear as soon as the reader has entered on his task; he will find that, in the character of this person, which is admirably portrayed in these pages, there is full warrant for all the pains which the editors have taken to give a full account of his life. In them we have one of the most successful of the many recent efforts to delineate with patient accuracy the history of a man from his cradle to his grave.

Adam Sedgwick was born in 1785, and died in 1873 in his eighty-eighth year. He came from a sturdy race of Yorkshire yeomen; his ancestors having been for three hundred years *statesmen*, or holders of small farms, in the dales and wide common pasturages in the unfenced hills. One of the most charming parts of this work consists of the vivid picture of this rural life which is given by sketches of its people and their ways from Sedgwick's own pen. Whoever would gain an idea concerning the source of Britain's strength should study this admirable picture of the people of the Dale of Dent, which he has traced with loving care. Their vigorous qualities were inherited by the subject of this memoir; he had that curious mixture of fierce strength and gentleness which is so often found among these northern British. Although Sedgwick was of rustic blood, his ancestors had evidently for some generations been people of more than ordinary culture for their place in life, and his father, the parson of the parish, was a graduate of Cambridge, and won a fair position in the mathematical tripos. To Cambridge, therefore, the son naturally found his way. He entered Trinity College at the age of nineteen, an uncouth lad who for some time found little social favor; gradually, however, his admirable qualities won him many and enduring friends. In four years he gained

the rank of fifth wrangler, and in the opinion of the principal examiner he exhibited more inherent power than the men who were by the results of the examination placed above him.

The natural way for a needy young man who had won distinction in mathematics was to set up as a coach, and for some years Sedgwick followed this beaten path. In time he won a fellowship and then a permanent tutorship in Trinity College. The regulations required that fellows should be ordained as deacons within seven years after their election; apparently to meet this need, and not on account of any strong spiritual call to priestly duties, he at the last possible time entered the Church.

In 1818 came the incident of his election as Woodwardian Professor of Geology. The circumstances which led to his selection are curious, for they illustrate not only the quality of the man, but the singular condition of learning on the side of physical science in the early part of the century. The Woodwardian Professorship required celibacy of its incumbent. A certain professor, Hailstone, after having occupied the office with small profit to geological science for a number of years, married, and in this way the professorship became vacant. It appears clear that Sedgwick was ignorant of geology; he had had no opportunities for acquiring even the elements of that science, and his letters from Switzerland and from the lake district in England show no natural leaning towards this branch of learning. He does not seem to have been a bit abashed at his lack of acquirement, and he was elected by an overwhelming majority over a competitor who had received some training in the science. His predecessor, who had held the office for nearly thirty years, had never lectured. Sedgwick pledged himself to deliver an annual course, a pledge which he fulfilled faithfully for the fifty-four following years. The ease and speed with which he gained a practical knowledge of the subject, and the readiness with which he acquired the habit of the field geologist, are indeed surprising. Within three years he became a successful interpreter of difficult problems, and in five years after his beginning was fairly to be counted as among the most skilful field workers of Great Britain.

The best of Sedgwick's work began with his acquaintance with Roderick Impey Murchison. Murchison, like Sedgwick, had taken up geology rather late in life. He was a man of much less natural ability than Sedgwick, but of a far more persistent mind. Murchison gave his partner a share of his determination, and in return received the best part of his training in the art of interpreting the structure of the rocks. After several tours in Scotland, northern England, and on the Continent, these able men settled down to the study of the singularly difficult geology of western England and Wales. This work began about 1830, and though it led to an unhappy contest between these once warm friends, its results to geologic science were perhaps more important than those which have ever been attained from any equally narrowed field.

Until the labors of Sedgwick and Murchison, the strata below the level of the carboniferous had remained undivided, and had been little studied by geologists; to them the Germans had applied the common name of "Grauwacke": they were believed to represent the brief early conditions of the planet, and were supposed from their confusion to be essentially uninterpretable. It fell to Murchison, by the division of the field of operations, to pay most attention to the rocks extending from what is now termed the Devonian downward to the section still generally known as the lower Silurian. Sedgwick began his labors with the lowest determinable stratified rocks of Wales. These beds have been profoundly dislocated by the mountain-building forces, and greatly worn away by erosion. Sedgwick's labor upon them is, when we consider the lack of previous experience on the part of geologists in such tasks, entitled to be ranked as the greatest piece of inquiry which up to that time had been accomplished in the science. Throughout his work he shows a singular capacity for geometric conceptions—a capacity doubtless due in part to his considerable inheritance of mathematical talent and his thorough training in the elements of that science.

Sedgwick, working upward from the lower massive crystalline rocks, termed the series of deposits with which he had to deal the Cambrian, happily taking the name from the ancient geographic appellation of the country where they are found. Murchison, working downward from the horizon of the Devonian, named his series Silurian, from the title of an historic division of the Britons, the Silures. The result was, that Sedgwick's upper Cambrian denoted the same rocks which Murchison designated as lower Silurian, and hence arose a contest of many years' duration which divided English geologists into two hostile bands. There is a question of nature as well as of name in the matter, and the controversy is not entirely settled even at the present day. The masterly and very fair analysis of the debate contained in the last chapter of the second volume will be of great interest to all geologists. This analysis makes it plain that Sedgwick had a far better grasp of the problems he had in hand than Murchison, whose work was exceedingly confused, so that he had again and again to mend his pleas; and, but for the power which his position as Director of the Geological Survey gave him, there is hardly a doubt that Sedgwick's views would have quickly prevailed. In many ways this controversy has been the largest and the most enlightening of all those which have found a place in natural science. Unhappily it parted two able and admirable men who have done more to shape the science than any other students of Britain.

The effects of this debate upon Sedgwick were most unhappy. In his prime they turned him away from geology, and so lost to the science the services of perhaps the ablest interpreter of British strata who has ever dealt with their more complicated problems. Sedgwick's mind was of the discursive order. The manifold questions of University politics absorbed his attention to the end of his days, and, after the outbreak of the quarrel with Murchison, except for his services as teacher, he did little good work for science. Throughout his life he was characterized by a singular incapacity to appreciate the work of others. Thus, when the Darwinian hypothesis came, he could find no good whatever in it. He not only denied the general conclusion, but failed to perceive the masterly nature of the essay which was apparent to most of those who rejected its principal conclusions. This incapacity appears to have been due to the singular excurrent quality of his mind. The outgoing tide of his thought and feeling was so strong that it seemed to brush away all knowledge which did not come to him through personal experience.

In the pages of this memoir we constantly come in contact with beautiful pictures of English life, throughout the wide scale from the household of the Queen, with whom he enjoyed a somewhat remarkable intimacy, to that of the humblest dalesman of his native valley. The present writer knows of no English biography which is as rich in incident of personal contact. So far as possible, the editors have permitted Sedgwick to tell his own story through his numerous and admirable letters. They give a most vivid picture of a vigorous, loving nature, and incidentally they afford one of the saddest commentaries which can be imagined of the effects of the required celibacy of the old universities on their ablest men. Sedgwick was naturally a family man, but he was held so firmly to a monastic life that he never had the courage to break away from it. The picture of the man in his later years, hungering for a household, grasping at every chance to get some share, through his sympathies, of that side of human life, is indeed sorrowful.

The book is admirably printed, and has a good though somewhat insufficient index. Some blunders occur in this index, of which perhaps the most notable is the statement that Alexander Agassiz met Sedgwick at Edinburgh in 1834, which happens, in fact, to have been before Alexander Agassiz was born. The text generally, however, is so good that it requires a rather microscopic eye to detect the faults.

CAPITAL AND INTEREST.

Capital and Interest; A Critical History of Economical Theory. By Eugen V. Boehm-Bawerk, Professor of Political Economy in the University of Innsbruck. Translated, with a preface and analysis, by William A. Smart, M.A., Lecturer on Political Economy in Queen Margaret College, Glasgow. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

WE will begin our examination of Prof. Boehm-Bawerk's remarkable treatise where he ends it, premising, however, that the present volume is only a negation of previously accepted theories of the phenomenon of interest, and has been followed by a second, 'The Positive Theory of Capital,' which is not now before us. The question which the author seeks to answer is, How does it come about that capital always and everywhere yields a surplus value over the cost of its own replacement? Errors of human judgment may of course now and then result in the loss of both capital and interest without affecting the law (whatever that law is) by virtue of which the former is preserved from age to age, and yields all the time something, over and above its own wear and tear, which is called interest.

In his last chapter the author says: "The interest problem in its last resort is a problem of *value*." In other words, before solving the problem of interest, Prof. Boehm-Bawerk proposes to solve the most stubborn of all economical problems—a problem which, although supposed to have been set at rest many times and by many distinguished men, is ever and anon coming back to us with some puzzle that contradicts the solution. Value, says the orthodox political economy, is regulated by cost of production. So says Macvane; we cite his elementary work because it is the latest that comes to us from a writer of real and recognized ability, of the school of the prophets. Prof. Macvane has grouped in one chapter the exceptions to this law of value, and we are thus spared the trouble of searching the prophets in order to find them. The cases in which value is *not* regulated by cost of production are no less than seven, viz.: (1) "Simple gifts of the Creator"; (2) products that cannot be increased in supply, such as old pictures and statuary, relics of antiquity, things covered by patent and copyright, etc.; (3) products of highly skilled labor; (4) pro-

ducts exchanged between distant places where there is no effective competition (Cairnes, it may be remarked, while an adherent of the cost-of-production theory, casts out at one shovelful all articles of international trade); (5) things having a joint cost of production, such as hides and beef, since it may happen that the demand for hides may be such that cattle will be slaughtered for their hides only, so that the value of beef may be reduced to zero; (6) arbitrary exceptions, such as things produced by slave labor, things sold below cost for advertising purposes, etc.; (7) articles produced by "combines" and Trusts. After enumerating these things that are outside the law, Prof. Macvane says:

"It must not be inferred from the space devoted to exceptional commodities in this chapter that they constitute a very large proportion of all the things bought and sold, or that their value departs very widely from the ordinary rule. Compared with the great mass of exchanges subject to the ordinary rule, they are very small in amount; and the extent of their departure from the common law of value is not often great."

Without entering into particulars, for which we have not space, it may be said that if another law of value could be found which was not subject to these exceptions, or to any, it would be pretty sure, sooner or later, to supersede the old law, although the latter has the sanction of such names as Adam Smith, Ricardo, J. S. Mill, Cairnes, and Bagehot. The other law of value, affirmed rather than worked out in the volume before us, is, that value depends upon human wants and satisfactions, and not upon cost of production at all. To state it shortly, we value a thing at so much because it answers our wants and because there is a limit to its supply. Given our wants and given the supply, it is immaterial to buyers what the cost of production may have been. Of course Prof. Boehm-Bawerk is not the first to propound this theory of value. He assigns the place of honor to Menger, who laid down the formula that value does not depend upon cost of production, but cost of production does depend upon value. In other words, if a thing is worth so much in the market, a corresponding amount of cost will be incurred to produce it. But before Menger the idea crops out here and there that demand is the cause of value, and if it is the cause, why should it not "regulate" value, *i. e.*, cause it to be greater or less at different times and places? We recall at this point an admirable brochure by Mr. M. L. Scudder, jr., of Chicago, entitled, 'The Labor Value Fallacy,' published a few years ago, which goes on all fours with Prof. Boehm-Bawerk's destructive examination of the theories of Karl Marx (pp. 367-391).

"The acute Jevons," as Prof. Boehm-Bawerk points out, came very near propounding a satisfactory definition of value, and with it a satisfactory explanation of interest. He failed in the latter particular by confounding surplus production with surplus value. It does not follow that because the use of capital multiplies useful products it therefore creates surplus value. The increased quantity may have really less value, *i. e.*, may command a less quantity of other goods, than a diminished quantity would have had. This is often observed in the grain markets, where a partial failure of the wheat harvest may bring the cultivators more money than a full crop. Davenant's empirical law is acted upon by grain speculators the world over, even though they have never heard of it.

Now the task to which Prof. Boehm-Bawerk has set himself is just this: Why does capital bring into the world not merely more useful things, but more *value*, than resides in itself, so that the possessors of capital can derive an income from it either with or without their own personal exertions, from year to year and from generation to generation, and without doing any harm or wrong to any other persons, but, on the contrary, with benefit and advantage to them? The work before us is a clearing of the ground, a sweeping away of all former theories on the subject, and we say frankly that we think the author has demolished them all by a rigid yet perfectly fair and courteous treatment of them. The amount of learning he has brought to bear upon the subject is prodigious. He begins with the historical opposition to interest based partly on economical, but mainly on religious grounds, traces the struggle down to the triumph of interest wrought out by the sheer needs of mankind rather than by the force of argument, and then takes up one by one the various theories that have been advanced to solve the interest problem as stated above.

We can do hardly more than name these theories here. Turgot's Fructification theory is shown to be wrong because it was merely arguing in a circle. Land, said Turgot, yields a net product. But every man can convert his capital into land if he wants to, therefore capital not invested in land must yield a net product also, since otherwise the owners of it would buy land. Does this explain interest? No more than the fact of interest would explain the rent of land; for since the owners of capital can get interest for it, and since land can be sold for capital, therefore land must yield a surplus, since otherwise, etc., etc. Adam Smith had no distinctive theory of interest. Ricardo held that in the process of production rent and wages are determined, or at all events determinable, quantities, and that profit (which includes interest) is the remainder. But this does not show why there should be any remainder, and therefore does not touch the interest problem. The "naïve Productivity theory," which embraces among its supporters J. B. Say and Leroy-Beaulieu, and has some countenance from Roscher, tells us in a roundabout way that interest exists because capital is productive. Productive of what? Of value, or of surplus value? The naïve Productivity theory does not really show why capital reproduces itself; still less does it show why it produces a little more than itself, to wit, interest.

Another set of Productivity theorists, among them Lord Lauderdale (an acute thinker), Malthus, H. C. Carey, and Strasburger, attempted to explain why increased production, due to the employment of capital, is accompanied by surplus value. They all failed, but the only one who failed ridiculously was Carey, of whom Prof. Boehm-Bawerk says:

"Carey offers one of the very worst examples of confused thinking on a subject where there has already been much confusion. What he says on interest is a tissue of incredibly clumsy and wanton mistakes—mistakes of such a nature that it is almost inconceivable how they should ever have received any consideration in the scientific world."

The Use theory, which separates capital, as it were, into a body and a soul, and considers the use of it as something distinct from the possession of it, has eminent names to support it. Storch, Nebenius, Hermann, Schaeffle, Knies, and Menger are grouped under this head. The culmination of the Use theory is found in Menger, who, as already mentioned, turned the definition of value around end for end, making value the regulator of cost of production instead of cost of production the regulator of value. "To Menger, then," says Prof. Boehm-Bawerk, "belongs the great merit of having distinctly answered this preliminary question. In doing so he has definitely and for all time indicated the point at which and the direction in which the interest problem is to be solved." Nevertheless, the Use theory, in this its best estate, failed to explain interest, because it was based upon a fiction, namely, the existence of a use of capital as an independent value distinct from the capital itself. Prof. Boehm-Bawerk follows the metaphysics of political economy into its cave, and smokes it out, but we cannot stop to indicate the process. The conclusion is quite satisfactory. Equally satisfactory is the showing that even if there were a use value independent of the capital itself, it would still come short of explaining interest.

The next nut to be cracked is Senior's Abstinence theory. This celebrated and generally accepted doctrine maintains that when an owner of capital abstains from consuming it and applies it to production, he makes a sacrifice. Abstinence thus becomes a cost of production. It must be paid for just like labor and materials. This is extremely plausible, especially after other theories of interest have been tried and found wanting. Moreover, it tallies with the fact that waiting is an element everywhere present in the phenomenon of interest. But taking the theory as it is stated—that the late Mr. Vanderbilt, for example, when he abstained from consuming his capital of one or two hundred millions of dollars, made a sacrifice—let us ask how much he ought to be paid for it. The interest tables say at least four million dollars per year. But, in point of fact, if he had attempted to consume the tenth part of his capital, he would probably have killed himself. To consume it would have been a much greater sacrifice than to keep it. So this theory goes by the board along with the others.

The Exploitation theory of Rodbertus and Marx explains interest as simply a game of grab. The owners of capital plunge their hands into the stream of wealth and take out what they want. They want all that the laborers can possibly spare. They are enabled to do this because the laborers who produce the wealth are oppressed and hampered by their wants. These must have their food and raiment day by day. They cannot wait. The capitalist can wait. Therefore he takes his advantage. He exploits labor. Prof. Boehm-Bawerk has much respect for Rodbertus, but very little for Marx, whose easy sophism, veiled under the ever-recurring phrase "socially necessary labor," is subjected to a merciless analysis. This is not the first exposure of Marx's sophistry, but it is the best that we have seen. It fully justifies the statement of Mr. Smart, in his preface, that "the crushing confutation of the labor-value theory is work that will not require to be done twice in economic science, and the vindication of interest as a price for an economic service or good suggested by the very nature of things (which may be modified, but cannot be prevented), will necessitate reconsideration by the Socialist party of their official economic basis."

The Exploitation theory requires that the laborer should have to-day all that the product of his labor will be worth when it is finished and sold, which may be a year or any number of years hence. Manifestly this cannot be. Present goods have more *value* than future goods. Here we get an inkling of the true explanation of interest. In the nature of things, a certain portion of *value*

is due to the lapse of time, as when an acorn is planted which will be an oak one hundred years hence. The laborer cannot be paid the value of an oak for his service in planting an acorn, because nobody can get that value till the hundred years have passed. Similarly, laborers cannot have the whole value of cotton cloth, because time is required for spinning, weaving, dyeing, packing, carting, and waiting for buyers. Capital enables us to wait, and capital must be paid for this service, which is as real a service as any labor employed in production.

But we must not anticipate Prof. Boehm-Bowerk's second volume. We have read the first volume with increasing interest from the first page to the last. Although it consists almost wholly of destructive criticism, it is very necessary work. We recall nothing of the kind equal to it. Even though he may not have said the last word on the particular subject of his inquiry, he has said enough to fix his place in the front rank of the world's economists.

THREE FRENCH NOVELS.

Une Gageure. Par Victor Cherbuliez. Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: Christern, 1890.

La Dernière Bataille. Par Édouard Drumont. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: Christern. 1890.

Le Capitaine Sans-Façon, 1813. Par Gilbert Augustin-Thierry. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.; New York: Christern. 1890. 12mo, pp. viii., 339.

Two strongly contrasting young women are the chief figures in Cherbuliez's latest novel. One of them is the Duchesse d'Armanches, a beauty who belongs to the great world of fashion, but who finds time hang heavy on her hands with a stupid and invalid husband. This would be, indeed, too heavy a burden to be borne if the Duchess had not the happy faculty —happy for herself—of throwing herself completely at any moment into the caprice of the moment, and so making life a comedy in which she is both actor and audience. She paints, she sings, she reads Plato in a translation, she takes a fancy to Claire Vionnaz, whom she makes her companion and confidant. Claire Vionnaz, the other young woman, is also at times beautiful, and always simple-minded in the best sense, though the gentlest of readers is forced to confess that she occasionally seems simple-minded to him in a sense which is less good. She is completely cajoled by the Duchess, and believes that their friendship is of the antique Roman sort.

To these women, at the château of the Duchess, appears the hero of the tale, M. le Comte de Louvaigue, who, after some love-making addressed to the belle Cécile, asks seriously the belle Claire to marry him. She consents at once, naturally, for she has sworn often to live and die unwed. The Duchess, as one might well expect, is not pleased with this match, and does her best to break it off by sowing doubts in the minds of the lovers as to the quality and quantity of the affection by which they are inspired. Hence arises the wager which gives its title to the book. The Duchess bets with M. de Louvaigue that his wife will never love him, and the forfeit is to be one of her smiles if he wins, or a fuller consolation if he loses. There is no need to follow up the story of this most delicate of all wagers to its end. M. Cherbuliez leads his readers through all its involutions, and windings, and chances, and changes, and perils, till at last Satan is baffled and the weakly indulgent Providence whose domain lies behind the footlights pours blessings on the heads of a happy couple.

M. Cherbuliez is one of the chief novelists of France. Some critics call him the most perfect of French writers. But when one lays down such a book as 'Une Gageure,' how can he help asking himself some questions? Is this life? Are these smooth-gliding, well-dressed images men and women? Is all this aplomb, this smooth flow of talk, that sparkles with wit to be sure, but never hesitates or is at a loss, these measured voices—are these characteristic of human passion? And, doubtless, the reader will conclude that they are, if he believes that life is a sort of minuet, and that men and women generally live and love and are happy or miserable in strict accordance with the best rules of good manners.

The title of M. Édouard Drumont's last unhappy book raises false hopes in the reader's mind. The first impression that it gives—an impression which a perusal of the volume goes far towards confirming—is that its author has grown weary of his ridiculous Jew-killing crusade, and is merely striking one last blow as he leaves the field. It is not, perhaps, absolutely impossible that this may turn out to be true; but M. Drumont obviously does not intend that it shall be so, for he announces on his fly-leaf that 'L'Europe Juive' is in preparation, and no one can guess whether a series long as the 'Biographie Universelle' may not follow in its train. It is four years since M. Drumont entered on his anti-Semitic campaign, and each year since 1886 has seen a new volume from his pen that needed no signature to identify it as his. Each one held up the Jew to scorn as a parasite and a robber at all times and everywhere, and especially as the cause of every social disorder and distemper that afflicts France. The Jew, he maintains, is a microbe, a bacillus, that spreads throughout society corruption and disease and death. His talk is much of it mere raving, but he does not seem to be mad.

Some have thought that his fanaticism was a simple attitude, assumed with an eye to the main chance—an *affaire de librairie*. But, though the book that we have in hand did pass its eightieth thousand within a fortnight, one is not driven inevitably to the conclusion that avarice was the sole begetter of it. Its tone suggests that there must be some personal grievance rankling in its author's mind, some slight to repay, some insult to throw back. The spirit of it is as far as possible remote from the *sæva indignatio* of Swift. M. Drumont's heart is not torn: it seems to be no more than his skin that is scratched. And, besides, one feels in reading him that he is more than anything else an agitator, and that he is not without a consciousness that cries and contortions have their use in drawing a crowd, some of whom may listen to him.

There are, on the other hand, many things in him that are attractive. He is clever, very amusing in his way, seldom tiresome, and one who never lets the truth spoil a good story. An ardent Catholic and royalist, an aristocrat in feeling, though by birth of the lower class of the bourgeoisie, a Socialist, a newspaper writer, a Bohemian, a thorough Parisian, compact of half-a-dozen different sorts of men, he is interesting if only as a puzzle. We said that some of the characteristics of the book in hand gave an impression that it marked the end of M. Drumont's crusade. It is plainly a collection of odds and ends, thrown together with no attempt at order and unity. It suggests the sweeping out of drawers, the ransacking of portfolios, the clearing up of the writing-table for new work. In the heterogeneous mass one finds idyls of country life, dry financial discourse, a long account of the secret history of the Panama Canal, a demolition of Boulanger by means of chiromancy, an extended account of the author's life and brief ancestry, some entertaining literary gossip, and a thousand other things clever or dull. There are some interesting pages on M. Drumont's friendship for Alphonse Daudet—a bond which, it is to be hoped, may not be destroyed by M. Bonnières's recent discovery that Daudet is an equivalent of Davidet, "un nom Juif provençalisé." One does not wonder that the book is read: only it ought never to have been written.

'Le Capitaine Sans-Façon' is not a new book, but only a worked-over edition of one published in 1882; neither can it be considered, as its author largely calls it, an historical novel, for it is nothing more than an expanded sketch of unimportant events in a remote corner of France during the First Empire. Its author, who appears to take himself and his book very seriously, pursues the unusual course of printing in an appendix a number of documents designed to serve as vouchers for the fidelity of his picture, but which only betray how little of interest he has added to the facts which were ready to his hand. Most of what he has added is, indeed, far from being an improvement of his raw materials; he inserts one or two wholly irrelevant chapters of stereotyped French patriotism or vain-glory, which are more than usually offensive and out of place in view of the revelations of corruption and all manner of vileness in official circles, and of brutish ignorance and immorality among the country population, with which his pages are filled. The state of things he describes is a familiar feature in the current conception of France under Napoleon III.; but to find that under the real Napoleon the nation was no better and no better off than under his pinchbeck imitator, is not congruous with French claims to leadership in civilization.

In the matter of style M. Augustin-Thierry can hardly be said to atone for other deficiencies; he cultivates assiduously the mechanical epigram and metallic brilliancy that characterize contemporary French style, and produce a stencil-plate species of effect similar to that of a ballet dancer's smile. In spite of its faults, however, the book is not without interest as describing events which lie out of the beaten track, and throwing new side-lights on the French national character. It can be recommended, also, as being inoffensive from an almost entire absence of the lubricity which constitutes so large an element in French light literature. Its subject-matter is concerned with the depredations of a small band of highwaymen, who are saved from utter vulgarity by being the instruments of a half-royalist, half-religious conspiracy, and owe much of their brief success to the low condition of the peasantry and the wildness of the country.

An Introduction to the Study of Dante. By John Addington Symonds. 2d ed. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1890. Sm. 8vo, pp. xii., 288.

Mr. Symonds writes too readily upon many important subjects to write well upon them all, and this is not one of his best books. It exhibits his characteristic fluency of style, his facility of acquisition, and his breadth of culture, but it shows also a lack of thorough knowledge, as well as of the thought that penetrates to the core of a matter. The first edition of this essay was published seventeen years ago, and this new edition appears improved by the correction of mistakes and mis-

prints, by the removal of several doubtful statements, and, as Mr. Symonds says, "by the adjustment of some points of criticism to the present standard of Dante literature." There remain, however, many points in which this adjustment has not been made.

The recent brilliant development of critical literary studies in Italy has had hardly any more conspicuous result than the change it has wrought in respect to the biography of Dante. The outlines of his life remain, indeed, well-established and unaltered; but many of the details with which those outlines have hitherto been filled up, have, one after another, been shown to be either false or doubtful, until, as Signor Bartoli declares at the beginning of his volume on the life of the poet, it has become obvious that the lives of him hitherto written are in great part romances, fabricated, indeed, in good faith, but not the less essentially untrustworthy. All, even the most erudite, from Balbo to Wegele, though they may contain much information in regard to the history of Dante's time, fail as biographies to stand the test of critical examination. Mr. Symonds has based that part of his essay which relates to Dante's life on these old and formerly accepted narratives, and he naturally repeats the errors that have grown familiar.

It is a minor matter, but it is an illustration of Mr. Symonds's too frequent habit of assertion upon an imperfect basis of knowledge or reflection, that, in speaking of Dante's life in exile, he says: "Dante's works, unfortunately, contain no reference to England, though he shows familiarity with Paris and also with the Flemish towns." But in fact there is more than one reference to England in the 'Divine Comedy,' and there is nothing in the poem or in Dante's other works that shows any greater familiarity with Paris or the Flemish towns than with London. A local reference to London occurs in the verse (*Inf.* xii, 120), in which Dante describes Guy de Montfort, the murderer of Prince Henry, son of Richard Duke of Cornwall, as

> "he who cleft
> The heart that on the Thames is still revered"

—that is, the heart of Prince Henry, which was said to be preserved in a golden vase on the tomb of Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey. The only passage, so far as we recall, which indicates any local knowledge of Paris, is that (*Par.* x, 138) where the Rue de Feurre or du Fouarre is mentioned, as the street in which Sigier lectured; and as for the towns of Flanders, the only verse of note relating to them is that (*Inf.* xv, 4-6) in which Dante refers to the dykes between Wissant and Bruges, built to protect them from the flood of the sea. No one of these passages is such as to prove that Dante had seen the places to which he refers, and one affords as much indication as the others that he had done so.*

No poet has give a fuller or more instructive narrative of his real life—his inner life of spiritual experience—than Dante, in his various writings, and it is the great defect of Mr. Symonds's work, as an introduction to the study of Dante, that it fails to afford any adequate account of this moral and intellectual autobiography, or to show the mutual relations of the different works of the poet, and the light which each of them throws upon the others as well as upon the character of the writer. The relation between the 'New Life' and the 'Divine Comedy' is too close to be missed, but the 'Convito' is of even more importance to the proper understanding of the great poem than the 'New Life' itself; and to the 'Convito,' and to its essential contribution to knowledge of Dante's nature, studies, and thought, Mr. Symonds makes hardly a reference. He does not describe its purpose or its contents, and he cites but a single passage from it.

The chapters devoted to the 'Divine Comedy' contain some delicate and suggestive criticisms of minor points, but show no grasp of the great meaning and substantial qualities of the poem. Nor are they without errors which a careful student would have avoided. For instance, in speaking of the symmetry of the structure of the three spiritual realms, Mr. Symonds says: "There are nine circles in hell, nine cornices in purgatory, nine spheres in paradise." But in truth purgatory has but seven cornices, and the correspondence with the nine-fold divisions of the other realms is secured by the ante-purgatory at the base, and the terrestrial paradise at the summit of the purgatorial mountain. So again, on the same leaf, he states that the *Inferno* is shorter than the *Purgatorio* by thirty lines, than the *Paradiso* by twenty-four. If these facts were worth mentioning, it was worth while to give them accurately: the *Purgatorio* is longer than the *Inferno* by thirty-five, and the *Paradiso* by thirty-eight verses. These are trifles, but they have a bearing on greater things.

When the serious student of the poem reads in the contents of Mr. Symonds's book that "Dante's personality, untainted by Symbolism, [is] the main interest of the 'Divine Comedy,'" he marvels that one who holds such an opinion should find it worth while to write an 'Introduction to the Study of Dante.' But books about Dante with much less good in them than this have been written.

The Defence of Charleston Harbor, including Fort Sumter and the adjacent islands. 1863-1865. By John Johnson, formerly Major of Engineers in the service of the Confederate States, with original papers in appendix, full official reports, maps, and illustrations. Charleston, S. C.: Walker, Evans & Cogswell Co. 1890.

THIS handsome volume ought to meet with a wide reception, North as well as South. It is written from the Confederate standpoint, for the author, now well known as the rector of St. Philip's, Charleston, was during the war an officer of engineers, who distinguished himself in the defence of Fort Sumter. But his book seems to us to be a thoroughly fair and dispassionate narrative, and the subject is certainly one of the most interesting and dramatic of the operations of the war. It is a story of fighting by land and by sea, of the employment of novel engines of war of tremendous power, of armored ships, of torpedoes and torpedo boats, of strong walls of masonry battered down, of almost impregnable works constructed of earth and sand, of gallant and desperate assaults, and of steady, unflinching, and heroic resistance. It is a story well worth telling in detail, and well worth the trouble of illustrating with pictures and maps, as is done here with so much pains. We have capital views of the interior of Fort Sumter after the several bombardments, besides careful drawings of separate portions of the work; there are portraits of many of the principal officers, chiefly those on the Southern side, and good maps. Maj. Johnson's style is clear. He is commendably free from the tendency to excessive eulogy of his own people so common in books of this character, as he also is from any tinge of bitterness when speaking of the Federal commanders and their men.

The narrative does not comprise the history of the first two years; it begins with the attack on Fort Sumter by Admiral Du Pont on April 7, 1863, in which the iron-clad monitors, from which so much was expected, accomplished so little. Maj. Johnson's description of this famous fight is very good; he makes due allowance for most of the unprecedented difficulties which attended the conduct of ships of such a novel construction and of an armament so extremely liable to get out of order; but we hardly think that he has sufficiently considered that the Federal commanders cared much less about the loss of their ships, or about the loss of their own lives or of those of their men, than about the acquisition by their enemy of such powerful engines of war as these monitors were, and that it was from this perfectly reasonable cause that the attack was made in the cautious and circumspect way which at the time seemed to the Confederates so unaccountable. Compare, in the Scribner series, 'The Atlantic Coast,' by Admiral Ammen, page 161.

It is, however, to the systematic operations initiated by Gen. Gillmore that the greater part of the narrative is devoted. That distinguished engineer officer, having the previous year reduced Fort Pulaski in the Savannah River by means of batteries the construction of which had been concealed until they were ready to open fire, and which were a mile distant from the fort, was confident of being able to repeat this feat, and even to improve upon it, when he was ordered to Charleston Harbor. His plan was to silence, and practically to destroy, Fort Sumter, thereby, as he calculated, rendering it possible for the fleet to pass up the channel, removing the obstructions without interference, and reduce the city. Maj. Johnson does full justice to the ability with which the Federal commanders kept secret the construction of their formidable works on Folly Island, and planned and carried out the surprise and capture of the Confederate defences on the southern end of Morris Island on July 10, 1863. He is disposed to think that Fort (or Battery, as the Confederates called it) Wagner might have been carried, if it had been assaulted without delay—an opinion which many Union officers have always entertained. The attack, however, was not made till the next morning, and then, the garrison having been heavily reinforced, it failed. Our loss was heavy. A week later came the desperate assault led by Col. Shaw and his black regiment, in which some 2,000 gallant officers and men fell. This severe loss was, in the opinion of our author, entirely unnecessary.

"Twice foiled in his attempts to get possession of Battery Wagner, the Union commander changed his plans in two leading particulars. Battery Wagner was now to be besieged by regular approaches, and Fort Sumter was to be demolished from ground already in his possession. The heavy Parrott rifle-guns, 100, 200, and 300-pounders, which had been brought to Morris Island for this purpose might, in fact, have been put in position earlier than they were, and both of those disastrous assaults on Wagner avoided. The range of these large Parrott rifles was something unprecedented in warfare, being from 4,000 to 8,000 yards, and that secured the demolition of Fort Sumter without any respect to Wagner" (pp. 107, 108).

This is, perhaps, the most important criticism that Major Johnson has to make on Gen. Gillmore's operations.

Our author's descriptions of life in Fort

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* There are three other references to England, or English affairs, in the 'Divine Comedy,' one (*Purg.* vii, 131) where among the kings "Henry of England [Henry III.], the hope of the simple life," is seen seated alone; another (*Par.* xix, 122) where the poet condemns that pride

> "Which makes the Scot and Englishman so mad
> That they within their boundaries cannot rest;"

and the third, in the striking self-condemnation of Bertrand de Born (*Inf.* xxviii, 135), as, "I was he who gave to the young king the ill encouragements"—the counsels, that is, by which Prince Henry was made rebellious to his father, Henry II.

Sumter during the terrible battering to which it was subjected are exceedingly interesting. Nothing could exceed the patience, courage, alertness, and resolute and unwavering determination of its defenders. The ingenuity displayed in remedying the terrible effects of our fire, the unfaltering submission to the hardships occasioned by its severity, and by its being protracted for days and nights until the strain on body and mind together must have been simply fearful, are depicted with a calmness and also with a naturalness that leave nothing to be desired.

Maj. Johnson's military criticisms contained in his fourteenth and last chapter are carefully made, and are doubtless in the main sound. The appendices are several of them valuable. That entitled "Notes of Ironclad Warfare, 1854-1882," and that on "The Strategic Value of Morris Island," are perhaps the best. We have no hesitation in welcoming this book as a very valuable addition to our military history.

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. V., Nos. 454-564. Issued to the subscribers at 4 Trafalgar Square, Charing Cross, London. August, 1890.

THE papers contained in this instalment of Mr. Stevens's great publication deal with matters already treated in the previous volumes, and especially with the Commission sent out in 1778 to propose terms of reconciliation. Incidentally we get Sir Henry Clinton's account of the battle of Monmouth Court-House, which has not, we believe, been published before:

"With regard to the affair of Monmouth, I knew Washington could have passed the defilés with nothing but his Avant Garde. I knew Lord Cornwallis's Division was equal to that, and therefore I attacked. I saw that Attack must Operate on the troops sent round my flanks, which accordingly happened and Lee wisely quitted. And when I had secured the first defilé, which I might have had against the World, I tried the Experiment a little further, for had Washington been blockhead enough to sustain Lee, I should have catched him between two defilés, and it is easy to see what must have happened. Having drove everything over both defilés, it was not for me to give him the advantage I had lately taken by Attacking him so posted, nor indeed could I have done it, as the Troops were fairly spent. Having fulfilled my first and great object, given time for my Baggage to move into safety, the Troops retired to the first defilé, and the Rebels repossessed the second and took post on advantageous ground. The 33d Regiment, and 1st Battalion of Grenadiers attacked handsomely. The rebels quitted in confusion, and thus ended the Fray, for tho' it was two hours before the 33d Regiment (making the Rear Guard) joined us at the defilé, not a Shot was fired during that time.

"It may be asked whether the Orders of the 28th relative to reinforcements were obeyed, and if not, wherefore: All I can say is that I sent the first Order by a Deputy Adjutant General,—to assist his Memory it was written,—it was addressed to General Grant, whose Division I had left not half an hour before,—the Deputy Adjt General reported to General Grant the Order he was entrusted with, and General Grant referred him to General Knyphausen. Whether he was right in so doing, he best knows. As nothing happened, I was silent. The second Order was sent and delivered by the Captain of the Guides, but was not obeyed. I will be free, however, to own I am glad it was not, as with those Troops I marched on to Middletown, where I thought it possible the Enemy might try to prevent me. Which position I took, and soon quitted, wishing Mr. Washington might take it, and if he had, I was determined to Attack him, as that was to be done with advantage. We had not a day's provision left when we opened our Communication with the fleet."

The claim, often made, that Monmouth Court-House was a victory for the Americans, seems to us to rest on a misapprehension. Sir Henry Clinton was retreating across New Jersey. It was the object of Washington to harass his retreat and capture a part of his baggage train, which Sir Henry pronounces in this report to have been "wantonly enormous." That object was not accomplished. The British reached Sandy Hook without the loss of a wagon. Whether Lee "wisely quitted," as Clinton says, or whether he fled ignominiously, as most Americans believe, the affair was for Washington tactically a failure. Yet it may well be that at that time a tactical failure which could be represented as a victory was worth something to the American cause.

The Theory of Light. By Thomas Preston. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

MR. PRESTON'S work occupies a position between that of an elementary work on optics and that of an exhaustive treatise on the theory of radiant energy. It presupposes a fair acquaintance with the fundamental laws of optics and a good knowledge of the higher mathematics. It is on the whole well and clearly written, and cannot fail to be of service to those who wish for more than an elementary treatise, or a guide to the elaborate and difficult treatment of the subject, such as we now find only in French and German works. The initial chapter gives a brief history of the science of optics; an account of the discovery of the velocity of light and the development of the corpuscular theory, and an introduction to the wave theory. The rest of the work is mainly devoted to applications of the theory. We notice a number of points not usually treated even in more complete works, and very welcome to students. Thus, we have an elementary deduction of the average kinetic energy of a vibrating particle; a short section on the group velocity of a train of waves; a reference to Osborne Reynolds's dynamical explanation of the fact that a group of deep water waves advances with only half the rapidity of the individual waves; the principle of least time (or law of Fermat), now rarely stated in text-books; and some interesting notices of graphic methods in problems relating to diffraction, of which Cornu's spiral is the most novel. Under the head of rotatory polarization we have a notice of the Kerr effects and Jellett's analyzer; under that of dispersion, an account of Kundt's observations on anomalous dispersion.

The subject of the measurement of the velocity of light is quite fully treated, and justice is done to the fine work of Prof. Michelson of Clark University. Strangely enough, the work of Prof. Newcomb is not even alluded to. An account of the admirable researches of Michelson and Morley on the relative motion of matter and ether finds a well-deserved place, and the work concludes with a chapter on electro-magnetic radiation which, of course, includes the recent splendid work of Hertz. On the other hand, there are one or two omissions, chief of which is the theory of the prism, which is given very briefly and incompletely. The chapter on caustics appears to us superfluous, as the subject is almost purely geometrical and of little or no physical significance. On the whole, Mr. Preston's work will serve a good purpose in instruction and deserves favorable notice.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Brief Digest to Volumes VII to XII of American State Reports. San Francisco: Bancroft, Whitney Co.
Adams, H. History of the United States of America during the First Administration of James Madison. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.
Alexander, Mrs. Blind Fate. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Amherst Memories: A Collection of Undergraduate Verse. Union Theological Seminary, New York: A. B. MacNeill. $1.
Bell, E. Handbook of Athletic Sports. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. $4.
Besant, W. Children of Gibeon. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Drayton, H. S. Human Magnetism. Fowler & Wells Co.
Eellaw, A. Her Royal Lover. Street & Smith.
Field, E. A Little Book of Profitable Tales. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Field, E. A Little Book of Western Verse. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Flitt, J. F. The Struggle for Maverick. Street & Smith.
Frémont, Mrs. Jessie B. Far-West Sketches. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
German Newspaper Directory. New York: Tobias Bros.
Gillette, L. F. W. Editorials and Other Waifs. Fowler & Wells Co.
Himmel, F. von. Oceanides. Boston: Ernst von Himmel Pub. Co. 50 cents.
Horton, R. F. Inspiration and the Bible. 2d ed. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Ingalls, J. M. Handbook of Problems in Direct Fire. John Wiley & Sons. $4.
Jæger, H. Henrik Ibsen: A Critical Biography. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Mabie, H. W. My Study Fire. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Mackintosh, J. The Story of Scotland. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Masson, D. The collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. XI. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Mercer, F. H. F. The Spaniel and its Training. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $1.
Meredith, W. T. Not of Her Father's Race. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Moulton, Louise Chandler. Stories Told at Twilight. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
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Plympton, A. G. Dear Daughter Dorothy. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
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Sporting Sketches by Diane Chasseresse. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Stephens, F. G. Memorials of William Mulready. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Sterne, S. Piero da Castiglione. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Steuart, J. A. Killeroom: A Story of Ireland. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts relating to America from 1763 to 1783. Vol. V. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stockton, F. R. Ardis Claverden. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica: Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Swan, H. Traveller's Colloquial French. Brentano's.
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The Bagster New Testament. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
The Iron Chancellor in Private Life. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
The Manual of American Water-Works. 1889-90. Engineering News Publishing Co.
The Wider Hope. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Thomas, C. The Cherokees in Pre-Columbian Times. N. D. C. Hodges.
Thomas, Julia M. Miscellaneous Writings. John W. Lovell Co.
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Thruston, G. P. Antiquities of Tennessee and the Adjacent States. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $4.
Tiffany, F. Life of Dorothea Lynde Dix. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Tovey, D. C. Gray and his Friends: Letters and Relics. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Townsend, G. A. The Entailed Hat. New ed. Harper & Bros.
Van Buren, Col. G. M. Abraham Lincoln's Pen and Voice: A Compilation. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1.50.
Van Dyke, H. J. The Church: Her Ministry and Sacraments. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Ver-Planck, Mrs. J. The Wonder Light. New York: *The Path.*
Walford, L. B. The Havoc of a Smile. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Webster's International Dictionary of the English Language. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam & Co.
Weeden, W. B. Economic and Social History of New England (1620–789). 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Wesselhoeft, Lily F. The Winds, the Woods, and the Wanderer. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
White, Sallie Joy. Cookery in the Public Schools. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
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Williams, M. Leaves of a Life. 14th thousand. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
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Fine Arts.

THE GRANT MONUMENT.

THE drawings offered in competition for the Grant Monument by Messrs. Carrère & Hastings, Mr. Charles W. Clinton, Mr. John H. Duncan, the Messrs. Le Brun, and Mr. John Ord are on exhibition at the Ortgies Gallery in Fifth Avenue. It is altogether proper that such an exhibition should be held, but it would be more useful, perhaps, if the final decision were still to be made. No doubt, however, much volunteered good advice and many troublesome suggestions would be offered in that case, from which the Committee saves itself by not showing the designs until one had been decided on, and no doubt the Committee fully believe that they are in no need of such assistance.

The design of Messrs. Carrère & Hastings is a study of a character already familiar to those architects—a study of elaborate approaches and mass rising behind mass, in long succession. A huge semicircular colonnade and its portico lead, by a doorway in the middle of the convex side, to a porch, and this to a square building covered with a low dome, and forming, with its two porches and two apses, something like a Greek cross. This leads, on the side opposite the entrance, to a very lofty and massive tower. The difficulty of succeeding in such an effort as this is not to be forgotten. The impossibility of showing the design properly without a bird's-eye view, or else a series of perspective views, must be considered; but still it cannot be believed that the effect would be altogether happy. The design for the cathedral and its appendages and approaches, as shown by the same architects at the Architectural League Exhibition last winter, was certainly more successful, perhaps only because more matured, more carefully worked out.

Mr. Clinton's design is of a very simple circular building, like a temple of Vesta, with a colonnade surrounding a cylindrical *cella*, but crowned by a second story also circular and much smaller in diameter—a kind of open cupola. The whole structure seems much smaller than it really is. Even after examination and after study of the Pantheon-like ground-plan, and after gaining a "realizing sense" of the colossal size of the lower order of columns, the edifice still appears to the eye a slight and delicate garden pavilion. In some respects this is the best design exhibited; but the serious character of the above-named fault cannot be denied.

Mr. Duncan's design is announced as the successful one. It consists of a square hall having four porticos (of which one projects like an apse), and a cylindrical drum surmounting the nearly cubical lower structure, surmounted in its turn by a cone formed of steps, and, at top, a *quadriga*. The general appearance, then, is that of a round and cone-topped tomb of the Roman imperial epoch, such as was that of Cæcilia Metella or the great mausoleum of Hadrian, set upon a square basement of overwhelming size. The idea is not fortunate. The two structures are rather too visibly separate, for the cylinder and cone do not form a good roof or superstructure to the cube, nor does the cube lend itself at all well to the service of a pedestal for the cylinder and cone. This, which would be palpable to all in a perspective view, or in execution, the geometrical "elevation" partly conceals. The interior effects would be much happier. A great square hall opens into the four porticos, of which three, indeed, are closed by screen-walls between the columns, though still allowing light to pour freely in. Beneath this, on the side of the semicircular or apse-like portico, is a crypt, which, as a place for the sarcophagus, is well imagined. The details of this design are not very agreeable. The great columns, Grecian Doric in their general character, hardly agree with the Roman look of the whole mass: they have no virtue but ponderous solidity. The entablatures which stripe the building horizontally are very far from decorative. Grace, indeed, and harmony of parts are not to be found in the exterior, which it would not be unfair to call clumsy.

The design of Messrs. Le Brun offers a large drum crowned by a dome, and having four rectangular porticos. The dome is light and high, as compared with what we know of Roman work, and yet the building is generally Roman in character; it is as if an architect of Marcus Aurelius's time had tried to design a dome as showy outside as that of the Pantheon is within. The details are hardly as graceful as those of Mr. Clinton's design, and yet, on the whole, this one is to be preferred to it, and therefore, we think, to all the others.

Mr. Ord's design provides a huge square tower, having a dome flanked by minor towers rising from the main mass, which itself is surrounded by four apses with semi-domes low in proportion to the main structure. It is not fortunate in detail or in proportion. The large bas-reliefs seem to us incredibly inappropriate and in bad taste; in one is seen Grant as "the guest of the world," surrounded by recognizable sovereign and ruling personages, he *primus inter pares*—a position his simplicity would hardly have rejoiced in.

Among Mr. Duncan's drawings is one which shows in an odd way the discrepancy between the gigantic ideas entertained by the Committee and the existing state of things. It appears that the funds already subscribed would allow of building one of the four sides of the proposed great central hall, but only to about half its height, and, with this, the apse-like projection on that side, and the whole crypt. The design for this small instalment is very clever; the details, which are to be parts of a stupendous whole, are still seen to be available as parts of a very small separate entity; and it appears that the Grant tomb, if it never should grow any bigger than as shown here, would be at least as good architecturally as if the whole design were realized. This smaller structure seems to contain at most three-tenths of the whole, if the whole foundation is supposed to be put in, or about one-fifth of the whole if this is not done.

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Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1890.

The Week.

THE Republican "keynote of the campaign" is a pamphlet of twenty-seven pages entitled 'The Grand Old Party.' It is ornamented with portraits of Lincoln and of Grant, and it tells what Congress has done during the past session for the benefit of labor. First, it has helped the farmer by raising the duty on horses and mules to $30 per head, and on hogs to $1.50 per head. It has also made corresponding advances on buckwheat, oats, cheese, cabbages, hay, garden seeds, straw, pork, and a lot of staple exports that our farmers are sending to Europe by great ship-loads almost every day in the year. Then the party has done an equally good turn for the operatives in factories, according to this veracious chronicle, which says that, "while guarding by every wise and lawful means the interests of the American farmer, the McKinley Bill has skilfully maintained the conditions which have contributed so marvellously to the prosperity of the American mechanic in the past twenty years. . . . It is a bill which enables American manufacturers to do a profitable business, notwithstanding the dreadful disparity in the price of labor." How promptly the lie has been given to this statement is shown by the journal of the carpet industry in this city, which contains the remarkable statement that the carpet-manufacturers of Philadelphia, who represent two-thirds of all the looms in the country, have signed an agreement *to shut down 40 per cent. of their looms for one year*. They have done this simply because the McKinley Bill has so added to the cost of their raw material that they cannot dispose of their product at a profit. Their market has been curtailed by the advance in price made necessary by the advance in carpet wool. Fewer people can afford to buy carpets. The shrinkage in the demand has been ascertained or estimated to be equal to 40 per cent. Of course they have not taken this step with any view of influencing legislation, but simply to save themselves from loss. The legislation is already in force, and the carpet makers have only to adjust their business to it.

Now, how does this comport with the statement of the Republican campaign pamphlet that labor has been benefited by the McKinley Bill? The very first thing done is to throw out of employment 40 per cent. of the carpet-weavers; of course their wages cease when the mills close, and if we suppose that they can turn their hands to anything else, they will simply crowd the avenue to employment in other industries. This is the way that labor has been helped by the McKinley Bill, and this is not the only case nor the worst one, as will be found out when the tin schedule takes effect. This was cunningly postponed till next July, at which time the tin-workers will "catch it" worse than the carpet-workers are catching it now.

The Boston *Commercial Bulletin* is not more than half pleased with the McKinley Tariff Act, now that it is passed. It says that "to the free-traders it is a disappointment, to the more conservative element of the protectionists a disappointment whose bitterness is intensified by the thought that in a large degree they are responsible for it." This observation is perhaps intended to smooth the pillow of Senator Hoar. "*The bill is by no means utterly bad*," continues the *Bulletin*. Then the *Bulletin* proceeds to point out in what particulars it is utterly bad. The new duties on wool, camel's hair, dégras, and sumac are cited as instances of utter badness. We had not heard of any complaint about sumac until the *Bulletin* told us about it. We now learn that this article is used for dressing certain kinds of leather, and that Sicily sumac is the only kind that answers the purpose perfectly, American sumac being impregnated with gallic acid from which the Sicilian variety is free. Under these circumstances, what do the McKinleyites do? They increase the duty on sumac to 4-10 of a cent per pound, the present rate being 3-10. This was done, says the *Bulletin*, in a vein of fine sarcasm, "with the apparent hope of changing our own soil and climate by the process." No, dear friend, Congress was not so foolish as that. What it intended, and what you meant to say it intended, was to increase the profits of the sumac-men at the expense of the leather-men. Such legislation is called "equalizing the conditions of production." If the soil of Sicily is free from gallic acid, that fact gives Sicily an advantage estimated at four-tenths of a cent per pound. Nobody expects to remove gallic acid from our soil at any such ridiculous rate as that, but it is expected that leather-dressers will put up with gallic acid rather than pay four-tenths of a cent extra for the kind of sumac that is free from it.

We receive every day a new lot of trade circulars announcing an advance in the prices of manufactured goods due to the passage of the McKinley Bill, but we have not received any similar announcement respecting agricultural produce. Henry M. Peyser & Co. of Nos. 138 and 140 Grand Street inform their customers that they are reluctantly compelled to advance the prices of kid gloves, *especially of the cheaper grades*. These tariff men always know where to strike. The wearers of the higher grades of gloves are the rich people, most of whom bring home their gloves in their trunks when they return from Europe. The former rate of duty on kid gloves was uniform at 50 per cent. ad valorem. The new McKinley rate is embraced in twenty-six lines of the bill which nobody but an expert can understand. Messrs. Peyser & Co. tell us that it will not be necessary to make the advance suddenly, "but the fact that the new tariff goes into effect within so short a period after its passage leaves no other course open for us." J. B. Ryer & Co., 167 and 169 Canal Street, find it necessary for the same reason to mark up the prices of upholstery goods, and for this purpose they withdraw all quotations pending a calculation of the additional cost. A firm engaged in the sale of musical instruments and parts thereof send out a circular saying that the McKinley Act puts the duty from 40 to 140 per cent. above the old rates. Looking at the McKinley Act in order to see how this comes about, we were surprised to find that musical instruments are not mentioned at all. In the tariff of 1883, under the head of sundries, is a clause, numbered 469, in these words: "Musical instruments of all kinds, 25 per centum ad valorem." This has been stricken out, and nothing put in its place, the effect being to put musical instruments in the category of manufactures of metal not otherwise provided for, at 45 per cent. ad valorem—a cunning way to increase the rate of duty and conceal the fact until the bill is passed and beyond recall.

In these days, when farm workers find so many discouragements, it must be pleasing to listen to such words of cheer as Mr. W. W. Phelps, the United States Minister to Berlin, uttered last week in a plea for protection before the Republican Convention of Bergen County, N. J. "The export of agricultural products," said he, "must find a limited and failing market; the export of manufactured articles must find an increasing and permanent market. The lowest grade of labor can raise corn and wheat and pork. It does not require the intelligence and skill and invention in which the American labor surpasses the world. Ultimately, then, we must lose these markets for our wheat, but not for our wares." Secretary Blaine, in his first reciprocity letter, told the farmers that in the McKinley Bill there was not a section or a line that would open the market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork. According to Mr. Phelps, no legislation can check the "failing market" abroad for our agricultural products, raised, as he puts it, by the "lowest grade of labor." We leave our agricultural classes to pass on this ranking of them by the protectionist orator. But we call their attention to his conclusion, which is, that, inasmuch as there is to be no foreign market for farm products, the farmer must not squeal when, in a measure like this McKinley Bill, taxes are piled on

him in aid of manufacturers, because he must look to the employees of these manufacturers, who will have "intelligence and skill," to buy his grain and meat. The farmer's mind must be of a very "low grade" indeed if he cannot see that this is simply a proposal to pay more, as a certainty, for what he buys, in exchange for a distant promise that he will get a better home market for what he sells. And if he did, what would the result be but taking money out of one pocket to put it into another?

Considerable light is thrown upon Speaker Reed's conundrum, "What is reciprocity?" in a late despatch addressed by the Argentine Minister for Foreign Affairs to each of the Argentine Ministers in Europe. The Argentine Government, says the despatch, is giving serious attention to the modifications going on in the tariffs of European countries and to the marked protectionist spirit manifested in them. These changes have produced justifiable alarm in the Argentine Republic, since they threaten that country's export trade, and so her national well-being. The situation is one calling for defensive measures. Accordingly, each minister is directed to give careful study to the new tariff laws as they bear upon Argentine exports, and, in case the increase of rates is found to cut into Argentine trade, to indicate to the home Government his opinion as to "what products of the said country are best indicated for the imposition of a heavy tax, on arrival at our custom-houses, *as a measure of reciprocity.*" According to this, reciprocity may turn out only a new name for commercial warfare. It is suggestive, at any rate, of what would be likely to happen if President Harrison should undertake to set our wonderful scheme of reciprocity in operation as against the Argentines. Should he deem them not properly grateful for our great goodness in buying their hides, and clap a smart tax on the same, he would doubtless find them ready to act in the spirit of the above despatch, and to put such duties on our machinery and petroleum as would make an end of our export trade with them at once. Evidently, new chapters remain to be written in the history of reciprocity—though probably they will prove only new chapters in humbuggery.

The President has made a shrewd political manœuvre in appointing Mr. Blaine's man Collector of the Port at Portland in spite of Speaker Reed's objections. It is evident, from the super-heated condition of Congressman Boutelle and other of Mr. Reed's champions, that Republican politics in Maine are already badly rent with internal dissensions because of this appointment, and that matters are likely to grow worse instead of better as time goes on. If neither Mr. Blaine nor Mr. Reed can get a solid delegation from Maine to the next Republican National Convention, neither of them will have a strong chance for either obtaining or controlling the Presidential nomination, and the President will thus put two aspirants out of the field. Whether by doing this he will benefit his own prospects for the nomination is quite another matter.

The Lincoln Independent Republican Committee, as the anti-Quay Republicans of Pennsylvania style themselves, have sent an earnest appeal to President Harrison, which he, as a Presbyterian Elder, ought to make the subject of prayer and meditation. They say to him, after tersely summing up the evidence against Quay as a public thief:

"The issue is plain. In the interest of sound public morals and of primitive Republican facts, all seek the political downfall of a man whose public record dishonors himself, his party, and his State. There is but one alternative, either Mr. Quay must be shorn of political power, or the Republican party must lose its high name as the party of progress and the representative of great moral ideas. It must accept the ignoble title of the Party of Immoral Ideas, whose claim to power is no longer right, but might, and whose appeal is not now, as in the days of Lincoln, addressed through lofty and legitimate argument to the reason of the people, to their native sense of justice and of truth. It will then become a party whose youthful aspiration is sunk in hopeless corruption, and whose purse strings have strangled its patriotism. To avert such a catastrophe we appeal to you, as the Chief Magistrate of the nation, to aid us in this struggle by withdrawing from Mr. Quay the patronage of Pennsylvania, the responsibility for which has been placed in the Constitution in your hands. It is in this delegated power to give and to withhold office, to bribe and punish, that Mr. Quay's strength largely lies. Withhold it from him, and his political power will cease to exist."

The President should remember that the men who make this appeal are not wicked and hardened Mugwumps, but life-long Republicans; not free-traders in the pay of the Cobden Club, but life-long and eminent champions of protection, with such men as Robert Ellis Thompson and Henry C. Lea at their head. None of them supported Cleveland, but all of them were earnest Harrison men.

The latest Republican candidate who is charged with using public money as if it were his own, is that party's recent nominee for Governor of Michigan, Mr. James M. Turner. He is accused by a former superintendent of the State School for the Blind, Mr. J. T. McElroy, of having deliberately violated the law of the State a few years ago, while serving as a member of the Board of Control and acting as its treasurer. The law explicitly forbids any officer in charge of public moneys to "commingle the same with his own or with the money of any other firm or corporation." Mr. McElroy says that it is within his personal knowledge that Mr. Turner put the money appropriated for the Blind School into his personal account, and drew to meet the expenses of the institution and of his own private business from the same account. He further charges that Mr. Turner used his official position to force the institution to purchase building materials from his own business concern, though the law expressly forbade him to be a party to any contract or purchase or sales, directly or indirectly; and that in building a wing of the School a million and a half of brick were used which came from Turner's own brickyard. In support of this charge an affidavit from the contractor doing the work is printed, declaring that though equally good brick could have been obtained at a lower price, Mr. Turner would allow none but his own to be used. Other minor charges of a similar character are made by Mr. McElroy, who says that he first formulated these charges in 1887, when Mr. Turner was a candidate for reappointment to the Board of Control, and filed them with the Governor; that Turner admitted the truth of them to him in a private conversation just after the charges had been filed, and offered to secure McElroy's appointment as Superintendent for five years, at any salary he might name, if he would cease his opposition. This he declined to do, and, as the final outcome of a three hours' interview, Turner offered to withdraw his name if McElroy would recall his statement from the Governor's hands. This was accordingly done.

The "brick boycott" has been declared "off" by the august Board of Walking Delegates, and this silly disturbance of the building industry of several large cities is consequently removed. It will be remembered that the boycott was instituted by the brick-manufacturers because the Board of Walking Delegates had issued orders to all Knights of Labor unloading bricks in this city not to handle the bricks of the Verplanck Company because that company had refused to force all its several thousand employees into the "noble and holy order" of Knights. The manufacturers, instead of suing the Walking Delegates for conspiracy, combined and agreed to allow no bricks to come to market from their works until the boycott upon the Verplanck Company was lifted. They have won their fight, but they could have won it with much less harm to their own business, and without disturbance to building industries, by bringing the Walking Delegates into court and having them sent to prison for a brief period of meditation and seclusion.

Mr. Webb's action in intimating that Knights of Labor will not be employed on the New York Central Railroad, not only needs no defence, but is, as we have heretofore pointed out, the discharge of an imperative duty. If there is no law to warrant the indictment of a railroad manager who knowingly keeps in the employ of the road men bound to stop trains and obstruct traffic, without notice, on secret orders issued by outsiders, there ought to be one. It is just as criminal as knowingly permitting the use of an unsafe bridge or a defective locomotive. Private employers may, if they please, run such risks as long as the risk is only incurred by themselves, but railroad corporations or common carriers of any description have no right to do so. The character of his employees is one which every common carrier is bound to look to at his peril. The complaints which the Knights and their friends make of Mr. Webb's action, are due to that strange modern delusion that men can have a right to be hired by somebody else who has no desire for their services. Every man has a right to be a Knight of Labor if it pleases him, but nobody has the right to be hired by anybody who thinks Knights of La-

bor unsuited to his kind of work. There are plenty of disqualifications of the same sort. Nobody likes to employ any man whose attention is likely to be distracted from his proper duties by other occupations or pursuits, or who has outside interests hostile to those of his employer.

Mr. John Morley's reply to Mr. Balfour's article on the Land Bill in answer to Mr. Parnell in the *North American Review*, which appears in the October number of that periodical, will be found very pungent reading. Mr. Morley brings out, with the force of which he is so great a master, that most curious feature of the Balfour land-purchase scheme—the absolute disregard displayed in it of the opinions of the Irish people about the matter. Balfour proposes to lend the Irish farmers $250,000,000 of British Government money against the wishes of the great bulk of the Irish representatives in Parliament, and indeed without consulting them or any Irish representative body, and to make the county taxes liable in case any of the purchasers makes default in the payment of his annual instalments. That is to say, suppose a certain number of purchasers in any county fall into arrears, and suppose the Government to be unwilling, for political reasons, to foreclose on them and sell them out, it would actually have the power under the bill to seize on the county taxes, even the school rates and the poor rates, to pay these strictly private debts! We venture to assert that in no civilized country, except perhaps Russia, has a scheme been proposed displaying such contempt for the rights and wishes of the governed as this plan of solving the Irish problem.

The Tipperary trials bid fair to become one of the greatest farces of "resolute government" in Ireland. The proceedings are marked by a series of rows every day, and the court adjourns "in the greatest confusion." The reason is, of course, that the trials, besides rousing intense party feeling, are conducted before local magistrates, themselves intense local partisans, who have been engaged in all sorts of scrimmages themselves with the defendants, and who are of course ridiculously unfit to try cases involving the liberty of speech of their political opponents. Every day the precise object of the prosecutions becomes more mysterious. The usual object of criminal prosecutions is to frighten the defendant so that he shall not do it again, and to frighten others from doing it, by his fate. But nobody supposes Dillon and O'Brien will be frightened. On the contrary, they court imprisonment, and are looked on by all their followers as martyrs, whose advice, whatever it was, is consecrated by their sufferings. The theory on which they are being pursued is that on which Austria and Naples pursued their malcontents before 1848. That theory is, that you can stifle popular discontent by savage punishment of the orators and writers who give expression to it and stimulate it, and Englishmen at one time used never to weary of denouncing it and ridiculing it. The London *Times* has, by way of adding fuel to the flame, committed the folly of denying that there is any danger of famine in Ireland, and accusing the people who are preparing to relieve it of hypocrisy.

The evidence in favor of the great popularity of the new Universal Suffrage Law in Spain is complete, now that Don Carlos himself has given it his approval. The symbol and champion of divine right recently accorded an interview to the Venice correspondent of a Spanish paper. Asked his opinion of universal suffrage, he replied that of course he could not regard it as the source of right, but, as "an instrument of government and administration," he frankly confessed that he thought well of it, provided it were honestly put into exercise. His adherents, he added, would contest several seats in the coming elections, not for the sake of making a display of power, but to show their enemies the nature of their organization, and to prevent the misunderstanding of their position which would arise from their abstention from voting. The present political situation in Spain, he thought, could not long continue, and he was calmly waiting for the day when he should be able to "realize the hopes of good Spaniards." When inquiry was made if he thought of inciting another civil war, he gave strong assurances that he did not. An appeal to force he would not reject as a last resort, but was determined to try everything else first. He wished to give every proof that his party was fit to govern, and that, without yielding a jot of his principles, he desired for Spain all true and lawful progress. All this is, of course, rather better evidence of Don Carlos's impotence than anything else, but is of good augury for Spain's domestic peace in any case.

The troubles in Armenia are apparently no nearer settlement than when the massacre at Erzerum, on the 20th of June, first riveted the attention of European diplomacy upon this latest phase of the interminable Eastern question. Systematic persecution of the peaceable Armenians on the part of the savage Kurds has followed that fierce outbreak of Mohammedan fanaticism; and the cable accounts of the appointment of a commission for the investigation of the troubles, its dissolution, and replacement by a "stronger" commission, the resignation of the Armenian Patriarch and the withdrawal of his resignation, only serve to show the utter incompetency of the Sultan's Government in dealing with the problem which for twelve years has been awaiting solution. According to Article 61 of the Treaty of Berlin, Turkey was obliged to institute administrative reforms in Armenia, and to protect its inhabitants against depredations of the Circassians and Kurds. These reforms comprised the introduction of a *gendarmerie*, officered by Europeans, the appointment of Europeans as Inspectors of the Departments of Finance and Justice, and the nomination of *Valis*, or local Governors, as representatives of the Sultan. These reforms were either never instituted or else violated in letter and spirit, and by 1880 the condition of the Armenians had grown so much worse than it was before the Berlin Treaty that its cosignatories addressed an identical note to the Sultan reminding him of his obligations. A lame reply to that note led to a sharp demand of the Powers for the immediate institution of the reforms, and this in its turn was followed by a representation on the part of Turkey of the difficulties she had to contend with in Armenia and elsewhere, and a cool proposal of other reforms than those stipulated. In spite of the indignation excited by this reply, nothing further was done by the European governments, although an attempt was made in the following year by Great Britain, in consequence of an address to the British Vice-Consul at Van, signed by 940 Armenians, to get the other governments to join once more in remonstrating against Turkish remissness. Bismarck, however, did not consider it expedient to exercise pressure upon the Sultan before the settlement of the then pending frontier dispute between Turkey and Greece, and later on the troubles in Egypt, Afghanistan, and Bulgaria pushed the Armenian question into the background.

The demands of the Armenians themselves are reasonable enough. They ask for the removal of the restrictions which prohibit them from carrying arms and serving either in the army, police, or as law officers, and hence render them defenceless alike against the Kurds and the Turkish police, which, as often as not, makes common cause with the depredators. In addition, the Armenians plead for the consolidation of the vilayets of Erzerum, Van, Bitlis, and Diarbekir into a single province, with Erzerum as the capital, and the appointment of a Christian Governor-General approved by the Powers—a concession granted to the Christians of Syria after the massacre at Damascus, in 1860, and found to result beneficially to both Christians and Mohammedans. Finally they ask that at least a portion of the public revenues be devoted to the maintenance of roads and schools, the latter having been hitherto supported by private means. The Turkish Government, so far from showing itself disposed to grant these demands, has characteristically treated them as evidences of a rebellious temper, and prepared the way for the frightful acts of violence perpetrated at Erzerum. The jealousy with which the authorities had for years regarded the slightest acts of national self-assertion on the part of the Armenians bore legitimate fruit in the eagerness with which the Mohammedan rabble of Erzerum believed the absurd stories that the Armenians were manufacturing rifles and even cannon in a school-house. That, for the first time in many years, the principal organs of the European Powers are at one in condemning Turkish supineness, is the only gratifying feature of the Armenian question. Even the Liberal press of Austria, generally so sensitive with regard to Russian interference with Turkish affairs, views with equanimity Russian indignation in this instance.

THE MONEY MARKET.

THE renewed liquidation in stocks which began on Saturday is due to an apprehension that the present ease in money is only temporary, and that the stringency which prevailed a few weeks ago is liable to come again at any time, and to be remediless when it does come. It is the common talk that the Treasury cannot come to the relief of the market a second time, because it has exhausted its resources. It is said truly enough that the disbursements for interest and Sinking Fund have been anticipated for nine months, and that the payments on this score will be just so much less hereafter; and upon this fact alone the imagination may construct all kinds of terrors. But obviously this is only a half-truth, since the inlet to the Treasury is no larger than the outlet at the present time, whatever it may have been heretofore. It is impossible and unthinkable that there should be an accumulation of money in the Treasury to the hurt of trade and industry. If, by any circumstances now unforeseen, the income should be greater than the outgo, and there should be in consequence a Treasury glut and a business famine, the Secretary would certainly find a way to restore the balance. There is not the slightest ground for fear on that score. The real ground for fear is, that the balance will be on the other side before the end of the fiscal year; in other words, that the Government will be in the face of a deficit. The reserves of the Treasury are large enough to stave off such a crisis until Congress can see what its complexion is and take steps to meet it, but it is in this direction and not in the other that trouble is to be looked for, if at all.

There never was a fairer promise of general prosperity than when the present Congress came together. There was not a cloud in the sky. Business had adjusted itself to its conditions and everything was running smoothly. Confidence was high and credit was unimpaired. Nothing of a material or commercial nature has happened to cloud this prospect. In fact, the mercantile community has been very conservative. Speculation has been slack and rather on the bear than on the bull side. Probably there never was a time when the community was better prepared for stringency in money if it should come, because there never was a time when the ratio of debt to capital was lower than it is now. Nevertheless, there is a cloud on the horizon, and of considerable magnitude. This is evidenced by the continued shrinkage in Stock Exchange securities—a shrinkage which makes no discrimination between dividend and non-dividend-paying classes, and which takes little or no account of earnings, gross or net. At the same time that this is going on, general business is good, and the exchanges, as shown by Clearing-house returns, are 16 to 18 per cent. greater in volume than they were last year at this time. Here is an apparent contradiction of terms in one and the same problem. It must have some explanation.

The problem is so complex that nobody need dogmatize upon it. Whatever opinions anybody may hold, he must allow that they are liable to a great margin of error. One thing, however, is pretty clear, and that is that Wall Street is a pretty good barometer, and that things do not go badly there for any great length of time without a good reason. Wall Street scents calamity and takes steps to guard against it. It is very well that Wall Street does so, for this is the way to stave off calamity altogether. A cablegram in the morning papers from London says:

> "American securities continue to be the weakest in the market. Business in the department of American railway securities is virtually suspended, the main cause being extreme uncertainty felt regarding the influence of the new tariff and silver laws on American trade and industries. Bankers and investors hold aloof from American undertakings, and are restricting their loans and operations in that direction wherever possible. One result of the new measures considered assured is a large decrease in the trade between England and America. English manufacturers' stocks have been hurried to America, but it is deemed certain that the volume of business between the two countries will henceforth be lessened. American exports, also, it is thought, must decline, thereby curtailing the freight traffic of American railroads. Those interested in American prosperity are of the opinion that it remains to be seen whether the new tariff measure will result in stimulating native industries sufficiently to eventually compensate for the immediate loss they consider certain."

That this is a correct diagnosis of the trouble we have no doubt whatever. The only disturbing elements in the financial situation are those which Congress has precipitated into channels of business. It has stopped our exportation of silver by enacting that it shall be bought with our own money and stored away in our own vaults. In this way it has disturbed the nation's exchanges to the amount of thirty millions of dollars. It has created a still greater disturbance by an unnecessary and gratuitous increase of the tariff, made avowedly to check foreign trade. The theory has been advanced that at some future time, not particularly designated, domestic trade will be correspondingly improved. For the present, and for an indefinite period, foreign trade is to be curtailed without any corresponding increase of domestic trade. Take the tin-plate trade, for example. Here Congress has put on record its opinion that not before the first of January, 1897, will domestic trade in tin plate be equal to *one-third* of the present foreign trade in the article. But the foreign trade is to be curtailed at once by an arbitrary act of the Government. If this novel method of getting Congress to express its opinion, which was naïvely suggested by Senator Spooner, had been adopted as to all the other articles on which new restrictions are placed, we should have had on the statute-book in black and white the very apprehensions which the business world, both here and abroad, now entertains. Added to these things is the further apprehension that there will be a Treasury deficit within twelve months. This was predicted by Senator Edmunds before Congress adjourned; but, as we have said, there will be a session of Congress in the meantime, and the resources and credit of the Government, which are still undiminished, can be applied to the exigency, whatever it may be.

A NEW REPUBLICAN DEPARTURE.

MAJOR GOULD, candidate for Auditor on the Massachusetts Republican State ticket, has withdrawn "under fire." This is so unusual a proceeding in a Republican candidate that it calls for special attention. The charge against the Major is, that, while acting as United States Collector of Internal Revenue in Georgia between 1869 and 1872, his accounts showed a deficit, in principal and interest, amounting to $75,000; that a suit was brought against him in the United States Circuit Court for conspiracy to defraud the Government, but was dismissed under a *nolle prosequi* entered by the District Attorney; that subsequently suit was brought in the same court against his bondsmen, and at a second trial a verdict was rendered on April 23, 1886, in favor of the Government, calling upon the bondsmen for $41,622.36 principal and $34,462.78 interest. Several of the bondsmen had died in the meantime, and others had no property; and, after many fruitless efforts to collect the judgment, the Government compromised on Monday week, by accepting from one bondsman $3,000 and costs as full satisfaction for its claim. Its loss through Gould was, therefore, over $70,000. The truth of these charges is admitted by the Chairman of the Massachusetts Republican State Committee and by the chief organ of the party, the Boston *Journal*. The latter, in making the admission, says: "It is not believed by his [Gould's] friends that the money found its way into his pocket. He asserts that this is so, but he is unable to give a full accounting."

It appears from official records of the Treasury Department at Washington that the Major deserted his office at Savannah when the defalcation was discovered, and from that day to the present time has been "missing" in the opinion of the Treasury officials, who are said to be desirous of instituting proceedings against him. He took up his residence in Medfield, Mass., however, nearly twenty years ago, and was elected to the State Senate as a Republican in 1886 and 1887. He was a member of the Massachusetts delegation to the Republican National Convention in 1888, and is known as the "original Harrison man" of that delegation. It is evident by interviews which were published with him as late as Tuesday week that he had no idea of withdrawing from the ticket. He said to a reporter of the Boston *Herald* who visited him the evening before, that such a movement as withdrawal was the "furthest from his mind"; that he "had no reason for taking such a step"; that he "had not been requested to withdraw," and that, as for the stories going the rounds about him—

> "I think it would be in very bad taste for me to say anything about them just now, as they are not specific enough. Besides, I should find little else to do if I attempted to refute all the campaign stories which will be circulated about me. Look here at these papers and see if I have not a good war record. My re-

cord as a soldier is spotless, but I would rather not speak about it until there is something said in a direct way. This is not the first time I have been similarly assailed, for the same things were said when I ran for the Senate; but I effectually disproved the charges at the time. If there is anything in the depths, I want to find it out. I really don't know what to think of these things, but I can assure you they are only rumors."

"Do you know of any one who has been active in spreading these defamatory reports?"

"I suppose they originated in the mind of some old crank who has a petty grievance against me. I refrain from making any specific charges, for I wish to be on good terms with all my townspeople. I would rather have their good-will than all the rest of the State."

The charges were just as "specific" when the Major made this familiar Republican type of defence as they were on the following day, when he wrote his card of withdrawal, in which he said that while he knew that he was "completely innocent," he also knew "how impossible it is in a political campaign for a candidate to meet any charge against him," and for that reason he believed it to be his "duty to the Republican party to decline the nomination."

We submit that this is entirely out of harmony with almost unvarying Republican practice for at least six years. If such a course had been followed in 1884, the party would have been without a Presidential candidate at the very opening of its campaign. If it were to be followed in Pennsylvania to-day, the party would have no head to its State ticket; and if it were to be followed in its national counsels, it would have no head to its National Committee. The charges against Delamater and his master, Quay, are no less and no more specific than those against Maj. Gould. The latter have been sustained in court, and the former would be if Delamater and Quay would consent to take them there. Why should there be more sensitiveness among Massachusetts Republicans than among those of Pennsylvania and of the national Administration? Probably because the party majority is much smaller and much less certain in Massachusetts than it is in Pennsylvania, owing to the prevalence of more "squeamish notions" of right and wrong in the former State.

Major Gould's defence of his character before he was forced to retire under fire, was as perfect in every way as any of the kind we have ever seen. It was as fervid as Delamater's, and was based as his was not, upon a "war record"; and it was far better than Quay's, because it was vocal, while Quay's has never been spoken. It is not considered a part of his "duty to the Republican party" in Pennsylvania for a rascal to get off the party ticket when he has been found out and exposed, and this, it seems to us, is more in accord with party usage than the Massachusetts view. In Pennsylvania, it is the custom of eminent Republican citizens to give rascals on their party tickets receptions at their leading club, to take them cordially by the hand, and denounce all other Republicans who decline to join them in these marks of honor as "unpatriotic Americans who are seeking the overthrow of the protective-tariff system in the interest of British free trade." The Massachusetts Republican managers must see the harm they are doing by their squeamishness, for they are reflecting upon the character and conduct of some of the best men their party has ever contained.

NEW ENGLAND IN THE CENSUS.

On Thursday last the Census Office announced the population of New Hampshire, the only one of the New England States whose population had not previously been made public. The following table shows the population of each of the New England States in 1890 and in 1880:

	1890.	1880.
Connecticut	745,861	622,700
Maine	660,261	648,936
Massachusetts	2,233,407	1,783,085
New Hampshire	375,827	346,991
Rhode Island	345,343	276,531
Vermont	332,205	332,286
Total	4,692,904	4,010,529

The increase has therefore been 682,375, or at the rate of 17.01 per cent. So much has been written, and truthfully written, about the exodus of the farming class from rural New England, that it is probable that many well-informed persons have acquired the idea that the population of that portion of the country was either decreasing, or increasing very slowly. The census figures show, however, that so far from this being the case, the absolute increase in the population of New England has been greater than in any previous decade since 1790, and that the percentage of increase has been greater than during any previous decennial period since 1850.

The population of New England at each census, the absolute increase, and the percentage of increase during each decade, are shown in the following table:

Date of Census.	Population.	Percentage of increase.	Increase.
1890....	4,692,904	17.01	682,375
1880....	4,010,529	14.98	522,605
1870....	3,487,924	11.25	352,641
1860....	3,135,283	14.92	407,167
1850....	2,728,116	22.07	493,294
1840....	2,234,822	14.33	280,105
1830....	1,954,717	17.78	295,138
1820....	1,659,579	12.74	187,606
1810....	1,471,973	19.38	238,962
1800....	1,233,011	22.14	223,603
1790....	1,009,408		

The three northern New England States, viz., Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, have, however, during the last decade, grown very little, and the last named has even suffered a trifling net loss of population. Sixteen-seventeenths of the entire increase in New England is to be credited to its three southern States, viz., Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. At one time, as the following table will show, almost precisely the reverse of this state of things existed:

	Northern New England.			Southern New England.		
Date of Census.	Population.	Increase.	Percentage of Increase.	Population.	Increase.	Percentage of Increase.
1890.....	1,293,593	40,080	3.02	3,399,311	642,295	23.94
1880.....	1,328,213	52,447	4.11	2,685,816	470,158	21.25
1870.....	1,275,766	6,316	.50	2,215,658	346,825	18.51
1860.....	1,269,450	54,185	4.46	1,868,833	353,082	23.38
1850.....	1,215,265	196,950	19.70	1,512,851	296,344	30.81
1840.....	1,078,315	138,680	18.68	1,156,607	163,225	15.04
1830.....	940,436	171,178	22.00	1,006,282	123,060	14.00
1820.....	778,257	117,197	17.73	881,822	71,400	8.68
1810.....	661,060	171,018	24.90	810,918	67,061	9.14
1800.....	490,042	106,192	51.22	743,857	57,404	8.37
1790.....	383,850			686,453		

In the closing years of the last century and the early decades of this, southern New England was, as to growth, in a condition very similar to that which now exists in northern New England.

In Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut there were in 1790 already forty-nine inhabitants to the square mile, or more than there are to-day in any State west of the Mississippi or south of the Potomac or the Ohio. Under the then existing conditions, it was not possible for many more people to find support from the soil, and, until the great development of manufacturing came, the increase in southern New England, and especially in Connecticut and Rhode Island, was very small. From 1790 to 1800 the population of Rhode Island increased but 297. In the first half-century of national existence, Connecticut's population grew only 30 per cent., as against an increase of 140 per cent. in the second half. With the great development of manufacturing subsequent to 1820, the rate of growth of the southern New England States perceptibly increased. Since 1840, when the great tide of foreign immigration which set in about that time was attracted to these States by the opportunities for employment held out by their mills and factories, their percentage of increase has been high.

Northern New England, on the other hand, in 1790 had a population of less than seven to the square mile. There was plenty of room for growth, and, until 1830, it was rapid. For the next two decades, while these States continued to grow, they did so much less rapidly than before. By 1850, although they then had only twenty-five inhabitants to the square mile, the practical limit of their growth as agricultural, or semi-agricultural, communities seems to have been reached.

In the last forty years their population has increased but 12½ per cent.

There is much more waste land in northern than in southern New England. Cheap railroad and steamship transportation from better soils has made it unprofitable to till lands which a century ago would have yielded a living to their cultivators. The increased use of agricultural machinery has enabled fewer hands to work a farm of the same area. The social attractions of city life are far greater, and are brought much more closely home to the country-bred youth, than was the case a century ago. These are doubtless some of the most important reasons why Maine, Vermont, and New Hampshire seem to have stopped in their growth, although they have to-day but twenty-eight inhabitants to the square mile.

"GRIPPY POINTS" ABOUT BELDEN.

We have received during the past few days several copies of two campaign documents which have been sent out by Congressman Belden, Chairman of the Republican Congressional Committee, accompanied by the following circular :

My Dear Sir: It is my pleasure to hand you a copy of our 'Campaign Text-Book,' which has been prepared and printed by the Committee for distribution among Republican editors, speakers, writers, and talkers.

The grippy points of the present and recent record of the Republican party are grouped together in such a manner as to make a complete summary of the great and affirmative things done by the Republican Congress and Republican Administration, to which I most respectfully invite your attention.

I am, very sincerely yours,

J. J. Belden.

One of the documents is ornamented with colored cuts of an American and a British flag, and is headed "Under Which Flag?" and the other has on its first page cuts of Lincoln and Grant, and is called "The Grand Old Party." The first, as its title and decoration indicate, is an imitation of the familiar forged-extract document of the campaign of 1888, and we are bound to say that it surpasses its model in the boldness and liberality of its forgeries. These are ingeniously commingled with some apparently genuine quotations, in order to give them an air of plausibility, but while precise dates are given for the seemingly genuine ones, no dates at all are assigned to the forgeries. Good examples of the latter are the following, which we quote as they appear in the document :

[London Times.]

It is to the new world that the Cobden Club is chiefly looking as the most likely sphere for its vigorous foreign policy. It has done what it can in Europe, and it is now turning its eyes westward and bracing itself for the struggle which is to come. It cannot rest while the United States are unsubdued.

[London Standard.]

A bill to establish in America what the English call free trade has just been defeated in the House by the narrow majority of four. The measure was of enormous importance for English manufacturers, as it would have enabled them to export goods to the States without the crushing tariff now imposed, and its fate was watched with intense interest by Englishmen. Were it passed it would have been worth £100,000,000 per annum to British manufacturers.

Aside from the absence of dates, these quotations bear all the familiar attributes of former Republican forgeries. They are expressed in language which English writers never use, they treat the tariff question from the American rather than the English side, and they are adapted too perfectly for the work their authors design them to do. But the absence of dates is conclusive of itself, for even the bogus-extract makers are aware of the fact that a precise date is a mark of genuineness which is so valuable that they would put it on if they dared. They know it makes detection and exposure both speedy and-conclusive, and hence they do not forge that as well as the extract.

But it is not our purpose to-day to go into the character of the documents which Mr. Belden is circulating, but rather into the character of Mr. Belden himself. What are the "grippy points" in his career which especially fit him for the work upon which he has embarked as the chosen leader of the Republican party in its Congressional campaign? Is there anything in his career which would lead one to suppose that he would not find the concoction and circulating of lies and forgeries congenial work? These questions are timely in view of the fact that the same party has a public thief as the chosen leader of its National Campaign Committee. Happily they can be answered by reference to unimpeachable Republican authority.

Mr. Belden first became prominent in the politics of this State through the Canal Ring exposures made by Gov. Tilden. It will be remembered that the New York *Tribune* took a leading part in the publication of the revelations, and it is to its files that we shall go for light upon Mr. Belden's character. The *Tribune* made its first publication about Belden as a Canal Ring magnate on March 20, 1875, when it published many specimen contracts, including one of James J. Belden's in which "he agreed to do certain work for $86,584, and by means of unbalanced bids obtained $222,610," and another one of his in which "he bid $10,617 and received $49,936, the work still going on." In commenting editorially upon these contracts the *Tribune* of the same date said :

"Fraud is written all over the face of them. . . . The most lucrative contracts are in the hands of cliques, whose political affiliations are far-reaching and powerful. A leading member [Belden] of one of the most active and unconscionable of these cliques is intimately allied, by financial and domestic ties, with the Chairman of the Assembly Committee on Canals."

On the same day the *Tribune* published a "black list," which it republished frequently while the revelations were in progress, and on this Belden's name stood third, and at the bottom, the *Tribune* said: "This is a good list to save. Let every honest voter cut it out, and keep watch for the men whose names are on it." On March 23, 27, 29, 30, 31, April 14 and 17, many columns were given to the Canal Ring exposures, and much space to Belden, and what the *Tribune* called the "combination of Belden, Dennison, and Gale." In all instances he was spoken of in more or less plain terms as a swindling contractor. On March 29, while commenting upon a list of "Canal Ring names which the *Tribune* has already made familiar and odious," the editor said:

"Here is James J. Belden, the great Belden, and A. Cadwell and Mead, the lesser Beldens. The Canal Ring is a real ring, it has no end or beginning. Its members are grouped about every contract and every swindle, and yet in the eyes of the law are individuals and not partners."

On March 31, in an editorial article on the general pernicious influence of Canal Ring politics, the *Tribune* thus paid its respects to Belden as a practical Christian worker, almost as active as the pious Mr. Wanamaker of the present day:

"The Christian Canal Ring Contractor will go down to history with the Christian Statesman. Both have enjoyed a long lease of power, and are victims of a newspaper eclipse. The Christian Statesman lasted until he was exposed; the Christian Canal Contractor was found out long before his name got into the *Tribune*, for the leading contractors of the Ring, it may well be said, long ago lost the respect of their decent neighbors. A case in point is that of a contractor whose name stands high on the *Tribune's* black list. He built and largely supports a leading church in his city. He is the head of a large and flourishing Sunday-school. He is the sponsor of the temperance society [spoken of more directly in another *Tribune* article as the "Belden Cold Water Temple"], and is yet the *owner of some of the worst swindling contracts* and a partner of another of the black sheep."

Writing from Syracuse, in a letter published on April 10, the *Tribune's* staff correspondent bore testimony on the same point by saying:

"The chief, the brains of the Syracuse Ring, is James J. Belden, whose fortune, largely derived from canal contracts, is said to mount up to more than two millions. He is a man of ability, and though none of the Canal Ring have more than a common-school culture, he is a gentleman of refined bearing. But canal contracts make strange partners, and this patron of churches and sponsor of charitable societies is a partner of an uncouth man who can neither read nor write. Mr. Belden has been prominent in good works. He has given liberally to churches, and his example has been followed in this by one or two other members of the Ring. He has thrown all his influence on the side of temperance.

"One can imagine how strange it sounded to hear a church announcement of an exhibition of the 'Belden Cold Water Temple' tread closely upon the heels of the minister's denunciation of canal rings and thefts by contract. Mr. Belden became interested in education, too, just before he wanted to run for Mayor, and gave large sums to the Syracuse University."

In order that there might be no doubt about Belden's complicity, the *Tribune* said of him, also on March 31 :

"These rings within the Ring have their offices in sets opening into one another, are for all practical purposes partners, and yet in the eyes of the law are distinct persons. Their bank account is in the name of one of their number. *Belden carries the bag for the Belden, Denison & Gale combination*, and the division of profits is periodic and impartial. . . . The chief curse that they have brought upon the State, say thoughtful men, is, not that they have stolen the canals poor, but that they have corrupted so much that was pure and withered so much that was promising. Besides their debauching of Legislatures and tampering with Canal Boards, there was the corruption and intimidation of a whole army of young men—not only those holding subordinate positions on the canals, but aspirants in politics, whose principles were undermined and standards degraded by the insidious influences of the most insinuating of rings. The Canal Ring was not alone a political conspiracy; it was a social pest, a moral nuisance, and the sooner it is under the ground the clearer the air will be."

We have not space for other quotations, but we could fill columns with them. The

court records can also be cited for evidence against Belden. In January, 1882, he presented to the State Board of Audit a claim for services and materials on the Erie Canal to the amount of $125,406.90. This claim the Republican Attorney-General, Mr. Russell, contested in behalf of the State, on the ground that nothing was due, that Belden had been overpaid already, and had procured such payments by fraud. The case was tried before a tribunal consisting of Gen. Carr, formerly Republican Secretary of State, Ira Davenport, Republican Comptroller, and Mr. Maxwell, State Treasurer. After an elaborate trial, in which more than 1,000 pages of testimony were presented, the claim was unanimously rejected, and the decision reached that Belden had been overpaid $102,610.30, and had secured that overpayment by means of excessive estimates which he had presented, "knowing them to be excessive," and making them "for the purpose of defrauding the State." A tribunal with a Republican majority thus decided that Belden had not only wilfully defrauded the State of over $102,000, but was trying to defraud it of over $125,000 more. Belden carried the case to the General Term of the Supreme Court, and the finding of the tribunal was affirmed in January, 1884. Still unsatisfied, he carried it to the Court of Appeals, and it was affirmed again by that court on October 5, 1886.

There still remains one more "grippy point" to be added to this interesting collection. When Jacob Sharp was under investigation in February, 1886, there appeared among the payments which he had made one of $65,000 to James J. Belden for services as a lobbyist at Albany in securing the Broadway Railway franchise. When he was asked to explain what the money had been used for, Sharp replied: "Well, Mr. Belden is a man who don't stir round for nothing. He expects to make something." It is the expectation of "making something" which fits a man with this record to be a "born leader" with Quay in the latter-day Republican party.

THE BOULANGIST EPISODE.

It would be difficult to find in French history an episode better worth studying as an illustration of French manners than the Boulanger affair, which has been so amusingly shown up in the series of letters which a certain M. Mermeix has been publishing in the *Figaro*, entitled "Les Coulisses du Boulangisme," and which we have already noticed in these columns. In the first place, the sudden rise of Boulanger himself into political influence so great that it seemed at one time doubtful whether he could not execute a successful *coup d'état*, is a striking example of the extraordinary contrast, which has been so often remarked upon, between the Frenchman's character as a politician and his character as a private individual. As a private individual, there is no man more prudent, economical, frugal, and slow-going. He is content with small savings and slow accumulation, and is exceedingly averse to great risks. As a politician he is one of the most impatient and restless of men. He cannot bear to wait long for results, and is always ready to try a new experiment in government, no matter what his experience may have been of former ones.

Boulanger, for instance, had all the well-known marks of a French humbug. The fine seat in the saddle, the contempt for the parliamentary talkers, the unwillingness to say exactly how he would set matters to rights except by breaking up the existing government, and so on, were all signs with which the French public was made familiar in 1851. Nevertheless, Boulanger had an immense Parisian success. On one night he appears to have had a fair chance of succeeding, temporarily at least, in an attempt to overturn M. Carnot. Nobody was able to say what he would do if he got into power, and nobody knew where the money came from with which he was living luxuriously; and yet a large body of followers were willing to trust him to the end, and several constituencies gave him immense majorities at the elections. Why they did so, nobody now seems able to tell. All are now laughing or wondering over the affair as they might over a queer, grotesque dream.

The manner in which the affair has been exposed is as illustrative as the affair itself. Where but in France would one of Boulanger's attached adherents have exposed the inside workings of the movement as a service to the cause? Mermeix's letters in the *Figaro* have, every one admits, ruined both the Boulangists and the Monarchists; but Mermeix is nevertheless convinced that he has done the right thing in the right way. He was, and he says he is still, an ardent Boulangist, and is satisfied that the best service he can render his hero is to show that he is probably a charlatan himself, and that all those who surrounded him were charlatans too. Nobody seriously questions his statements, and yet nearly every Boulangist wants either to slap his face or spit in it. Consequently he has a numerous crop of duels on hand. He has fought five, and is now in bed of the fifth The funniest feature in this stage of the affair is that he likes the duels. He accepts all the challenges for which he can find time, and is not apparently the least afraid of being killed. They come to him very like an interview here. He is a journalist, and enjoys immensely the notoriety the affair has given him.

But why is he not afraid of being killed? This question has been answered by a competent French authority lately in the columns of the London *Speaker*. What he says is, that Frenchmen of intelligence have really come to recognize the absurdity of the duel as a means of settling disputes, but they find it so firmly embedded in the national manners that no man can safely refuse to fight. They have, therefore, as a sort of compromise, arranged that duels shall never be fatal except through some unfortunate accident, and to this end that the sword shall always be the weapon. But swords require skill, and there are very great inequalities in the skill of different swordsmen. Although nearly all Parisian Frenchmen practise fencing with more or less assiduity, yet we never, or hardly ever, hear of any Frenchman refusing a duel with swords, or choosing some other weapon on this account. Why is this? Simply because each feels sure that, no matter how awkward he may be, his adversary will take care not to kill him; and the more accomplished a swordsman the adversary is, the greater the safety in fighting him, because he is certain early in the fray to inflict on one of his opponent's arms the little scratch which enables the doctors to say that he has been put into a "condition d'infériorité absolue." That is, the rules provide that a man wounded, however slightly, is not fairly matched against a well man. This is now so well understood that the combatants go on the ground with the greatest cheerfulness, the only terror of the occasion being, to the impecunious party, the expense of taking his two seconds and the doctor in carriages to the field, and paying half the cost afterwards of a champagne breakfast at a restaurant. This last is *de rigueur*, unless the wound obliges the vanquished to take to his bed, which is very rare. Under these circumstances there is, of course, hardly any young fellow in journalistic or loafing cricles in Paris who does not want to fight, especially if can get up a quarrel with a man of some note. The *Figaro* says that the passion for going on the "terrain" is now so great that James Gordon Bennett is going to run a drag between Paris and Vesinet, with room for forty persons, to accommodate duellists. On each seat there will be room for one principal, two seconds, and a doctor. The inside will be arranged as an ambulance, with a priest in attendance.

But Mermeix has not fared very well in the affair. He received many challenges, but a man in his position naturally seeks to select such opponents as will bring him most éclat. Some he therefore refused, and those whom he slighted in this way had to take their satisfaction by calling him names in the street, or taking an occasional spit at his face. Others, again, whom he expected and wanted to challenge him, did not do so. In one way or another he got five satisfactory challenges, but three times out of these five he has, by some awkwardness on his own part, been wounded. Some of his enemies refused to meet him when challenged by him, and in his annoyance over this he made use of language which irritated a M. Dumonteil, of whom he had never heard before, as it put him (Dumonteil) in the category of "people who do not fight." In the ensuing duel, Mermeix charged awkwardly, and Dumonteil struck him in the chest by pure inadvertence; the blade passing near the heart, though in the regulation breast-wound the point glances off the breast-bone, or runs along the rib. On seeing the wound, the victor was nearly crazy with grief, but Mermeix was quite cheerful. He had, at the last accounts, only one other affair pending—with a M. Millevoye, his colleague in the Chamber. It was still uncertain whether Millevoye would fight or not. If he refuses, the Mermeix incident will be closed.

LIBRARIANS IN CONVENTION.

THE eleventh meeting of the American Library Association, held last month at Fabyan's, was better attended than any previous convention. Two hundred and fifty persons overtaxed the resources of the hotel, and, in the matter of crowding, women were treated worse than men. The President, Mr. F. M. Crunden of St. Louis, who, by the way, is an excellent presiding officer, discussed the past and future policy of the Association, offering important suggestions, and the Secretary followed in the same strain. It is evident that the policy—to which attention was called in our notes last year—of dividing into sections in which shall be grouped libraries of like interest, will be still further extended in the future. Already three States, New York, Iowa, and New Hampshire, have organized State associations. It will probably be found expedient in thickly settled States to have even greater subdivision. Massachusetts, for example, might have a general conference with headquarters at Boston, an Essex County conference with headquarters at Salem, a Central Massachusetts conference meeting at Worcester, and a Western Massachusetts conference meeting at Springfield. Each conference would come together two or three times a year to discuss a dinner and talk over plans for library improvement and library extension. This, in fact, is only adopting the method of some of the religious denominations.

A new feature was introduced this year which promises extensive results. Some one had the happy thought to make a strong effort to secure the attendance of trustees. Two or three have come in past years; this year twenty-eight appeared. They were among the most interested and enthusiastic persons present. At the suggestion of one of them, Mr. C. A. Hovey of Brookline, Mass., steps were taken, which seem likely to be successful, to raise a fund for the publications of the Society and other necessary expenses. This is a very important matter. Librarians are ready enough to coöperate in bibliographical and indexing work—their time they will give; but money they have not, and the publishing section has been obliged to turn away from important undertakings for want of a little money which would have insured publication. Another step was taken by the trustees: they prepared a circular to the vast body of absent trustees, assuring them, from their observation at the present meeting, that good work is done by the Association, and urging them to let their librarians come hereafter and to come themselves. The latter is not the least important recommendation.

We said, when the Library School was established, that it would be worth while to have a school for trustees as well as for librarians and their assistants. The ignorance of trustees about library matters is necessarily great. When appointed, they generally know absolutely nothing of library management, and sometimes very little of literature; and yet, because they have been elected by the town meeting or appointed by the City Council, and have the power, they at once feel themselves qualified to decide everything. If they are wise enough to secure a competent librarian and let him run the library under criticism, not as to details, but as to results, perhaps the less they know the better; for sometimes a little knowledge in a trustee is a dangerous thing. Competent librarians are not always to be had, though, thanks to the Library Association, and especially to the Library School, they are becoming more common. To select a librarian well, however, requires some knowledge of library affairs, and at least the feeling that the selection is a serious matter, and not to be governed by party association, or personal friendship, or charitable feeling. Then there are broad questions of library policy which must be decided by the Board, and broad questions of management on which the best librarian may be glad to have advice. Whatever, then, interests trustees in the science of the library, enlarges their views of its possibilities, and familiarizes them with the questions under discussion, will be in the end a great gain; and this will be the effect of the new movement.

Moreover, ignorance is not the only evil to be removed. Indifference is not unknown among trustees, and a want of faith in the higher educational work of libraries, born of ignorance and indifference. The trustees who come to the meetings of the Association must be already thoroughly interested, or they would not come; they will easily catch the enthusiastic spirit which has always been one of the characteristics of these meetings, and will diffuse it among their associates. They will also, perhaps, induce them to read the very well considered paper of Mr. C. C. Soule, himself a trustee, on the duties of trustees, and the bright papers of Miss H. E. Green of the Boston Athenæum on library experts, which digressed on to the same subject. A scholarly address by Dr. William T. Harris, the United States Commissioner of Education, and an amusing squib on antediluvian libraries by the Rev. Ernest C. Richardson, the new Librarian of Princeton, deserve especial mention; but all the papers and reports were good.

After the four days' conference, nearly one-fifth of the members took a coaching trip through the White Mountains. The weather, which in previous years has always been most propitious, this year gave nothing but clouds and rain. However, it cleared for a day at Boston, which was seen by nearly a hundred visitors in its best aspect. A dinner given to librarians by the publishers and booksellers closed the meeting, and produced a great sensation in the city, owing to some criticisms which Mr. Poole of the Chicago Newberry Library made on the new building of the Boston Public Library. The President of the Board of Trustees, who is understood to be chiefly responsible for the plans, replied in an interview; Mr. Poole rejoined in another; and the controversy, unfortunately, was not devoid of personalities.

We have never believed with Mr. Poole that his plan for a library is the only good one; but it has great merits. It is the old-fashioned mercantile-library plan, improved by making the building fire-proof, limiting the size of rooms to about fifty feet square, cutting the windows up to the ceiling, and never allowing books to be put higher than the hand can reach. These are all most excellent points, and we shall look with much interest to see how they are carried out, and what is the result in the Newberry Library. But there are other plans by which ventilation, light, and easy service can be obtained. The Boston Public Library may turn out to be a good one in a very different way. It is not of much use to criticise that building now. The roof is just going on, so that the main features are unalterable, and yet the interior is not enough finished to enable any one to decide what the practical results will be. Yet, as the discussion has been opened, a few remarks may be made.

To the observer from the outside, the lower story seems to have few windows, and one fears that it will be dark—a common, a serious, and a most unpardonable defect in libraries. The defenders urge that a fire-proof building must have small and few windows. The excuse will hardly hold good. In the front of the building is a large square which no body of flame could pass. On the sides, if the streets are so narrow that danger is apprehended, one would think that, unless there are to be suitable shutters, the building, to be fire-proof, should have no windows at all. One opening could admit a fire as well as fifty. And if there are suitable shutters, why not have windows enough and large enough to be serviceable? The architects allege that the windows, though few, are broad and high up, and that when the walls are whitened, the light will be sufficient. We hope it will be so, but may remark that few architects, judging from their buildings, know how much light is needed for long-continued reading. Window space is apparently calculated as if every day was sure to be cloudless and bright.

The book-stack, however, nobody expects to be light; it is intended to be lighted by electricity. There are, to be sure, seventy windows, but the wall space in which they occur is so vast that the light from them must be inadequate, especially as no attempt has been made to place them so that each would light one of the alleys between the book-cases; for it is plain that a window whose light falls upon the end of a book-case might almost as well be walled up. This seems to us to be a mistake. Of course the stack is not to be frequented by the public; but the attendants will go there to get books, and the librarians of the various departments must frequently have occasion to go to the shelves. Why make it needlessly hard for them? And why increase the cost of running the library, which will be large enough at best, by making it necessary to use electric light the greater part of the time? Fire-proofing is no reason, for the stack might have been well lighted from the inner court, whence there could not be any fear of fire. Nor is there any beauty there to be destroyed. A plain wall cut by 70 plain windows might as well be cut by 140 or 280 plain windows.

Probably the most distasteful of Mr. Poole's remarks was the assertion (which was not denied by Mr. Abbott of the Trustees), that the Trustees will be obliged to ask for more money to complete the building. But what of that? Every one knows—it is one of the commonplaces of the humorist—that buildings always cost more than the architect's estimate. The City Council must have known, when they voted $1,300,000 for the proposed library, that they would be called upon for half as much again before all was done; and the Council distinctly understood that it was voting for an architectural monument. The plans and models were publicly exhibited and commented upon for a long time; everybody saw that a great deal of money was to be spent for architectural and sculptural ornament. The previous plans, for which the piles had already been driven, were rejected, as we understood, not because they would have made a bad library (there are those who think the contrary), but on the express ground that the building was pretentious and commonplace, and would have been an architectural disgrace to the city, as people are now saying that the new Courthouse is. It may be that the Trustees were to blame for proposing so costly a building; but when the plans had once been accepted by the representatives of the people, they were not to blame for carrying them out.

AN OBJECT LESSON IN IRISH POLITICS.

TIPPERARY, September 26, 1890.

MR. BALFOUR hitherto has spent the vaca-

tion in golfing in Scotland. Since Parliament rose he has not visited the country over which he exercises autocratic sway, and for whose peace, order, and good government he is responsible. The prosecution of Mr. O'Brien, Mr. Dillon, and others has surprised all parties. It is difficult to guess the motive for this measure. To most persons it seems an egregious blunder. Only for the suffering it is likely to bring to trusted leaders, nothing has occurred for a long time more favorable to the Irish cause, more tending to arouse the people and consolidate the agitation. The Conservative theory has been latterly that, under a firm and wise rule, Ireland, emancipating herself from the tyranny of the National League, has been steadily settling down into peace and prosperity. Especially as regards Tipperary it has been contended that the tenants' combination was rapidly disintegrating. These theories are now exploded, and the Government partisans are face to face with the necessity of again recommencing the Sisyphean task of ruling by imprisonment and coercion. Early in the present Administration we were informed that twenty years of resolute and firm government would for ever solve the Irish problem. In the course of last session Lord Salisbury adjourned this consummation till the days of our grandchildren. When Parliament reopens, we shall doubtless hear of a further postponement. Many of Lord Salisbury's and Mr. Chamberlain's adherents must begin to surmise that, after all, it may be worth while to hear other councillors.

A few words will explain the position of affairs in Tipperary, leading up to the present prosecutions. For some years a land war raged between owner and occupiers on the Ponsonby estate, in the County of Cork. A settlement was about to be made through the purchase of their farms by the tenants, there remaining only a slight difference as to terms between buyers and seller, when a syndicate of landlords interfered, declared the owner was being compelled to take too low a price, and themselves purchased the estate. The tenants declared they could not pay the required rents; they were, after an exciting struggle, evicted, and some 6,000 acres have since then lain waste or been turned into cattle-runs. The head of this syndicate was supposed to be Mr. Smith Barry, whose principal Irish property lay in and around the town of Tipperary. Then came a new development of the agrarian agitation. Mr. O'Brien and Mr. Dillon appealed to these Smith Barry tenants, and called upon them to espouse the cause of the Ponsonby tenants, and refuse to pay rent to a man who had hindered an amicable settlement on an estate with which he had hitherto had nothing to do. Although Smith Barry had been considered on the whole a good landlord, his tenants answered the call, and stated that unless he washed his hands of the Ponsonby business, they would not pay him any more rent, but would let him do his worst. This entailed great sacrifices: the town was for the most part held on leases at low ground-rents, and many of the occupiers had expended thousands of pounds on their holdings. Tipperary threw itself into the contest. The managers arranged that, to prevent heavy losses and distress among numerous employees, some of the chief shopkeepers should be allowed to pay their rents and continue on as Smith Barry's tenants. But local feeling was against this; all must protest alike—the rich could stand loss better than the poor. The trade of these richer renters was boycotted so effectually that they were soon glad to make their peace and throw in their lot with the other tenants. No opposition was offered to eviction. A mart with shops, new houses, and streets was by public subscription built on adjacent property, for the accommodation of the evicted. Some emigrated, others—among them the proprietor of a small woollen mill, with plant and machinery—removed to neighboring towns, and old Tipperary now consists largely of closed shops and deserted dwellings.

Those who have not joined the combination struggle on, a subscription having been inaugurated by the landlord class for their assistance; and a great force of police and military has been drafted into the town—there being almost one armed man for every adult male inhabitant. All the important local leaders, clerical and lay, and all unknown visitors, have hitherto been "shadowed" by police, who never lose sight of them, and generally keep so close as to overhear conversation. Against the wishes and advice of the leaders, some outrages have occurred, happily, however, attended with no serious consequences. The police have shot one lad dead and wounded a few other persons. Most of the prosecutions and imprisonments of the last few years have been in some way connected with this Ponsonby-Smith Barry business.

It is generally supposed that the struggle has had the approval of only one section of the Irish party. Mr. Parnell has apparently remained neutral. For their recent vigorous support of the Tipperary contest, Mr. O'Brien, Mr. Dillon, and some other members of Parliament and local leaders are being prosecuted before two "removables." Mr. Morley and a few others, with some ladies and several members of Parliament, also two of the accused in custody, were in the train coming down from Dublin yesterday. We walked quietly up the town from the station. I never saw a more peaceful gathering or a more orderly street. A band of police were drawn up at a corner. As we passed, a cheer was raised for "Mr. Morley," and immediately the officer in charge cried: "This is a disorderly meeting; disperse it!" The police at once began to hustle us about. An English Member, unused to such proceedings, protested, and the officer, apparently somewhat cowed, called off the men. For the next hour there was no disturbance. Most exasperating to Irishmen is the cowardly Government policy of relaxing in despotism when English visitors are present.

Soon afterwards we walked to the court through perfectly peaceful streets. Small groups of the populace were about, and several of the more well-to-do inhabitants accompanied us. The street in front of the court-house was occupied by 150 armed police and soldiers, and a surgeon with an attendant carrying a box of medical and surgical appliances. The gate of the court-house was held by police, and admittance was denied to all except the accused and their advisers, with members of Parliament and press men. Mr. O'Brien and others objected to this exclusion of the people as distinctly illegal. The court was an open court, and the public had a right to enter as long as there was space for them. I looked in; there were scarcely half-a-dozen there, besides a score of police. There was room for 100 or more. Some persons insisting on their right to enter, a scuffle ensued between them and the police, who, behind cordons of their companions and the military, had to deal with only some fifty persons, all unarmed. The police drew their batons and felled men right and left. This was naturally resisted, but I saw no stones thrown. Mr. Harrison, one of the Members for the county, was bathed in his own blood—a shocking sight—and with others was taken to the surgeons to have the wounds dressed. Mainly on Mr. Morley's indignant and horrified protest, the officer was induced to reverse his insensate policy; the court then filled, proceedings commenced, and order was re-established.

This morning the gates were left open, every one that wished entered, and there was no disturbance of any kind. The conduct of the Government myrmidons was infamous. The executive is fully within its rights in taking such precautions as it may deem necessary for the preservation of the public peace; but in England and other free countries this right is exercised subject to the curb of public opinion and popular tribunals, while here no such restraints exist. In Ireland, Government may act arbitrarily; redress is out of the question. The police officer, in the course of the afternoon, refused point-blank to parade his men so that those who had inflicted wounds might be identified, with a view to legal proceedings. (It may be mentioned that when the police are employed on country duty, the numbers worn on their collars while they are on town duty are removed, to prevent identification.)

The accused are being tried before and by two removable magistrates on the delicate charge of conspiracy, which, in a freer English-speaking country, is safeguarded by the intervention of a jury. One of the magistrates on the present occasion is Mr. Shannon, who had charge of the police at Cashel last May, when, upon the visit of Mr. O'Brien and others, the people were without cause or justification cruelly batoned. He was then heard to remark to an officer over the troops, "We have batoned hell out of them." The second occupant of the bench has thrice already been selected by the Government to try Mr. O'Brien, and has each time convicted and sentenced him. The attorney conducting the case is a man of low character, guilty of several crimes of omission and commission, who has rendered himself too valuable to the Government for his services to be dispensed with. There is much of the tear and the smile, something of the farcical, in this Irish struggle. To-day, during the Crown counsel's opening address, several of the accused, their advocates and friends, left the court and spent a few hours exploring the beauties of the surrounding country, followed by carfuls of shadowing police. These prosecutions, and the way in which they are carried on, end all questioning as to the wisdom or mistake, the right or wrong, in the Ponsonby-Smith Barry dispute; the whole National party and National feeling at home and abroad will now be thrown into the struggle.

Surely this state of things cannot be allowed much longer to proceed in Ireland. Returning after long absences in England and Scotland, I am renewedly struck by the grimness of the situation, the demoralization and confusion of the results all round. It were better that all pretences should be laid aside, and one course or the other unreservedly and definitely adopted by the British people. Either the Irish at home are different from the Irish abroad and from all other Anglo-Saxon and Celtic races, and should be ruled to their own inevitable injury, for the supposed benefit of the Empire, by force, or they should be trusted to know their own interest, and liberated to act for their own welfare and learn by their own mistakes. Is Ireland to be ruled in the interests of the few or of the many? The Irish people feel that they are engaged in no ordinary political struggle for place or power: the very existence of a nation is believed to be at stake; and if there be no speedy, reasonable

settlement, the world must face a continuation of a disgraceful anachronism in a so-called civilized empire at the end of this nineteenth Christian century.

CATHEDRAL AND OTHER ENGLISH LIBRARIES.

ROWSLEY, DERBYSHIRE, Sept. 26, 1890.

I HAVE recently taken a look at the Cathedral libraries at York, Lincoln, Ely, and Lichfield. Those who are familiar with Dr. Dexter's Bibliography of Congregationalism will know what interest the Chapter Library at York has for the student of our early ecclesiastical history, particularly that of New England. I found Canon Raine helpful in all that gives interest to York, for he is the leading spirit of its Roman and antiquarian museums, as well as the librarian of the Chapter, and this library is not unused by the literary workers of the neighborhood. It has its undue proportion of the old folios of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, if one has an eye for the literature most serviceable to the modern scholar; but the lover of the work of the early presses finds much to engage his attention, and Canon Raine proved an excellent mentor in my inquiries. At Lincoln as at Ely, I found that the muniments of the see had been well cared for and arranged by a local student of palæography, whose fitness for the work had been well recognized by their respective bishops. The student could enter upon inquiries with ease, and all the parchments were carefully labelled and boxed. At Lincoln, the library was a little dismal and crowded, but one of the vicar priests who had the collection in charge, is putting it in good order. The Dean, who showed it to me, told feelingly the story of Dibdin's pillage of it to enrich Althorpe with Caxtons and Wynkin de Wordes, since the keepers of those days recognized little difference in value in the modern books which Dibdin gave in exchange. What they have left of Caxton is a poor show compared with what they then lost. The two imprints of the earliest English printer which they still retain, were probably scorned by Dibdin for their imperfections. Ely, where the records were so well cared for, has not much to show for a library. The collection in the Bishop's palace, apart from the private library of Lord Alwyn Compton, the present Bishop, is an heirloom from an earlier bishop, but not, I should judge, of great value.

At Lichfield there was much of interest. The library of the Dean and Chapter suffered destruction in the days of the Civil War, when Cromwell battered the central tower to its fall; and the collection now housed in a room over the Chapter-house owes its restoration to the famous Duchess of Sbrewsbury, whose portrait they preserve on the walls. Fortunately the muniments were in other quarters at the time and were not hurt, and some of the more curious, like a manuscript of their patron, Saint Chad, are now kept under glass in the library, where they have already arranged a collection of royal orders respecting the see, from King John down, with their great seals attached, and in excellent order, since they have been cleaned by the experts at the British Museum. It is not long since all these parchments were in an unassorted mass, but a few years ago the revived interest in muniments led to their assortment and rearrangement; and what gives an additional value to them is, that the Archæological Society of Stafford has, under the care of Dr. Coxe, printed a complete calendar of them.

In the library two things particularly interested me. One was a contemporary copy on parchment of Chaucer's 'Canterbury Tales,' beautifully illuminated and preserved in much of its original freshness. The other was a volume of sermons of the seventeenth century which Dr. Johnson had used in making his dictionary. He had, with a black lead-pencil, underscored the words which he wished to use. Against each word in the margin he had written its initial letter. Each of these was ticked through by his amanuensis as he had copied them for the printer. Mr. Timmins of Arley has another such marked book, and these two are the only ones that I have heard of.

I have not seen of late anything remarkable in private libraries. I found Dean Butler at Lincoln in his library, working over some of the early parchments which he had brought from the muniment-room, and surrounded by a working collection of books, and ready to put his hand on anything illustrative of the beautiful cathedral in which he takes so much pride. The Bishop of Ely was absent when I was there, but I had seen him at the Deanery in Lincoln, and his chaplain took me into the charming working-place of the Bishop's studious hours. I was sorry to miss Sir James Lecaita at Chatsworth, since there was no one but servants at the house. So I failed of seeing some of the choice Americana of its beautiful library. American students have been able to take the measure of that collection since Sir James, the Duke's librarian, a few years ago, compiled the four large volumes which constitute its printed catalogue, with which some of the principal American libraries were favored at the time of its completion. The ordinary visitor is conducted through some of the galleries which contain some of the long serial publications, but the library is classed with the private apartments. I noted casually a few Shaksperian books, like Halliwell's great folios; but it is in the distinct collection at Devonshire House in London that the famous Shakspere rarities are kept, and there is little at Chatsworth to interest the bibliographer of Shakspere.

I spent last week at Reading, in attendance upon the thirteenth annual meeting of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, at which about 150 of the librarians of the British Isles were present, under the presidency of Mr. Maunde Thompson, the principal librarian of the British Museum. I was present in 1877, in London, when, as a conclusion to the international conference of librarians then held in that city, the association was formed, and a former head of the Museum, Mr. Winter Jones, was made its first President. Ever since then it has had its annual meeting, and, all the great towns having entertained them, it devolved upon Reading as a representative of the smaller municipalities to give them welcome this year; and the Association, so far as festivities were concerned, suffered little from the change. Everything was done to make that part of the day not given to business pass agreeably. The members, with their attendant ladies—for I think there was not a single woman librarian present—were entertained every day at lunch in the Town Hall, and at evening receptions given in the municipal apartments by the Mayor.

One day we all went on "brakes" to the Roman ruins of Silchester, where we found the workmen of the Royal Society of Antiquaries just uncovering a tessellated pavement. Mr. Fox, representing that Society, explained everything. A long stretch of the original walls are still standing, overrun with tangled creepers and enclasped by the roots of many trees. The gates have been unearthed, and we were enabled easily to comprehend their plans of defence. One of the finest collections of Roman and early English coins which I have seen is one formed by a gentleman at Wallingford, whom we visited on another day, and who could show us a collection in some ways superior to that of the British Museum, and gathered from the neighboring soil of this peculiarly Roman region of Berks.

Another day we were given a five o'clock tea almost under the shade of the trees surrounding the parish church at Eversley, with its neighboring rectory, and hard by the grave of Charles Kingsley; and we listened with attention while a gentleman of the neighborhood lovingly recounted the story of Kingsley's life and pictured him as his neighbors knew him.

Another day we went in a flotilla of steam launches up the Thames, lunched on the banks near the old dikes of Dorchester, and took our five o'clock tea as we came down the river at Wallingford Castle, where the owner of the private residence within the grounds of the old castle hospitably entertained us. The vicar of the parish made the old story of the ruin real as we rambled with him over its keep and the surrounding parts.

As a conclusion of the week's work the librarians dined together in the Town Hall, and their American guest said what he could in conveying the congratulations of the brothers of the craft who work beyond the sea.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

Correspondence.

THE "CORRESPONDENCE UNIVERSITY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The founders of the so-called "Correspondence University" will perhaps be shocked to learn that their names have been used to further a fraud. A number of letters have recently been placed in my hands which clearly show the present status of this remarkable institution. The moving spirit is one who signs himself "F. W. Harkins, A.M., Ph.D." His headquarters is at No. 147 Throop Street, Chicago. His object appears to be to entrap clergymen and teachers into paying for degrees and membership. The letters before me were received by clergymen, one in Pennsylvania, the other in Maine, both in small places. The Rev. A. B., having noticed somewhere an advertisement of the paper called the *Union Reading Circle*, wrote for a copy. He received this reply:

DEAR SIR: In reply to yours of recent date, we mail you a copy of our *Union Reading Circle*, in which you will find full information of our plan and methods. If you wish a degree, you should reply at once, and give in detail the history of your education and claims for a degree, as new rules are soon to go into effect nearly doubling the present requirements. Such information will enable me to judge as to your likelihood of getting the degree, but does not constitute an application. We are graduating as post-graduates some of the best scholars, college presidents and professors, and professional gentlemen in the United States, our latest being the assistant pastor of ——. We shall be glad to appoint you an assistant professor and examiner in your region, but all such must be our graduates in some one degree.

Awaiting an early reply, I remain, very truly yours, F. W. HARKINS.

P. S.—Please state your degrees and dates of graduation.

To this the Rev. A. B. replied, saying he would

enter and take a course leading to the degree of Ph.D. The answer is here given:

DEAR SIR: Your esteemed favor is at hand and contents noted. I write immediately, as so little time now remains [eight days intervened between the former letter and this one] to act in, if you care to secure the degree of Ph.D. from this University, unless you can spend two years in the work of some one department. Our professors being quite conservative, and feeling that our great success warrants their action, have annually raised the standard of their requirements for graduation, and the last action actually added a year's attendance on our University, the requirement being heretofore only one year in some one study. This has seemed to me very severe, but I know it only increases the value of diplomas already issued and to come. Our graduates are first-class without exception, being mainly teachers, superintendents, professional and literary men. The post-graduates are graduates of the best institutions of the United States. Indeed, the accompanying list proves that no American institution can boast of a finer corps of graduates, and none of [our] graduates has ever expressed anything but the highest satisfaction with the result.

However, in order to avoid doing an injustice to several students, the time for effecting the change was put off until July 3, and it was voted to allow all applications filed before July 8, 1889, to come under the old rule requiring but one year's attendance, and, at the discretion of the Council, to consider the year's attendance to be complete if the student pursued some one branch until September 30 next. This makes a remarkable opportunity, if one can take advantage of it, for after July 8 next no one can graduate unless he has been connected with this University two years, and has paid in tuition fees alone at least $50 as shown by the Treasurer's books.

Accordingly, if you wish the degree of Ph.D., I would advise you to complete an application at once as per enclosed rules. Sign the enclosed blank form and remit to me the sum of $25 as a deposit of the graduation fee, and either $25 for tuition fee or a note for the same due in sixty days. (We no longer charge a matriculation fee of $25, as do most colleges, especially of post-graduates.) On receipt of these fees, amounting in all to $50 as a total cost to you, I will file your application for action by our Council of Graduation. This meets next time Saturday, June 29, and weekly thereafter. All applications should be in before July 8. Now, although Chairman of the Council, I do not wish to anticipate their action, and will not guarantee you a degree; but as I wish to have as many worthy graduates as possible by July 8, I will agree to recommend your application, if all is as your letter states, and secure you a degree in every proper way consistent with my office. I am satisfied of your worthiness, for although some technical deficiencies exist, I am disposed to waive them in view of your professional ability and culture, which, in my estimation, are far more essential than mere routine work. Technicalities are less than merit.

Of course, should you not get a degree, I guarantee that your deposit and tuition fee shall be returned to you at once, as is our rule. As to the study, you can choose any subject you please, and all you have to do is to satisfy me that you have done fair work during the next three months in the subject. I forgot to say a thesis on the subject chosen must be handed in by September 30. This, however, need not be new, but must be scholarly. Our degrees are given for merit only; we grant no mere honorary degrees whatever. You will observe that although modelled after the famous London university, this university not only grants degrees, but teaches by correspondence, and has local schools in this city—features that the University of Cambridge, Eng and, has lately approved by imitating. Graduates do not need to come to Chicago to graduate, as their diplomas will be sent to them. On graduation I shall be pleased to have you appointed Assistant Professor and Examiner for your region. All such must be our graduates in one degree. Awaiting your reply and trusting I may serve you,

I am very truly yours,
F. W. HARKINS, President.

Again the Rev. A. B. wrote, saying he could not pay so much money for a degree. Then came the following:

DEAR SIR: Your esteemed favor of July 1 was duly received and carefully noted. I answer it somewhat tardily [July 7] owing to extreme pressure of correspondence and other duties incident to this season of the year. I trust my delay has not affected your ardor or altered your determination. It will not work any injustice to you, as I am allowed under the old rule a month's grace to file your application on account of this delay. In view of what you say as to the financial question, I will make you this proposition: If you will send me $5 cash to guard against actual loss to the University, I will agree to accept your notes for the remaining fees for any convenient time, and also agree that no charge shall be made against you for more than $25, unless payable out of fees due you as Assistant Professor and Examiner. This will comply with our rules and at the same time show my faith in our work, based on the fact that many of our graduates have made graduation a profitable investment financially as well as otherwise.

Hoping that this will be entirely satisfactory to you, and that I shall receive your application within the time allowed me, I am,

Very truly yours, F. W. HARKINS.

These letters need no comment. The fraud attempted in this case has been successful in others. A printed list of the names of those upon whom degrees have been conferred is enclosed in one of the letters of "President Harkins," from which it appears that a number of clergymen and teachers have been caught. Poor souls! Can we wonder that the bunco-steerer still finds victims?

During the present year another clergyman, personally known to me, received a letter which shows that "President Harkins, A.M., Ph.D." is still conducting business at the old stand, 147 Throop St., Chicago, but that he is now "Chancellor of the National University." According to the new letter-head, this great University consists of "forty-five departments, conducted by eminent professors of universities, colleges, etc., affording instruction to 'any person in any study,' through direct correspondence." Of course the "Chancellor" is at his old game, but he has modified his plan somewhat. He is still prepared to confer degrees of all kinds, even including "Master of Accounts," but he also hopes to secure a number of five-dollar fees from those who wish to become fellows of the National University. Any one desiring to become a "F.N.U." need only send the following application signed to the "Chancellor," enclosing ten dollars:

"I, the undersigned, being heartily interested in the education of the people, and desiring to do what I can to advance all good plans for accomplishing this worthy end, hereby make application to be made a Fellow of the National University, and inclose the necessary fees (five dollars for a Certificate of Fellowship and five dollars for the annual subscription to the Library Fund for the year . . . .), subject to these fees being returned to me should I not be admitted a Fellow of the University, and not otherwise.

"Signed ——————."

The "Chancellor's" circular informs us that "hereafter all University graduates and graduates of first-class colleges, and others eminent in Science, Literature, or Art will be eligible for election as Fellows of this University. The rank and title conferred will be F.N.U., duly certified to under the seal of the University."

Is this not a case for the law? In any event, it is desirable that the "Chancellor" should be shown up as quickly as possible, and to this end I ask your aid.—Yours truly,

IRA REMSEN.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
BALTIMORE, September 27, 1890.

SUNDAY-SCHOOLS AND CONVICTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not possible that some of your recent correspondents are mistaken as to the actual situation with reference to Sunday-school teaching? May it not be that most of us who teach in these schools do actually have the courage of our convictions, and teach just what we believe? Teaching in a Sunday-school is a voluntary service, requiring punctual attendance, and taking considerable time, which those engaged in it could easily spend profitably in some other manner. Under such circumstances there are comparatively few who would find any sufficient motive to spend the time and mental effort in teaching what they do not positively believe to be truth, and important truth.

Of course not one in a hundred has had any opportunity to investigate seriously the results of what is generally known as the "higher criticism." The great majority base their belief or disbelief on evidence of other kinds, and must continue so to do for long years to come. Of those who are versed in the literature of recent Biblical criticism, some have doubtless had their faith weakened, others have had it strengthened, and many others do not profess to have had any faith to begin with. Now, of any or of all of these classes we submit that it is unfair to assume that any considerable proportion is gratuitously engaged in teaching to children what is believed to be false. No man could do so and retain his self-respect—a thing which most people do not care to sacrifice without some strong motive; nor could any one do so and not be compelled to recognize that his own moral conduct was far below the ideal held up in the writings whose claim to more than human sanction he held to be false. For the Sunday-school teacher whose views of the Bible have so changed that he cannot teach just what he believes without trouble, there is the easy resort of resignation. If the tendency of "higher criticism" on the character is such as to make hypocrites of those who accept its destructive conclusions, then for the good of *this* world, to say nothing of the next, such criticism should be discouraged by all who are interested in the present welfare of humanity. Let us rather believe, whatever our opinion of the claim of the Bible to divine origin, that those who are engaged in teaching it are honest men.

W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "A. F. H.'s" advice to all teachers who have got hold of the higher criticism, or whom the higher criticism has gotten hold of, to quit the Sunday-school, seems rather rash. For one who might be put into that class, I do not find any difficulty in teaching in the Sunday-school, and have not felt called upon to teach what I do not believe. A careful reading of such a conservative paper as the *Sunday-School Times* might show "A. F. H." that a good many of its contributors would have run the risk of the stake in the days of Bruno and Servetus. The world moves—even the Sunday-school world. If Franz Delitzsch could teach in the Sunday-school, why may not many another "higher critic"?

Why a man who loves righteousness, who has something of the spirit in him that was in the lofty minds of the Hebrew race, may not attempt to infuse that spirit into the youth of his own race by reading and commenting on the Old Testament, I cannot see. At least, do not let us advise all those who have a scientific interest in the Hebrew literature, as well as a desire to inculcate the highest truths of religion, to forego the latter because they have got more light on certain questions of Biblical criticism than their fathers had. No; let "B. E. H." keep his place in the Sunday-school as long as he feels within him the burning desire to be righteous and to teach others to be righteous. B.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "A. F. H.," in the *Nation* of September 25, in commenting on "B. E. H.'s" letter two weeks before, seems to have shifted the issue to quite another question. "B. E. H." had taken the ground that we should be candid with the children of the Sunday-school, and not, either directly or by inevitable inference from our silence, teach them what we have ceased to believe; but his critic raises and discusses a very different question, namely, whether we should teach in the Sunday-school *what we do believe* if the children are as yet too young to appreciate the grounds of the belief. This is quite another question, but one worth discussing, and I beg, as a Unitarian minister and Sunday-school superintendent, to say a word on the other side.

Everything depends on the *attitude* towards the children. We agree that we are never, by word or by silence, to teach what we do not believe. But are we never to teach, on what must be *provisionally* bare authority, what we do believe, and what we believe has the warrant of the strongest evidence attainable outside of the mathematics? To say no, will place us in an awkward position on some other questions. The mother, then, must not care for her babe, the parents for their growing children, till these are able to understand the grounds for what is done. The science of one mind or generation can never get far beyond that of its predecessors because it can take nothing for granted, cannot enter into the inheritance of past generations as heir of all the ages, and build on their achievements, but must go back and start from the foundations again.

We see the absurdity of this in other directions; why do we fail to see it in theology or the science of religion? Why may I, if familiar with the evidence, say to a child, "Such and such facts are established in physics, or such and such are the laws of chemical combination; and you are to accept this until you are ready to examine the evidence," and not tell him, on grounds satisfactory to me, "A large part, certainly, of the stories in the Bible once held to be true are now to be taken as untrue"?

Two objections may be urged: (1) Why teach a child what he is too young to appreciate the argument for? To which it may be replied by asking another question, Why do for the babe according to our best but fallible wisdom during the months when it knows practically nothing? (2.) That it is unfair to bias the child's mind in the direction even of what we believe to be true. But life, and especially school life, is full, and, according to nature's own plan, it should seem, must be full, of such biassing; and to abandon it must be to reduce the child's instruction to a pitiful modicum, and, indeed, to stunt the very faculties and the mental grasp by which he may one day put these Q. E. D.'s to the test.

For, as I have hinted, the authority claimed was but *provisional*, and this fact must be in the forefront of our address to the children. The child has to take a good deal on the bare word of the pianist who is teaching it the rudiments of his art, but by and by it can put the instruction to the test. The fault we find with the Roman Catholic system is, not that it teaches the children with authority, for it must so teach them if it teaches at all, but that that authority *is never relaxed* till the hoary head drops into the grave. It ignores what the Apostle kept steadily in view, that those once children in years and in understanding ought one day to be treated as having come to maturity.

Therefore we will say to the children in the Sunday-school, as we should do in like case in the week-day school, "What we teach you about the Bible is not indeed (much of it) as certain as that 2 and 2 are 4, and there are learned men who take a different view; but to us the stronger evidence seems to favor this view. By and by you may weigh the evidence and judge for yourselves."

We Unitarians, then, do not admit that "criticism and the Sunday-school are incompatible," nor that Sunday-school teaching must be "disingenuous."—Respectfully yours,

H. D. C.

Eastport, Me., September 29, 1890.

THE BLIZZARD FOSSILS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A note on page 170 of the *Nation*, No. 1313, speaks of a novel suggestion made by Dr. Nehring in the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift*, in which he attributes the cause of certain deposits of fossils to the "fossil blizzards." It is gratifying to me to know that an authority of such eminence has come to the conclusions there set forth, especially so since they confirm so emphatically what I had with some hesitation put forward some years ago on the same subject. My reasons for referring to the matter again are found in present interest as to the formation of the "bone beds," and in the question of priority in discovery of "the theory of blizzard fossils."

My first published mention of the matter occurs in the Annual Report of the Curator of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy to the President and Fellows of Harvard College for 1881-82, p. 16. It was published in September, 1882, shortly after my return from an expedition to the "Bad Lands" of Dakota, where I had seen in close proximity the bone-beds of the tertiary formations and those formed by the blizzards of 1881 and 1882. The reference in the report relates specially to the several genera of horses, of one to several toes.

"The more recent of these were found in such situations as to suggest the cause of extinction to have been a very severe winter, much more extensive and severe than those that occasionally, at long periods, are met with in the same section of country in modern times. If a winter so severe as to sweep away the cattle and horses were to visit the region, it would leave their remains crowded together in cañons, gulleys, ravines, and other sheltered places in the 'Bad Lands,' very much as the Pliocene mammals are found."

A few weeks later, the subject was brought before a meeting of the Boston Society of Natural History, of which I have not the report at hand. At this meeting, attention was called to particular bone basins formed of cattle in the Medicine Bow and Elk Mountain sections, and others of bisons, apparently from similar cause, in one of the parks.

In *Nature* of February 1, 1883, p. 313, in a letter on "A Possible Cause of the Extinction of the Horses of the Post-Tertiary," the instances were again mentioned, and the letter ended with the quotation given below, which will leave no doubt as to the cause assigned:

"Sections in the Post-Tertiary beds here and there disclosed groups or herds of fossil horses (*Equus*) in circumstances so similar as to leave no alternative to the conclusion that the same causes had filled the bone basins in the olden and most recent time. Stripped of the strata above them, the contour of the surface would have been similar, and the old-time coyotes in their feasting had evidently brought about an equal amount of confusion in the remains. About the time of the deposition of these fossils the horses became extinct. *Why*, is still an open question. Such evidence as was gathered there has led to the belief that, in that region, at least, occasional 'cold waves' of days—perhaps weeks—in duration, with deep snows, caused, or were the principal causes of, the extermination of the horses. Other causes that may be suggested are these: lack of water and an extended glacial period. A consideration of the character of the deposits, the drainage of the mountains at the time, the absence in these beds of proof of a glacial period affecting them since, and the continued existence in the same locality of other creatures, somewhat less sensitive to cold, would seem to be sufficient objections to their acceptance. The tradition of the Indians that there is a winter of terrible destruction to the animals once or twice in the lifetime of man—say once in about forty years—appears to be confirmed by the testimony of the whites. A few degrees or a few days added to the measure of the 'wave' or 'blizzard,' and a few inches added to the depth of the snow, would suffice to sweep the herds from the pastures. Weather of this character is a possibility every winter in the Bad Lands, though we hardly expect it. Apparently the rocks contain evidence of such weather in Post-Tertiary times. And it may not have differed so very much from that we are having to-day."

Unless Dr. Nehring has made earlier publication than that noticed, the first discovery of the theory of blizzard fossils can hardly be claimed for him. S. Garman.

Cambridge, October 3, 1890.

THE CENSUS IN THE KITCHEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of September 18 you express objections to the acceptance of returns in the household census from a servant of the family. Will it not improve the statistics and tend towards the elevation of the lower classes? The statistics and classifications of the family of which I am a member were given by the cook, who returned herself as "boarder."

O. P.

San Francisco, September 30, 1890.

THE CORRUPTION OF FAMILY NAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a certain county of Kentucky lives a family known in their neighborhood by the name of Bat. The father is called "Jim Bat," while among the children are "Henry Bat," "Medley Bat," "Emma Bat," "Lee Bat," "Cora Bat," and others. Many of the people of the vicinity are not aware that the family owns another patronymic. On investigation, however, it may be learned that the true surname is Cansler. It appears that a generation ago the Cansler family was numerous in that part of the country, and that, in accordance with the Southern fondness for certain Christian names, the name of "James" was bestowed upon several of the children in the various branches. When the boys grew up, it became necessary to distinguish them by familiar titles, such as "Big Jim Cansler," "Red-headed Jim," etc. For some years a certain James Cansler lived alone, keeping "bachelor's hall," and thus acquired the distinctive appellation, "Jim Bach," which was soon modified into

the more euphonious "Jim Bat." This name has clung to him to this day, notwithstanding his marriage, and has thus descended to his children.

This case seems somewhat analogous to that of the Enroughty family, reported in the *Nation* a few years ago, which excited a wide interest in the subject of the local corruption of family names. JOHN CLARENCE LEE.

GALESBURG, ILL.

HYPHENATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I had just written an article about this matter when to-day I received the *Nation* for September 25, containing substantially the same statement from Mr. William W. Anderson as I had made in mine. I now throw my article into the waste-basket, but briefly state that I have for the last six years used the two hyphens in some of my books, especially in my treatise on Banking (written in Icelandic), and in my translation (into Icelandic) of Stuart Mill's book on Liberty.

I will further add that the introduction of the German double hyphen, besides unnecessarily annoying the compositor by adding a new box to his case, does not answer the purpose in any way better than the repeating of the hyphen at the beginning of the line.

JON OLAFSSON.

WINNIPEG, September 29, 1890.

Notes.

MR. PAUL LEICESTER FORD of 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., being engaged in the preparation of an edition of the writings of Thomas Jefferson, and desiring to make it as complete as possible, requests that any one possessing any of Jefferson's letters or manuscripts will communicate with him. Or if such persons will either loan these to Mr. Ford for a few days, he will guarantee their safe return; or, if they will have them copied at his expense, and will enclose a bill, he will gladly pay for the copying, and give due credit for such assistance in the work.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'Modern Ghosts,' selected from Continental fiction; 'London Letters, and Some Others,' by George W. Smalley; 'Curiosities of the American Stage,' by Laurence Hutton; 'Christmas in Song, Sketch and Story'; 'A Selection from the Sonnets of Wordsworth,' illustrated by Alfred Parsons; Daudet's 'Port Tarascon,' in Henry James's translation; 'Strolls by Starlight and Sunshine,' by W. Hamilton Gibson; 'A Boy's Town,' being an autobiographic boy's story by W. D. Howells; and 'The Tsar and his People; or Social Life in Russia.'

New and cheaper editions of the late Eugene Schuyler's 'Peter the Great' and of Prof. N. S. Shaler's 'Aspects of the Earth' are announced by Charles Scribner's Sons, who have also under way 'The Lion's Club, and Other Verse,' by Richard Henry Stoddard; 'A Little Brother of the Rich, and Other Verses,' by Edward S. Martin; 'In the Footprints of Charles Lamb,' by Benjamin Ellis Martin; a 'Life of John Ericsson,' by Col. Wm. C. Church, in two volumes; 'Electricity in Daily Life'; 'How the Other Half Lives,' by Jacob A. Riis; and 'In Scripture Lands,' by Edward L. Wilson.

G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their previous announcements 'Cabin and Plantation Lays as Sung by the Hampton Students,' arranged by Thomas P. Fenner and S. G. Rathbun; 'English Fairy Tales,' collected by Joseph Jacobs; 'The Vikings in Western Christendom,' by C. F. Keary; and 'Under Orders, or the Trials and Triumphs of a Young Reporter,' by Kirk Munroe.

Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer has edited, in notable collaboration with her own sex, 'Woman's Work in America,' which will be published by Henry Holt & Co. The several chapters touch on achievement in education, literature, journalism, medicine, politics, law, industry, and philanthropy.

D. Appleton & Co. issue this month the seventh and eighth volumes of Lecky's 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century,' and 'The Life of an Artist,' being a translation of the autobiography of Jules Breton, by Mary J. Serrano.

Justin McCarthy's 'From Charing Cross to St. Paul's,' illustrated by Joseph Pennell, will have the imprint of Macmillan & Co.

Charles E. Merrill & Co. have arranged with Mr. Ruskin's English publisher for the sole authorized edition of his works in this country, to be termed "The Brantwood Edition." To each volume an introduction will be furnished by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish shortly 'Gospel Stories,' by Count Tolstoi; 'A Web of Gold,' by Miss Katharine Pearson Woods, author of 'Metzerott, Shoemaker'; and limited *éditions de luxe* of 'Tom Brown at Rugby' and 'Jane Eyre.'

'Millionaires of a Day,' an inside history of the great Southern California boom, by Theodore S. Van Dyke, and 'Murvale Eastman, Christian Socialist,' by Albion W. Tourgée, will be published during the present month by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Mr. H. C. Bunner's recent stories in *Puck* are to be brought out in book form under the title, 'Short Sixes.'

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready a second series of the 'Handbook of Biblical Difficulties.'

The third edition of Prof. Garnett's translation of 'Beowulf' (Ginn & Co.) will be accompanied by considerable additions to the bibliography.

The house of G. J. Göschen, Stuttgart, will soon issue 'Aus drei Ländern,' social pictures of Russia, France, and Germany, by Olga Wohlbrück, of the well-known family of German players.

The 'German Newspaper Directory' of Tobias Bros., New York, is a little thing for the side-pocket; but its statistical information is interesting. In the United States and Canada there are 774 newspapers published in the German language, exclusive of such as do not admit advertisements. The oldest, the *Gazette* of York, Pa., was founded in 1795. The totals which follow, and the names and order of States are curious: New York 117, Ohio 105, Pennsylvania 85, Illinois 85, Wisconsin 82.

Mr. G. J. Smith of the Washington English High School has prepared a tabulated 'Synopsis of English and American Literature' (Boston: Ginn) for the use of schools. It consists of dates of important events printed in parallel columns with the names and works of authors arranged topically; the poets in one group, the essayists in another, etc. There are over 100 pages. Comment is of the slightest, both in amount and value. Nothing more is aimed at than a table. In such a work there will always be some difference as to the names to be included in the case of minor writers; but Mr. Smith seems to have used good handbooks and has made no notable omissions. In the American department the standard is very much lower than in the English, as was natural, but it is to be regretted that this lack of discrimination between real and transitory worth should impair the value of the list of books recommended for popular reading.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are the American publishers of Mr. E. Conder Gray's 'Making the Best of Things, and Other Essays,' originally published under the title 'Idle Musings' (which now appears as a sub-title only), and noticed by us at the time of its first issue.

We have received from John Wiley & Sons two new mathematical treatises of more than ordinary interest. One is 'An Introduction to the Logic of Algebra, with Illustrative Exercises,' by Ellery W. Davis, Ph.D. (Johns Hopkins), Professor of Mathematics in the University of South Carolina. The book is, in one sense, not very extensive, containing only 119 pages, although these are of large octavo size; but the exceedingly abstract and condensed form in which everything is presented enables the author to cover a great range of investigation. The work is evidently the result of a vast deal of patient thought, and presents everything it treats in that form which seems most satisfactory to the author's own mind. Few, however, except professional mathematicians, could read the greater part of the book with profit, and they would often ask themselves the question, Is there not some easier and yet equally strict and scientific manner of treating the subject in hand? Yet such readers will find the book well worthy of study as the product of a mind of great mathematical power.

The other book is a treatise on 'Elliptic Functions,' by Prof. Arthur L. Baker of the Stevens Institute. The subject is one that has taxed to the utmost the powers of the mathematical giants of the last and the present century, Euler, Lagrange, Legendre, Jacobi, Cayley, and others. Prof. Baker calls his treatise "An Elementary Text-book for Students of Mathematics"; but the most elementary treatment of a subject which may be characterized as the highest development of the Integral Calculus, will necessarily be intelligible to only a small class. Too high praise cannot be given to the publishers for the mechanical execution of both these books.

The twentieth number of the Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age* (Philadelphia: Edward Roth) concludes the division of Literary Criticism, and embraces the whole of Metaphysics and Science. The next number, to be looked for presently, will complete Vol. I. Vol. II. will be issued rapidly during the coming year.

The second annual issue of *Academy Architecture* (New York: William Mueller) retains the original features of selections from the most prominent architectural drawings hung at the Royal Academy Exhibition, and of illustrations of English and Continental designs or buildings of recent years. In the first section we have samples of the drawings of Norman Shaw, and other lesser lights of the profession for civil, ecclesiastical, and domestic erections, including a project of a high relief by Charles B. Lawes, representing the United States of America, with several attributes, as, Liberty, Peace, Commerce, Indians, The Extinction of Slavery, etc. In the section called "Annual Architectural Review," we meet with important edifices by Mr. Waterhouse, a hall and a villa by Charles Garnier, a variety of Flemish and German town halls, Beltrami's accepted façade for the Milan Duomo, Swedish and Russian constructions, the Imperial Opera-house at Budapest, the Imperial Court Museum at Vienna, etc. Among all these, it need hardly be said, there are not a few warning examples.

We have received in four parts the sixteenth volume of Proceedings of the United States Naval Institute at Annapolis. For the layman the most readable is Commander Henry Glass's humane paper on "Naval Administration in Alaska"—a leaf from his experience ten years ago in imposing civilization on a people neglected by Congress. The raid upon molasses stills, the enforcement of compulsory attendance at school, the healing a bloody hereditary feud between tribes, the overawing of miners until they came to prefer the "naval administration of justice" to any other—is all very simply but effectively related. It was even necessary to make a formal abolition of slavery, and to give immediate effect to it without compensation.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider, in his Providence *Book Notes* for September 27, begins an elaborate historical exposure of "The Great Land Conspiracy of the Seventeenth Century in Rhode Island," of which the first chapter is the William Harris lawsuit.

Mr. Henry F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, are again brilliant as touching famous American characters or families. He gives the will of Capt. George Popham, President of the Popham Colony; that of the mother of Samuel Gorton's wife, whose Christian and probably family names are thus discovered; that of Richard Seymor, husband of a hitherto unknown sister of Lawrence Washington, Rector of Purleigh. Other testaments besides these throw important light upon the families of Somers, Kent (of Newbury, Mass.), Whitehead (of Windsor, Conn.), Whipple (of Ipswich, Mass.), Spencer (of Salem, Mass.), Hooker (of Hartford, Conn.), the Virginia Lees, etc. On p. 382 of this number is given the inquest on Crispus Attucks, of Boston-Massacre fame, who is styled throughout "Michael Johnson," an alias now first revealed.

An earnest effort is making among the students at Harvard to raise a sum of money sufficient to build a reading-room in connection with the library, which will be commodious, well-ventilated, and lighted by electricity, so as to be available in the evening—a monstrous deficiency under existing arrangements. Every alumnus must feel interested in this long-deferred movement, and all who can aid it should do so. An imposing committee, representing each class from 1817 (that of the venerable George Bancroft) to 1889, has been named by way of sanction to the scheme, but for practical information it is enough to know that the treasurer is Mr. Moses Williams, whose address is Brookline, Mass. The amount to be raised is not less than $100,000.

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts has opened an exhibition of the Society of American Wood-Engravers, supplemented by an exhibition of old and modern wood-cuts from various sources. This will last till the end of November.

The American Folk-Lore Society will hold its annual meeting at Columbia College on November 28 and 29.

A subscriber asks what are the provisions of the new tariff respecting the importation of books. They are as follows: All books twenty years old in point of manufacture, and all books in foreign languages, are admitted free of duty. English books less than twenty years old are taxed 25 per cent. ad valorem.

—'Frieden! Frieden! Frieden!' ('Peace! Peace! Peace!') is the title of a pamphlet of seventy-eight pages by Leopold Katscher (Dresden: E. Pierson). It treats of two kinds of peace—peace in its literal sense, considered as a cessation of war, and peace, metaphorically, considered as a cessation of the industrial conflict between capital and labor. The author does not so much express his own views as he commends to his readers three books which he reviews and describes at some length. One of them is Bellamy's 'Looking Backward,' which he praises warmly, but considers too communistic and unpractical. More unreserved is his admiration of a German Utopian imagining, 'Freiland,' by Theodore Hertzka, which has some traits in common with Bellamy's, but is much larger (about 700 pages), and works out a much more detailed scheme. It has attracted a good deal of attention in Germany, and various translations of it have appeared, an English one being in preparation. It has already been discussed in these columns. The third book reviewed by Katscher is a novel called 'Die Waffen Nieder,' by an Austrian baroness, Bertha von Suttner, which, under the guise of fiction, is an eloquent and romantic indictment of the war policy of the European States and of war in general. The passages quoted give evidence of much vigor and of great logical acuteness; and while they may detract from the value of the work viewed simply as a novel, they enhance its weight as a contribution to the discussion of an important moral and political question. This book also has already been translated into Danish, French, Italian, and English; the English edition will be published at a popular price by the International Arbitration and Peace Society.

—Spelling reform, although persistently agitated for many years, has made but little headway in English. English critical journals still find amusement in pouncing on the awful American misdemeanor of spelling favor, color, and the like without a *u*. The Germans have taken much more kindly to phonetic changes, which were first proposed by the brothers Grimm; but as every writer and printer adopts only such innovations as commend themselves to his judgment, German spelling is in a rather chaotic condition. Silent letters, especially the *h*, are pretty generally dropped; thus, where only a few years ago one read "Heute roth morgen todt," we should now find "Heute rot morgen tot," etc. In the last number (September 15) of the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* there is an entertaining and instructive article by M. A. Gazier, on "The Spelling of Our Fathers and that of Our Children," advocating a moderate and rational simplification of French orthography. The argument is an historical one. M. Gazier first reviews the condition of French orthography in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, showing, by a number of diverting passages, that not only kings, like Henri IV. and Louis XV. and XVI., and great ladies, like Mme. de Sévigné and Mme. de Montespan, were mere castaways in the matter of spelling, but that great writers like Bossuet, Racine, and even Voltaire spelled the same word two or three different ways and almost always incorrectly according to the present standards. Indeed, in the seventeenth century a candidate for a collegiate degree had no need to know French; to make the students better Latinists they were forbidden to speak French in their play hours. "You write French as if it were your mother tongue," said Chancellor Daguesseau in astonishment to our old friend Rollin, the author of the 'Ancient History.' The present French rigid orthography only dates from 1811, and was raised to its important position in the educational curriculum by the University of Napoleon and by the grammars and dictionaries of Noel and Chapsal, which are still in use as text-books in French and even in American schools. Projects for "ortografik" reform followed hard on the heels of the new régime; pamphlets advocating it appeared as early as 1827. A recent plan, submitted to the French Academy by M. Louis Havet, has the support, in some measure, of members of the Institute and professors of French at the Sorbonne and at the Collège de France; but the Academy cannot take any initiative: it can only register the decisions of the sovereign—that is, good usage. So far, good usage stands in the ancient ways and refuses to budge. M. Gazier proposes that the University, which first did the damage, shall take the first steps to apply the remedy. He suggests a few simple rules which could easily be adopted and would greatly simplify French spelling; but it would lead us too far to follow him into details. We must content ourselves with wishing him the success he deserves.

—Of the late Baron Dr. Johann von Lutz, Bavarian ex-Minister of the Interior, who died near Munich on September 3, in his 64th year, a correspondent writes:

"He was in all respects a remarkable man. His political career is an example of what unwitting good a powerful monarch can do to a nation by upholding a worthy man against the will of an ignorant or misled people. In spite of the strong and unceasing protests of the clerical Ultramontane majority in Bavaria, the late crazy King Ludwig kept this very liberal-minded Minister in power, and sanctioned all his prudent and progressive measures, during his entire reign. Lutz's chief political feats were the formation of the alliance with Prussia in 1866 in terms advantageous to Bavaria, his prompt support of the erection of the German Empire in 1870-71, and his suppression of the fanatic *Culturkampf* on the part of the Ultramontanes. Together with the Cabinet of his Department, he had control over all the universities, schools, and churches of the kingdom; and he brought all the influence of his vast information and learning to bear on this task. As a mere example of his knowledge on school questions, I recall a striking experience I had with him. I happened to mention the little University of Miami—President Harrison's Alma Mater, it will be remembered—to him without precisely recalling what State it was in, when Dr. Lutz remarked: "It is in Ohio, the smallest of the three State universities, I believe; and it has about seventy students." When one considers that there are twenty-three so-called universities in Ohio, and who knows how many colleges, and that there are forty more States, each, perhaps, with a like number of institutions, one can conceive to some extent the knowledge of a man whose mind had to grasp the school systems of all the States of Europe and Asia besides. A Catholic himself, he protected the late Dr. Döllinger in establishing his Old-Catholic schism from Rome. When King Ludwig died, the Ultramontane party was jubilant at the coming fall of their pet foe. But instead of that the present Prince Regent, though Ultramontane in his tendencies, took the old Minister into his favor, as much so as his more radical predecessor, and made strenuous efforts to retain him in office at the beginning of the present year; but Baron Lutz was failing in health, and retirement had to be granted him. The ex-Minister leaves behind him a grown-up son, and a widow, his second wife, whom he married only three years ago."

FARMER'S SLANG DICTIONARY.

Slang and Its Analogues, Past and Present: A Dictionary, Historical and Comparative, of the Heterodox Speech of all Classes of Society for more than Three Hundred Years. With Synonyms in English, French, German, Italian, etc. Compiled and edited by John S. Farmer. Vol. I—A to Byz. London: Printed for Subscribers only. 1890.

THE present is certainly an age of dictionaries. Old ones are undergoing constant revision, and

new ones are projected on a colossal scale. The 'Encyclopedic Dictionary,' which bears the name of the firm of Cassell, by which it is published, was recently brought out in several volumes. The somewhat similar but larger one of the Century Company is more than half finished. That of the Philological Society, planned on even a grander scale than the others, has many years of labor to be spent upon it before it can be even in sight of its completion. Besides, there is projected a Dialect Dictionary, which is to gather together the words and phrases which do not fall properly within the scope of the others, and will, it is expected, put into shape for permanent preservation that decaying speech of the illiterate rural population of England which is now slowly disappearing before the advance of the language of literature.

The work which is now before us is of a different character from any of these. It is the first volume of a dictionary to be devoted to the collection and definition of slang words. It embraces only the letters A and B. It is evident from this single fact that it is no small field which the completed work is expected to cover. Slang dictionaries we have had before, but none on any such scale as this.

The editor of the work has been previously known by a volume of somewhat similar nature entitled 'Americanisms, Old and New.' He brings to the performance of the task he has set before himself several valuable qualities. He has the heartiest interest in his subject; he has enthusiasm and industry. But while these are in themselves most desirable qualities, they are unfortunately not the qualities most desirable in the intellectual equipment of one who attempts to carry through successfully an undertaking of this kind. It needs, in truth, a special training, much beyond that of the ordinary lexicographer. But even the training of the ordinary lexicographer the compiler gives little indication of possessing. At the very outset suspicion is aroused by the title of his work. "Slang" has a reasonably limited meaning; but "analogues" is comprehensive enough to cover almost anything and everything. Under its protection there is hardly any reason except the caprice of the compiler for restricting the number of volumes.

There is, indeed, no question that it is not an easy matter to define the exact limits of a work of this character. No small share of what in its origin is slang is adopted at last into the language of literature; but while it is passing through the transitional stage it is not always clear in which class it is to be reckoned. The history of the term itself is evidence of this fact, for while the thing represented is old, the particular word that represents it is comparatively new—in its modern meaning very new. "Slang," in the sense of the cant language of thieves, appears in print certainly as early as the middle of the last century. It was included by Grose in his 'Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue,' published in 1785. But it was many years after before it was allowed a place in any vocabulary of our speech that confined itself to the language of good speakers and writers. Its absence from such works would not necessarily imply that it had not been in use, and in frequent use. Still, that this never had been the case we have direct evidence. Scott, in his novel of 'Redgauntlet,' which appeared in 1824, when using the word, felt the necessity of defining it; and his definition shows not only that it was generally unknown, but that it had not then begun to depart at all from its original sense. In the thirteenth chapter of that work, one of the characters is represented as trying to overhear a conversation that is going on, but finds it of no avail, for, according to the story, "what did actually reach his ears was disguised so completely by the use of cant words and the thieves' Latin called slang, that even when he caught the words, he found himself as far as ever from the sense of their conversation." No one who is now accustomed either to speak slang or to speak of the users of it, would think of connecting it with anything peculiar to the language of thieves. Yet it is clear from this one quotation that the complete change of meaning which the term has undergone has taken place within a good deal less than sixty years. Even the sense which it now has is not recognized in a dictionary as late as Worcester's. There it is defined as "vile, low, or ribald language; the cant of sharpers or of the vulgar; gibberish."

In his uncertainty as to what should be regarded as slang and what should not, the compiler resorts to an expedient that is more conducive to his own ease than to the reader's confidence. He first divides the colloquial speech into three great classes—dialectical, technical, and slang—and then informs us that, "after careful consideration," he has adopted, "as a standard between literary and non-literary English, Annandale's edition of Ogilvie's Imperial English Dictionary." Words and phrases that appear in that work can be used with safety by us all. Neither slang nor its analogues are expected to be found within its sacred enclosure. This is certainly cutting the Gordian knot with a vengeance. The divisions given of colloquial English are themselves calculated to excite a certain degree of surprise. Those of us who humbly profess to speak it are apparently cut off from the use of any but dialectical, technical, and slang words. To the painful purists who pride themselves on the avoidance of all these, will be committed the exclusive employment of that high-polite language about which not even the scent of anything colloquial lingers. Still, it is the work which is set up as an authority that will cause most astonishment. The 'Imperial' is little else than an enlarged and glorified Webster. Its material is so plainly based upon the collections made for the latter dictionary that it could not be sold in this country without the consent of the owners of the Webster copyright. It is a useful and valuable work; but to turn it into a court of appeals inevitably begets a feeling of wonder as to what must have been the linguistic training of him who is disposed to recognize it in this capacity. Webster, Worcester, and the 'Imperial' are all dictionaries worth consulting, and worth consulting constantly; but it is only in the most remote recesses of the rural districts that we should expect any one of them to be regarded as a final authority.

The same muddled ideas which affect the nature of the work undertaken affect also its execution. Difficult as it may be to tell what slang is, it is comparatively easy to tell what it is not. To the latter class belong words imported from foreign tongues to denote an idea that no word in the native tongue quite expresses. In what way can *blasé*, found in this dictionary, fall under any possible definition of slang? Or how can the Latin *adsum*, used in certain schools to answer one's name at roll-call, be so classed? Or, can the term be properly applied to the description of a gesture of contempt, such as *biting the thumb*? It is even worse to treat as slang, or as remotely related to it, words and idiomatic phrases that are now part and parcel of the language of literature, and in many cases have been so for centuries. Yet we have included in this volume such common idioms, among others, as *to scrape acquaintance with*, *to be at sea*, and *to go against the grain*. There is a peculiar perversity in this treatment of the subject, for in several instances illustrations of the usage are selected from the best writers, and the words and phrases themselves are all to be found in the 'Imperial Dictionary,' which was to furnish the dividing line between orthodox and heterodox English. From criticism of this sort the compiler may seek to protect himself by maintaining that such expressions are not slang, but its analogues. But if they are of that nature—and the comprehensive title, it must be confessed, covers almost everything—he will have to encounter equal censure for leaving out an immense body of similar phrases of which he has not taken the slightest notice. Hence, between the Scylla of trying to do what he has no business to do, and the Charybdis of not doing what on his own theory he ought to have done, he cannot well escape from being wrecked in these dangerous waters.

The work is further marked in many cases by the incompleteness of the information it gives, and sometimes by its inaccuracy, when a very little research would have enabled the author to ascertain the precise facts. A *Broughtonian*, we are informed, is a pugilist, and the name comes from Broughton, "once the best boxer of his day." The inquirer will naturally ask when was his day. He will get no answer from this work, although it would have been a matter of no difficulty to secure the needed information about the father of British pugilism. Again, to illustrate the word *bull* in its Stock Exchange usage, the first quotation in which it is employed is taken from Colley Cibber's play of "The Refusal." But, instead of giving its date, 1721—the all-important and easily ascertained thing—we are furnished instead with the dates of the author's birth and death; and as he lived for nearly ninety years, this does not fix with much precision when this meaning of the term first came into being, according to the compiler's authorities. *Blue Skin*, it is here said, was formerly a contemptuous term for a Presbyterian. No authority is furnished for the assertion, for the single quotation given—one from 'Hudibras'—contains the adjective and not the noun. But assuming it to be correct, what can be the possible meaning of the further statement that "blue is still the Presbyterian color, and is used as an adjective by them in describing books and people"? The *Black Joke* is defined as the name of a song about 1811. To say nothing of other instances, it is mentioned by Pope in a poem published in the year 1737. It is not a matter of any consequence, save as an exemplification of inaccuracy where accuracy is attainable with the least possible trouble, that Fielding's novel of 'Tom Jones' is dated 1750 instead of 1749.

Even more remarkable is the skill sometimes displayed in missing the exact meaning or origin of phrases. *Blaze away*, the sense of which it seems impossible to mistake, is calmly defined as "Look sharp: stir your stumps—an injunction to renewed and more effective effort." *An affair of honor* is defined as "killing an innocent man in a duel." *Begosh* is put down as an expletive, "probably of negro origin"; and yet this very work contains later the oath *by gosh*, with an English quotation from the early part of this century. The author on one occasion takes an excursion into the field of Biblical criticism, and gives us to understand that Beelzebub found in the Gospel of Matthew should be Beelzebul, and traces

the origin of the misreading to the original Hebrew. A work of this sort is not quite the one where we should expect to find corrections of the Revised Version. Still, in spite of the Semitic lore displayed in this instance, there are other places that lead to the suspicion that the compiler is not especially strong in Scripture. There is certainly a general impression that St. Paul is responsible for the statement that "the love of money is the root of all evil." But here, under the word *actual*, we find the ignorantly abbreviated form of the sentence—"Money is the root of all evil"—put down as an "old saw."

Naturally, errors of this kind are most conspicuous—at least they are most conspicuous to us—in the definitions of Americanisms. An occasional characteristic is the complete reversal of the real meaning. *Boodler* is defined not as one who receives boodle, but as one who offers it. Instead of the bribe-taker, he is turned here into the bribe-giver. The soldiers of the Northern army will be astounded to find from this work that *bushwhacker* was a designation applied to them as well as to the guerilla troops of the South. A curious confusion with the word *Copperhead* is shown in the statement that *Butternuts* denoted "the sympathizers with the South in the North and the Middle States during the American civil war." It will be observed that on this authority the Middle States did not constitute a part of the North. But the most extraordinary instance of misplaced misinformation occurs in the attempt to give an explanation of the origin of the verb *blenker*, used during the civil war in the sense of 'to plunder.' It so closely resembles the philological wisdom of many more pretentious works that it is worth quoting in full. "Possibly allied," says the editor, "to the Northern provincialism *blenk*, 'a trick' or 'stratagem.' *Blenk* was also used in *Morte d'Arthur* in the sense of 'to bilk,' or 'cheat.'" It is sufficient to say that the term as used during the civil war originated in the plundering habits ascribed, justly or unjustly, to a body of troops in the Northern Army commanded by Gen. Blenker. The effort to explain the derivation of this word was made by calling in the aid of philology. Of the origin of the phrase now to be given there is a highly philosophical and somewhat sentimental account furnished. This is the expression *about east* in the sense of "about right." The phrase, we are informed, arose from the fact that "to the frontiersman and pioneer the Eastern or New England States are typical of all he cherishes most and loves best." There is a good deal more about the way these men turn with undying affection to that region. It is evident that the compiler of this work has not the faintest glimmering of the opinion of itself and of other parts of the country that pervades the Western mind. He may rest assured that whatever currency the phrase *about east* has, it is not the West that gave it life or keeps it in circulation.

In truth, it is the list of Americanisms in this volume that confounds us more than any other one characteristic. As we light upon term after term that we have never seen in print, or heard in conversation, or heard of as being used by living men, we are more and more impressed with the fact that the only way to learn the peculiarities of speech in this country is to go to England and consult English books and newspapers. We do not venture to deny that there may be authority for all the words and meanings that are here imputed to the inhabitants of this continent; but if so, it is perfectly certain that the usage prevalent in some special district or at some special period of time has been treated as if it were characteristic of all the people at all periods. *To blow one's bazoo* is an expression found in Bartlett's Dictionary, and is there credited to Tennessee. Here it is simply put down as an Americanism. This is very much as if a phrase peculiar to Cornwall should be cited as belonging to the colloquial speech of the British empire. There has, indeed, been scarcely any discrimination exercised in separating the individual from the general, or the local from the national. In more than one instance the chance coinage of some one person appears to have been carefully registered as if it were part of the speech of all. We mention some of these words and phrases, which may possibly be known to a few, but will certainly seem strange to most. There is *abound*, in the sense of 'to be prominent'; *abskize*, 'to depart'; the noun *accumulatives*, which is not defined, but seems from certain vague remarks under it to be connected with "journalistic sparring matches"; *acquisitive* used as a noun in the sense of 'plunder'; *afterclap*, meaning the attempt to extort unjustly more in a bargain than was at first agreed upon; *bedoozle*, 'to bewilder'; *bell mare*, 'a political leader,' apparently a variant of 'war-horse'; and *bloviate*, 'to talk aimlessly and boastingly.' All of these may exist or may have had an existence, though in not a single instance is there any illustrative quotation given of their usage in this country. But it is ridiculous to speak of them as Americanisms in the proper sense of the word. Some of them are probably the creation of a particular writer, and only found in what he has written. All of them belong to that class of expressions which spring up constantly both in England and America and last but for a day or two. They then entirely disappear from sight and memory, unless they chance to fall under the eye of some lexicographer at the time of their appearance. Embalmed in his work, they then continue to maintain a mummy-like existence for all time.

Other deficiencies there are in this work which sadly detract from its value as an authority. To return, for instance, to Americanisms: not only are we credited with terms which most, and perhaps all of us, know nothing about, but genuine words and phrases, born of the soil—such as *big bugs*, *boom*, and *to get down to the bed-rock*—are included here without any mention of their place of origin. In truth, it is with a good deal of disappointment that we find the work failing to come up in any reasonable degree to the standard which it might fairly have been expected to reach. Its shortcomings are the more unfortunate because the compiler has, as we have said, a most genuine interest in his subject, and the subject is one that demands a fuller and more philosophical treatment than it has yet received. Slang is really the source from which language recruits its decaying energies. It is often weak, often silly, sometimes vulgar; but in the countless number of words and phrases of this nature that are constantly appearing and disappearing there is always a modicum worthy of permanent preservation. This says clearly or concisely or forcibly what the literary speech says obscurely or diffusely or feebly. From the very fact, however, that in its origin slang lives entirely in the mouths of men, and in consequence undergoes constant and sudden changes of meaning, it is all-important that what meanings it has should be clearly ascertained and accurately stated; and this is something the volume before us too often fails to do.

Still, while it is impossible to praise this work as an absolutely trustworthy authority, there is no question that it will be found interesting. It contains, moreover, a good deal of matter that is of permanent value. There is no reason, indeed, why, with proper care, an immense improvement should not be shown in succeeding volumes in the absolutely important matter of accuracy. With this secured we can afford to forgive the mistake of bringing together, under the term "slang," words and phrases which have no real connection with the subject. The compiler, in his prefatory note defending the title of the work, speaks with a good deal of asperity of "those critics who, without examination, seek to decry and put aside that which it has cost years of labor and research to produce." Critics are a hardened race, and it is not upon them that words like these will have much effect. Moreover, it is to be feared that the greatest commendation of this production will come from those of their number who review it without examination. Yet to this extent the compiler is justified, that every dictionary must be more or less full of faults, full of errors of omission and of commission, no matter how profound is the knowledge of those concerned in its production, no matter how much time and thought have been spent upon its details. The objections in this case are not that the work contains errors, but contains errors which the slightest labor or research would have rendered it an impossibility to commit. Defects of such a character can easily be remedied, however, and we are sufficiently interested in the undertaking, and sufficiently unmoved by the detestation which the editor feels for his critics, to wish and hope that future volumes will be found worthy of commendation in the very particulars where this one has been made the subject of censure.

PSYCHOPHYSICS.

Rapporteur Esthétique de M. Charles Henry, permettant l'étude et la rectification esthétique de toute forme. Paris: G. Séguin. 12mo, pp. 22.

Cercle Chromatique de M. Charles Henry, présentant tous les compléments et toutes les harmonies des couleurs, avec une introduction sur la théorie générale du contraste, du rhythme et de la mesure. Paris: Charles Verdin. 12mo, pp. 168.

M. CHARLES HENRY occupies the position of "Bibliothécaire à la Sorbonne," and is also entitled to several other honorable marks of distinction. His investigations in the history of mathematics have been very extensive, and from 1878 down to the present time the *Revue Archéologique*, the *Bulletin des Sciences Mathématiques*, the *Revue Scientifique*, and many other scientific periodicals, the *Actes* of various learned societies, and several independent volumes bear witness to his industry and learning. He has published accounts of many almost, sometimes quite, unknown MSS. of great historical interest in Arabic, Greek, Latin, and various modern languages. Several of these he has edited and published in full, with learned introductions and notes. He has also given to the world a large amount of hitherto unpublished letters and correspondence of celebrated men of science, Euler, D'Alembert, Laplace, Lagrange, and many others. He is at present engaged, in association with M. Paul Tannéry, in editing the works of the celebrated mathematician Fermat, the first volume of which, in 4to, was published a few months ago by the French Government.

The little books before us give abundant

evidence that M. Henry is by nature largely endowed with the inventive, mechanical, and mathematical faculties, and richly equipped with the learning of the past and the positive, experimental knowledge of the present. The problem which he has attempted to solve is the reduction of the science of "psychophysics" (or, as some might prefer to call it, "physical psychology") to a definite mathematical form. He has formed a theory of the relations existing between sensation and mental action—a theory not based upon metaphysical reasoning, not relying upon appeals to the "inner consciousness" of the individual, but upon indisputable facts in the physical structure of the outer world and in the organization of living beings. He would do for the mechanics of psychical action what the mathematicians have done for the mechanics of physical action, and would study the soul as the mathematician studies a machine. The science of psychophysics deals only with phenomena; with the essence and nature of the soul in the metaphysical sense, it has nothing to do. The name "psychophysics" was first proposed by Gustav Theodor Fechner, in his epoch-making 'Elemente der Psychophysik' (Leipzig, 1860). The object of that work was to discover and formulate a measure of sensation. M. Henry deduces the same results from his own theory, but his method is entirely different from that of Fechner, more far-reaching and profound. We must necessarily confine ourselves to very general statements in regard to M. Henry's theory.

Every attempt to investigate the relations between the soul and the body must start with the assumption that every idea, every emotion, is accompanied by some physiological change. The direct investigation of these changes is in most cases impossible and always difficult, laborious, and sometimes dangerous. The exterior manifestations of the interior work are alone open to us. The only things which we can represent and study scientifically are movements. The first step, then, in the formation of an exact science of psychic action is the establishment of definite and precise relations between the psychic functions and external movements; these latter are alone susceptible of measurement and calculation. Without movement no sensation, no idea, is possible. It is, then, in the movements of the living organism that we must seek for the key to the psychic functions of the living being. Now, the only movements which the living being can describe are circular movements, or, as M. Henry prefers to call them, "cyclic movements," in order to keep in view the fact that in any given case the movement is always in one direction. Confining our attention to the human being, all our movements reduce themselves to those of the lever: the bones are the levers, the muscles are the powers, the weight of the limbs or the bodies upon which our force is exercised are the resistances, the joints are the fulcrums or points of rotation; but in every case the movement is cyclic. The description, by a single, simple, continuous motion, of a straight line or of any curve line except a cycle or a cyclic arc—that is, a circle or a circular arc described in one direction—is for the human being an impossibility. The reader may perhaps ask, Cannot I take a pencil and draw an at least approximately straight line and various curved lines which, whatever they may be, are not circular arcs? Certainly, but the upper arm can only describe cyclic arcs about the shoulder as a centre; the lower arm can only describe cyclic arcs about the elbow as a centre; it is only because the cyclic movement of the upper arm continuously shifts the position of the centre about which the cyclic movement of the lower arm is performed, that the hand is made to move in a straight line or some other than a cyclic curve.

Not only are all the movements of the human being limited to cycles and combinations of cyclic movements, but there is no continuous rotation of one piece upon another as in a machine. Among the cycles which the living being is able to describe, M. Henry makes a distinction between great and small cycles, analogous to the great and small circles on the sphere, but we have no space to explain it; enough that the distinction is not a matter of arbitrary definition or hypothesis, but is only a mathematical way of presenting facts in our physical organism. Small cycles can be described continuously, great ones only discontinuously. In describing a great cycle there are always points where the movement is arrested, and can only be continued by a readjustment of our organs. The distinction between movements which the living being can describe continuously and those which it can only describe discontinuously, is one of the fundamental points in M. Henry's theory.

His next fundamental proposition is, that the living being expresses or represents every variation of physiological work by some change in the direction of its force. To the different excitations of the nervous system correspond different directions. "Direction is the representative element common to all sensation." When the directions differ at the maximum or minimum, successively or simultaneously, there is *contrast;* when they differ by certain definite angles, there is *rhythm;* when they may be expressed by denominators of certain fractions denoting certain parts of a cycle, there is *measure.* These three subjective functions, common to all the nervous reactions of the living being, M. Henry has endeavored to reduce to a mathematical form and express in a calculus of numbers. All those excitations of the nervous system which have most engaged the attention of mathematicians, physiologists, physicists, and artists, such as forms, lights, colors, sounds, are subjected to his processes. The phenomena known under the names of optical illusions, consonance, dissonance, modes (major and minor), harmony, and many others are shown to be but particular cases of his three functions of contrast, rhythm, and measure.

In explaining how the living being expresses or "represents" its inward work by its outward movements, M. Henry makes a distinction, which runs through his whole theory, between movements which are *dynamogenic* and those which are *inhibitory.* The human being exercises his force by preference in certain directions. Movements in certain directions are easy, agreeable, or, as the phrase is, natural. Such directions are dynamogenic. The opposite directions are more difficult, less agreeable; movement in those directions is more or less hindered. Such directions are inhibitory. The distinction is the result of the physical organization of the human being. Walking forward or backward may serve as a simple example. So, too, M. Henry states, experiments with the dynamometer show that a person striking upward, other things being equal, always registers a higher number than when he strikes downward. The human being is essentially dissymmetric. In the normally organized human being the right side is stronger than the left. Direction towards the right or from left to right is dynamogenic, from right to left inhibitory. Left-handedness is sometimes congenital, but it is sometimes merely temporary, and often, when permanent, is the result of accidental or pathological causes.

As M. Henry has shown (or rather it had already been shown by other physiologists) that all the elementary movements of the human being are assimilable to those of the compasses—that is, are circular or cyclic; and as he also has shown that certain directions are dynamogenic—that is, easy, pleasing, natural—while their opposites are inhibitory, or difficult, disagreeable, exceptional, the question arises, Are not certain divisions of the circumference (and all directions may be represented by the divisions of the circumference) natural, and based upon the organization of the human being? The division of the circumference into 2, 4, 8 equal parts, or into any number of equal parts expressible by a power of 2, as also its division into 3, 5, 6, 10, 12, and 15 equal parts, was known to geometers long before Euclid. These divisions can all be accomplished by the processes of elementary geometry—that is, with no other instruments than the ruler and the compasses. But the division of the circumference into 7, 9, 11, 13 equal parts is impossible with the ruler and compasses only. At the beginning of the present century Gauss demonstrated that with the ruler and compasses the circumference of a circle can be divided into any number of equal parts expressible by a power of 2 with 1 added to it, provided the number so obtained is a prime number. Thus, 256 is the 8th power of 2; adding 1 gives 257, and 257 is a prime number. Gauss showed that with the ruler and compasses a regular polygon of 257 sides could be inscribed in a circle—that is, that the circumference could be divided into 257 equal parts. This has often been characterized by mathematicians as the greatest discovery in elementary geometry that has been made since Euclid. We need enter no further into the mathematics of the subject. The numbers which express the divisions of the circumference that can be accomplished by the ruler and the compasses are called by M. Henry "rhythmic numbers," and play a great part in his system.

We can now understand the nature of his Æsthetic Protractor (*Rapporteur esthétique*). An ordinary protractor used by surveyors is an instrument for plotting angles on paper. It is generally in the form of a semicircle divided into degrees. Sometimes it is a whole circle, and instruments of different sizes are made. The essential feature of M. Henry's protractor is its graduation. Instead of being divided, like an ordinary protractor, into degrees, its divisions correspond to the rhythmic numbers. Accompanying it is an instrument called a "Triple Decimeter" used in measuring lines. Now suppose a form (or, as it is usually called, a figure) on paper is presented, and the question is asked, Is it a pleasing figure or not? With most people the decision would be wholly based upon sentiment. But M. Henry takes the figure and measures its various angles with his protractor, its lines with his decimeter; he subjects these data to certain fixed arithmetical operations, and he gets a single number as his answer. That number expresses the rhythm of the form. He turns to his tables of rhythmic numbers. If his answer is found in the tables, the form is good; if not, it is bad.

What M. Henry claims to do with his æsthetic protractor for forms he claims to do, by means of his chromatic circle, for colors. The presence of three fundamental colors in the spectrum by the combination of which all the

other tints, tones, shades, etc., are produced, is generally asserted, or admitted, or assumed by all the great physicists who have investigated the phenomena of light. Many of them have constructed chromatic circles, chromatic tops, and other instruments to illustrate their theories. But as to what the fundamental colors are there is great diversity of opinion. Brewster, Clerk Maxwell, Helmholtz, Chevreul, and others have arrived at different conclusions. There seems no prospect of determining the question by experiment. M. Henry attacks the problem in an entirely different manner. Having connected the psychic functions with directions in the manner which we have roughly and inadequately indicated above, having further shown that the forms of perception can be reduced to certain numerical formulæ, he proceeds to analyze the visual sensation, and then constructs his chromatic circle as a deduction from his theory. Finally, he shows that the results of his theory accord with the results of experience, and brings into orderly arrangement what before was a confused mass of isolated facts.

One of the experiments, or series of experiments, mentioned by M. Henry, is so interesting, so important in its bearings, and yet so easily understood, that we will endeavor to make room for it. It is due to the ingenuity of M. Charpentier, one of the most distinguished French physicists. The observer is so placed that the only light which reaches his eye is through four very minute holes, each one less than the hundredth of an inch in diameter. The holes are so situated as to form the four corners of a little square about the twenty-fifth of an inch on a side. The eye of the observer is about eight inches from the hole—that is, at the distance at which the vision of the normal human eye is most acute. When the holes are illuminated with a very feeble light, the observer sees nothing at all. As the intensity of the light is gradually increased, he first sees a faint spot of more or less diffused light. It makes no difference what the color of the light employed may be; a simply luminous spot appears before any appearance of color can be distinguished. As the intensity of the light is gradually increased, when it has reached a considerable higher degree the observer is able to distinguish with certainty what the color of the light is. He still, however, only sees a spot of colored light. As the intensity of the light goes on gradually increasing, the observer is finally able to distinguish the holes and to see that they form a square. Many other remarkable differences between the sensations of luminosity, of color, and of form, for which we have no room, are pointed out.

Having constructed his chromatic circle upon theoretical principles, M. Henry proceeds to examine and explain a great number of optical phenomena: the differences between colored lights and colored pigments, irradiation and the means of avoiding its effects, the illuminating power of the different parts of the spectrum, binocular vision, the salient and indented appearances of stained-glass windowpanes, the different laws that govern mixtures of colored lights and mixtures of colored pigments, the relations between light and vegetation, etc., etc.

Passing from the visual to the auditive sense, M. Henry treats the latter in essentially the same manner as the former. Consonance, dissonance, temperament, scales, modes (major and minor) are only realizations of mathematical formulæ based upon those fundamental numbers which are the abstract representatives of the forms of perception of the human being as manifested in his movements; they are only special cases of contrast, rhythm, and measure. The details of all this we are obliged to pass over. But there is one point, of great interest to students both of music and physics, which seems worthy of notice. If we start with any fixed tone, which we may call C, we can derive from it, without making use of any intervals except the octave and perfect fifth, a series of notes which, when reduced into the same octave, form a musical scale. Its invention is attributed to the Greek philosopher Pythagoras, and it is often called the Pythagorean scale. The fact undoubtedly is, that Pythagoras gave a scientific explanation of the scale universally used by the Greek musicians. It is also sometimes called the Greek scale. For all the purposes of harmonic music, or music of more than a single part, this scale is entirely unsuited. The intervals of the fourth and the fifth are perfect, but the major thirds, major sixths, and major sevenths are too sharp, the minor thirds and minor sixths are too flat. Hence the Greeks had no harmonic music. When two or more persons sang or played together, they always sang or played in unison or in octaves. They sang and played tunes without end; of chords they made no practical use. When the singer accompanied himself on the lyre, he played on the instrument the same notes that he sang with the voice. Of accompaniment in the modern sense he knew nothing.

How came the Greeks to adopt a musical scale which rendered harmony impossible? In 1869 MM. Cornu and Mercadier, two eminent French physicists, laid before the French Academy of Sciences the results at which they had arrived after a long series of experiments, in which they had been aided by amateur and professional violinists and 'cellists. These conclusions were: Musical intervals belong to at least two different systems of different values; violinists and 'cellists when playing unaccompanied melodies without modulations employ the Pythagorean intervals, or, in other words, they play a simple tune on the violin as a Greek would have played it on his lyre; when sounding two notes of different pitch together in "double-stopping," they employ the intervals required by the laws of physics, or, in technical language, the intervals of "just intonation." Many circumstances, especially the greater or less delicacy of ear in appreciating intervals on the part of the player, of course modify these rules in actual practice.

These conclusions of MM. Cornu and Mercadier have given rise to a vast deal of controversy, in which, on the whole, the participants, when artists, have sided with MM. Cornu and Mercadier; when physicists, have disputed them. Let us see what is the result of the application to them of M. Henry's theory. In his theory of contrast he makes a distinction between simultaneous and successive contrast. The distinction is based upon the organization of the human being, and upon the movements by which he represents his psychical operations. It is general, not made to meet any particular case, and is as applicable to the visual as to the auditive sensations. According as the contrast is of the one or the other kind, the result is different. Applied to the phenomena of sound, when two tones of different pitch are heard together, we have a case of simultaneous contrast; when one is heard after the other, we have a case of successive contrast. From the principles of the latter M. Henry "ciphers out" the Pythagorean scale, showing that it is founded in human nature, thus corroborating the conclusions of MM. Cornu and Mercadier, and justifying the æsthetic intuition of the artists and of the Greeks.

"I hope," says M. Henry, "that no one will reiterate in my case the accusation which the stupidity of every age has directed against the efforts to give a rational explanation of taste; that no one will pretend that I wish to substitute for the creation of the artist the mechanism of an instrument. Genius is inimitable, for it expresses itself not only by visible rhythms, but by an infinity of rhythms more or less invisible; is it any the less necessary to give definiteness to the manifestations of harmony, to show the complexity of their beauty, and to aid the feeling for them? Art is not alone interested in this work; it concerns our life itself. The artist is only an eye, an ear, a nervous system normally organized and developed; he feels the rhythm, and because he feels it, because the idea is a virtual realization, he produces it externally. He feels the rhythm and produces it better in proportion as his environment is more normal, more harmonic. It it is not the schools, but brilliant social conditions like life in Greece or at the Renaissance, that produce the great periods of art. Reciprocally, to aid the normal development of art is by so much to favor the realization, still far distant, of our destiny, the creation of universal harmony."

MORE FICTION.

Day and Night Stories. By T. R. Sullivan. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Little Worldling. By Ellis Worth. American News Co.

A Foreign Match. By Madame Bigot (Mary Healy). Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

The Feet of Love. By Anne Reeve Aldrich. Worthington Co.

The Salt Master of Lüneburg. By Julius Wolff. Translated from the 21st German edition by W. Henry and Elizabeth R. Winslow. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Uranie. By Camille Flammarion. Translated from the French by Mary J. Serrano. New York: Cassell Publishing Co.

The Princess of Montserrat. By William Drysdale. Albany, N. Y.: Albany Book Co.

MR. SULLIVAN'S stories are already so favorably known through the magazines that the collection of seven of them in the volume before us will be to many readers simply a reunion of old friends. To others, who turn affrighted from the appalling mass of contemporary magazine writings, fearful of being drawn from all other reading, once engulfed in that limitless torrent, the present volume will be a royal road to a cheerful hour. No man deserves better of his fellow-men at the present day than he who writes a good short story. Mr. Sullivan's impress one at once by their distinction of both substance and form. His style, without running into any Gallicisms—that passionately loved and encouraged fault of our most finished story-writers—has a finesse, an accuracy, which we are used to associate with the French story. One perforce pauses from attending to the gist of the matter (albeit that is not allowed to weaken) to admire the chosen perfectness of the words, the ripe cultivation of the style. Yet nothing could be further from formalism. The language and arrangement are as natural and clear as they are refined. The story remains the leading affair, and if any one neglects it for a moment, it is not Mr. Sullivan, as a showman of grammar and rhetoric, but the reader, and that upon the gentle compulsion of the charm of good writing. While Mr. Sullivan's invention is everywhere ingenious, our private leaning is to those of his stories which do not touch upon the supernatural. Of the latter, "Cordon" is the most beguiling. Mr. Sullivan, however, seems to us almost more a romancer on earth

than in faery or ghost-land—witness the charming "Rock of Béranger"; and who but a poet would write of "Vaulting Crickets"?

'A Little Worldling' is an unnecessary novel, wherein the wickedness of Presbyterians is brought to confusion by the loving-kindness of heretics, through ways which are ways of unpleasantness from the literary and from every point of view.

'A Foreign Match' is another disappointing book. Its opening pages are full of the promise of an entertaining story, and in the main it is ably written. The *dramatis personæ* and the properties are, to be sure, hackneyed. A young Parisian painter, a crippled sister, a stanch friend in workman's dress, a family of rich Americans living in gilded exuberance—these are types outworn, yet they enter upon the stage with a spring that gives hope of something agreeable. It is therefore depressing to find one's self, in the last chapter, assisting at a Camille-like scene of a dying runaway wife restored to her husband's affections, and to the flowers and silver salvers of accepted repentance.

Miss Aldrich's book is in places clever and throughout supremely disagreeable. It is easily seen that her aim has been to outdo the insanities of certain modern novels, in a saner language than theirs. We commend to her the words of an English reviewer who speaks of a recent work as one "which will be a delight to those who in literature are alone worth delighting—the cultivated students of all that is sweet and high and noble in literary art."

'The Salt-Master of Lüneburg' is a thoroughly good book of its kind. Its kind is somewhat long-winded and given to horse-play, but it is full of life and color and movement, and, moreover, deals with an interesting episode in the history of the fifteenth century—a struggle for power in which the contestants are burghers and guilds, prelates and lords. The fine, sturdy character of the Salt Master, whose personal integrity wins for him the confidence of high and low, and enables him to lead his beloved city out of harm's way into peace, is admirably presented; nor is there a single figure in the crowded canvas which is not clear and individual. The story does not flag, long as it is. The descriptions of life in a German city are particularly readable, and the prominence in all public and private affairs of the system of masters and guilds is set before us as vividly as if we were witnessing another "Meistersinger."

Those whose curiosity has been set tingling of late by mysterious rumors from the Lick Observatory of discoveries in Mars, too startling to be made known until time shall have sufficed for further verification, will find pastime of a suggestive sort in reading 'Uranie.' It may be called an astronomic rhapsody—a fantasia upon the interstellar spaces. Fascinating it is with the fascination of the mathematically true. M. Flammarion's most imaginative conjectures as to life in the stars are no more startling than the well-known facts he rehearses of the physical world. His incandescent beings who can glow at will are not stranger than the sixty different motions of the moon; nor do twelve senses in a planetary being appear more wonderful than a velocity of 320,000 yards a second in a star. It is as a résumé of facts and figures that 'Uranie' will be found readable, rather than as a work of imagination. Its occasional flippancies and irrelevancies are outweighed by a lofty spirit of research, nor do the feebleness and formlessness of the story which serves as vehicle, avail to quench in the reader a sense of having enjoyed a journey full of meaning and suggestion through the heavens.

'The Princess of Montserrat' is a jaunty little tale of desert-island adventure, in which the conquering hero is a New York newspaper reporter. His experiences are interesting and bloodless, and the airy sang-froid supposed to be characteristic of his calling, serves him many a good turn in his checkered career, while lending also to the narrative a happy-go-lucky strain.

Gray and His Friends: Letters and Relics, in great part unpublished. Edited by Duncan C. Tovey, M.A. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890.

THIS volume of nearly three hundred pages, coming upon the heels of Mr. Gosse's edition of Gray, illustrates the hopelessness of finality in editing. Mr. Tovey, a close student of Gray, is willing that other lovers of the poet should not be confined to what editors have chosen for publication. The new material of Gray consists of eight letters, in two of which Walpole collaborates, notes of travel in France, Italy, and Scotland (54 pages), brief notes to Percy and Brockett from the Percy MSS., thoughts, verse fragments, collectanea and conjectures, among which some of Warburton's Shakspere emendations are to be noted, and Latin poems from either Mitford's MSS. or the Pembroke College MSS. In addition, of matter not Gray's, but now first printed, there are one letter of Walpole, thirteen letters of Ashton, six of West, two of Miss Speed; and the list is completed by three letters of Gray to John Chute, hitherto published only in Mr. Chaloner Chute's 'History of the Vyne.'

The collection is not so piecemeal as this particular account of its contents might indicate. The first half is occupied with the correspondence of the four friends, known at Eton as the "Quadruple Alliance," Gray, Walpole, West, and Ashton, during their college days and the foreign tour of Gray and Walpole to the time of West's untimely death in 1742, at the age of twenty-six. The object is really to set forth West's character and make a memorial of him. The material is drawn from Mitford's MS. copies of the letters, and so much is added from previously published letters of West as will serve to make the correspondence continuous. West was highly valued by Gray, who meant to have collected his poems, but never did that pious labor. Mitford also seems to have intended to edit his remains. Mr. Tovey has now accomplished this long deferred work, and, though the story is brief and slight, it has a literary as well as a pathetic interest, and will be valued by those who care for Gray's circle of friends.

Of West's life no more is told than we knew before—that he was the son of Richard West, Chancellor of Ireland, and grandson of Bishop Burnet, attended Eton and Oxford, studied law without interest, and fell into a consumption and died, after having the close of his life embittered by the knowledge that his mother, whom he loved, had been intrigued with by his father's secretary. Whether we must add to this that he was aware that his father's death was due to poison given by this mother is not certain; but such a story is published by Mr. Gosse as coming through Dyce from Mitford. His letters, however, betray none of this tragic interest, except by the melancholy of their tone. They are made up of such pieces of college news, wishes for reunion, expressions of common literary interests, and other personal matters as one student at Oxford might send to his Eton friends at Cambridge, and they return the same in their answers. After college life was over there was little difference in the tenor, though the matter varies with the changed situation. The strain of personal affection is greater in West's letters to Gray, as his need was greater and his nature more tender; there is much restraint, however, in expression, and one finds in all a certain refinement of personal behavior, a high breeding, which is very charming in effect. We speak particularly of West and Gray; Ashton was of coarser grain, and in Walpole one is more sensible of the man of the world's habit, or suspects its presence.

But whether or not these few literary exercises should detain us on their own account or for their relation to Gray, they serve to make West more substantial, to prove how much he had loved Milton and the more gentle Latin poets, to show a young poet's nourishing in that age as he followed his will among the classics, and the true and carefully wrought, if slight, performance of his learning hand; but it is rather as a side-light that they are welcome, for in his letters the nature of the man is more intimately and excellently shown, such as to win kind memory for him and not the least place among poets' friends. The balance of affection, one thinks, was more on his side than on Gray's, and the two saw little of each other after their boyish friendship at Eton.

The new material of Gray which is collected in the latter half of the volume will be valued according to the attachment of the reader to the poet. We ourselves have found much of curious interest, and are thankful for this gathering of the fragments that nothing be wasted. The journal of the journey from Rome to Naples, in particular, we should be sorry to have lost. Most of the matter, however, is for the close student of Gray, and need not be remarked upon in detail. The editor corrects some errors in Mr. Gosse's work, and restores some texts wrongly given by Mason. His annotations are many, and seem thorough, though he apologizes for not being more thorough. His estimate of Gray's character is unusually good, by virtue of its freshness, simplicity, and naturalness. He particularly turns his face from the infelicitous conjectures of Matthew Arnold, whose essay showed an activity of imagination remarkable in the poet-critic. We are reminded, with regard to the text upon which Arnold built, that it is not to be believed that "when good Mr. Brown said of Gray that 'he never spoke out,' he had anything in his mind but the fact that Gray did not acknowledge to his friends how near he felt his end to be"; and Mr. Tovey goes on to bring our minds back to the obvious meaning of words, to the fact that his melancholy was a kind of "leucocholy," that in "incidental treatment of public events he had about as much 'high seriousness' as George Selwyn," that his description of Pitt's eulogy on Wolfe (a cruel instance) is in "the Walpolian not the Wordsworthian spirit," whence "to attribute *Weltschmerz* to him, or even any latent uneasiness pointing that way, is the merest anachronism." He thinks that if Gray had been "born in the same year with Milton," he would have been a "less finished artist," but much the same man; and if "with Burns," then he would have written "less great poetry" and "perhaps more satirical verses and more prose."

In the way of literature, West sends his verses, Latin and English translation, and original, to Gray; and these, though not such as to foretell a real poet, show many good qualities

of style framed under Latin influences, and, though they have much of false taste derived from the age, exhibit talent and real taste, an occasional directness that might have become vigor, and sincerity of feeling. They are more interesting because they approach Gray, now a rather solitary figure, in their literary characteristics. They mirror, in a way, his early intellectual mood and immaturity. It may be fanciful if one seems to see here the classical influence leaving satire for ode in the development of English literature, the beginning of more personal feeling and a delight in nature, which were faint prophecies of a change in poetic style; but it would be natural to find such signs in Gray's environment. It may, perhaps, not be superfluous to refer, for the curiosity of the matter, to the lines on the "Death of Queen Caroline," which Gray worked over into a famous stanza of the 'Elegy':

> "Ah me! what boots us all our boasted power,
> Our golden treasure and our purple state?
> They cannot ward th' inevitable hour,
> Nor stay the fearful violence of Fate."

It is interesting to note, too, that a month before he died, West sent to Gray an Ode to Spring which was possibly the suggestion to him of his own ode, enclosed to West in a letter written just before learning of his sudden death.

The temper of Mr. Tovey's strictures upon the idealized figure of Arnold's inner consciousness is perfectly modest, and the remarks seem to us unusually sensible, and wholly untouched by that literary mood which impairs and often thoroughly vitiates judgments by literary men, of which Arnold's 'Gray' is a conspicuous example. In this little introduction we get back to the region of plain common-sense, though the criticism is made in so off-hand and unobtrusive a way that the reader hardly knows it is there until he sees how sound it is. The entire volume is a welcome addition to the literature about Gray, which, as Mr. Tovey reminds us, is not to be found in Mr. Gosse or any one book; and for our part we hope for further additions to what is always so delightful.

Civil Government in the United States. Considered with some Reference to its Origins. By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THIS little book, though meant to be serviceable and suggestive to the general reader, is primarily designed for the instruction of children in schools, after they have reached that stage of mental development in which it is no longer enough that they should be pleased with the rattle of "drum and trumpet histories," or tickled with the straw of story-books and fairy tales. The scholastic use of the book is emphasized (perhaps a little too obtrusively for the mature reader and the intelligent teacher), by an apparatus of "Questions on the Text," appended to each chapter, and also by supplementary "Questions and Directions," designed to facilitate original inquiry on the part of the pupil, after the methods, on a small scale, of the German *Seminar*. For this latter branch of work an ample bibliography is furnished, that the student may betake himself to good sources of knowledge in solving the historical problems here set before him to quicken curiosity and promote intellectual acumen.

In pursuit of his design to exhibit the genetic ideas which lie at the bottom of civil government in the United States, Mr. Fiske has undertaken to select and put together, "bit by bit," as he says, the archaic institutes and social usages which, after passing for long ages through the grooves of change, have resulted at last in that "magnificent piece of constructive work," the Constitution of the United States. That is, he undertakes to show how far our American theory of self-government is an historical evolution, and how far it is an original creation. Such an inquiry into the comparative anatomy and morphology of political structures is a work of much difficulty, but, as the author justly remarks, "our country affords an admirable field for the study of the general principles which lie at the foundation of universal history"; and this for the obvious reason that we live under a government which, in the complexity of its organism, is the most specialized of any on the globe. To explain the genesis of this specialization the student must learn how to trace its descent from that oldest of political cells, the clan of our savage ancestors. For such a cosmical philosophy in politics it does not need to be said that Mr. Fiske is singularly well equipped. On its critical side, as a scientific exposition of the origins of our Government, the work is every way admirable. Indeed, the writer has allowed the modesty of its title to obscure not only the most distinctive feature, but also the most characteristic merit of the book. It purports to be a treatise on civil government in the United States, "considered with *some* reference to its origins." In point of fact, Mr. Fiske avows at the close of his volume that it has been his "*main* purpose" to treat of civil government in the United States with reference to these origins. It was inevitable that he should have spent his strength on this part of his work, rather than on its descriptive analyses of our governmental forms.

The usefulness of such an inquiry needs no enforcement. The comparative method in modern research has been likened by Freeman to a second Revival of Learning, because of the transformation it has wrought in human thought on all subjects. All the so-called Universal Histories written before it are emptied to-day of scientific value for the want of it. If we would know the origins of English jurisprudence, we must look for them in the science of comparative law. So simple an institute as Borough English can be better understood in the pages of Sir Henry Maine and Scrutton than in the pages of Blackstone. In like manner, if we would know the origins of American self-government, we must hunt for them in the cradles of the British race.

It takes a great deal of learning to make these recondite things simple and plain to the youthful reader, and Mr. Fiske has made them simple and plain. That he has pursued the right method in beginning at the bottom of our political evolution and then tracing the gradual progress upwards, instead of reasoning backwards from the top to the bottom, there can be no doubt. In this way the continuity of the historical process is set before the reader in an order which is logical because it is chronological. And if the logic of the book is severe, as becomes a scientific treatise, its style is always clear. Indeed, the style is often enlivened with glimpses caught from the realm of romance. It is evident that the writer wishes his pupils to know their Dickens and Charles Reade as well as their Seebohm and Laveleye. He expects them to take a hint about the wonderful country which Alice visited after she had gone through the looking-glass, as well as a hint about the rectangular cartography of our land office in laying out the townships of a Western State. At page 216 Mr. Fiske even presses the pencil of the painter into the service of his pen, and gives us a grotesque picture of the "Gerrymander," with the dragonly head, wings, and claws appended to that blatant beast by Stuart, the artist.

In the descriptive part of the work we note some slips of the pen—the evident marks of haste. It is a mistake to intimate (p. 230) that the electoral vote of New Jersey was divided between Lincoln and Douglas in 1860 as a result of "the district system." That divided result was determined by a "fusion" among the adherents respectively of Breckinridge, Bell, and Douglas. Their "fusion" electoral ticket comprised three friends of Douglas, two friends of Breckinridge, and two friends of Bell; and as a faction of the Douglas men supported a "straight-out" ticket besides, in which the three "fusion" electors were adopted, it chanced that these three had a majority over the Lincoln electors. It is also a mistake to say (p. 218) that "there is nothing to prevent a State from electing all its Representatives [in Congress] in this way [by a general State ticket], if it prefers to do so; and it has lately been done in Maine." If Mr. Fiske will turn to the United States Statutes-at-Large, vol. xxii., p. 6, he will find that the election of Representatives "in this way" is *not* left to the discretion of the States, and that the election in Maine to which he refers was provided for by a special statute of Congress. Under the census of 1880 the Congressional representation of Maine was reduced from five to four. This reapportionment broke up her then existing districts, and, as Congress foresaw that new districts might not be made in time for the next ensuing Congressional election, it was provided that that next election could be conducted by general ticket.

We do not know what Mr. Fiske means by saying (p. 244) that "Congress may establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies, *but it has not done so.*" The italics are ours, because we are puzzled to understand what lack of "uniformity" there is in our existing naturalization laws, or what lack of "uniformity" there was in the bankrupt acts of 1800, of 1842, and of 1867. These bankrupt acts, we know, were repealed for supposed abuses under them, but not, so far as we know, for any lack of uniformity in their tenor or application.

Slight inaccuracies of statement should be corrected, as when, in referring to the broad avenues which break up the "checker-board monotony" of rectangular streets in the city of Washington, Mr. Fiske says (p. 84), that these avenues "radiate like spokes of a wheel from the Capitol as a centre." Some of them start at the distance of a mile or more from the Capitol.

We find it hard to agree with Mr. Fiske in the opinion that "the practical questions" which have divided the two great parties concerned with the powers of the national Government before the civil war, may be reduced to these three: the *Tariff*, *Internal Improvements*, and a *National Bank*. Slavery can hardly be ignored in any analysis of the "practical questions" which divided parties in the United States before the civil war. In a work like this there was no room, of course, for the slavery polemic; but it seems to us that Mr. Fiske might have properly found a place for the scientific study of slavery, considered as a social institute which has profoundly colored the stream of American history. It would have been as easy to show that slavery was an archaic institute in our social system as to show that "the township was originally a stationary clan, and a county was originally a stationary tribe." In like manner, it would have been easy to show that this archaic institute, because of its alien nature and intrusive

growth in our political organism, was doomed to destruction from the moment it came to be infiltrated in our civil polity; for slavery in civilized nations has always been, to use the phrase of Lieber, "a deciduous institution." In such nations it has always come to an end, either by slow decay or by sudden shock.

The Golden Bough. A Study in Comparative Religion. By J. G. Frazer, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, 2 vols., pp. xii.-409 and 407.

THE priest of Diana at Nemi (lately made famous by a drama of Renan) obtained his office by fulfilling two conditions: he had to slay his predecessor, and, that he might have the right to slay him, had to pluck a bough from a certain tree in the sanctuary. Mr. Frazer's book is an attempt to discover the origin of this custom, and his account of it is as follows: The priest, who was also styled "King of the Wood," was an incarnation of the sylvan deity there worshipped, whose life was in the bough, and he had to be killed in order that the divine spirit incarnate in him might be transferred in undiminished vigor to his successor. This conclusion he supports by a large array of facts drawn from European, Asiatic, African, and American peasant and savage folk-customs. In successive chapters he treats of the incarnation of deities in men and in trees, of the royal and priestly tabus by which the soul of the divine man is guarded, of the killing of the god that the people may be saved from the evils attending his senile decrepitude, and of the external soul which may be detached from its owner and dwell in bird or beast or plant, and so be captured and destroyed.

Whether or not he has solved the mystery of the strange custom of Nemi, he has collected a vast amount of curious information respecting ancient and modern religious ideas and usages, and has made probable, if not demonstrated, the persistence, in many popular customs, of primitive savage conceptions of the supernatural. He is doubtless right in assuming that much mythical material is to be regarded as invented explanation of ritual, and that it is to this latter that we must go for the simplest religious ideas of early man. The study of ritual thus becomes of first importance in the reconstruction of primitive religions—a study beset with difficulties, but certain to yield rich results.

The most striking part of Mr. Frazer's book is the chapter on the slain god, an idea the credit of which he gives to Prof. W. Robertson Smith, whose recent work, 'The Religion of the Semites,' has opened a new path for the investigation of the origins of religion. Mr. Frazer has, however, illustrated the idea with abundant learning and ingenuity. He comes, for example, with a new spirit to the examination of the great slain gods of Semitic, Egyptian, Phrygian, and Greek mythology. Adonis, Attis, Osiris, Dionysus, Lityerses, and also Demeter and Proserpine, he explains as deities of vegetation, similar to the corn-spirits of modern Europe; the death and resurrection of the god are held to signify the annual death and revival of vegetation. This view is, to say the least, as satisfactory as the solar hypothesis as a partial explanation of these mythical histories. Elaborate myths are probably never simple in origin; they usually bear evidence of the convergence of different lines of thought. Recognizing this fact, Mr. Frazer is disposed to claim only partial accuracy for his explanations.

The importance of modern folk-lore for the elucidation of ancient customs is becoming better understood every day. Through books of travel, publications of folk-lore societies, and such systematic investigations as those of Mannhardt, the material is rapidly growing, and larger results for ancient mythology may be expected. Mr. Frazer has in this volume made no slight contribution to the science of religion; and from the work on primitive superstition and religion which, as he states in his preface, he is now preparing, we may hope for something of great interest.

Essays of an Americanist. By Daniel G. Brinton. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1890. 8vo, pp. 489.

THIS is the most recent among the bulkier publications of the author, whose productivity in regard to Americanist studies seems to increase with his years. It is a collection of twenty-four articles, with introductions and indexes, all being classed, on the title-page as well as in the book itself, in four divisions: (1) Ethnologic and Archæologic, (2) Mythology and Folklore, (3) Graphic Systems and Literature, (4) Linguistic. The book does not profess to be wholly original; most of the articles have appeared before, being either verbatim reprints or new recastings. Some are of value and worth preserving, while as to the value of others the opinions of Americanists differ largely, as the latest reviews of the book demonstrate. The articles of value are mainly those in which the argument is founded on historic facts, while in the papers of the lighter sort Brinton's lively imagination prevails over his reasoning power, and sometimes, when it suits him, runs directly counter to historic truth. It must indeed be a formidable task for a single scientist to produce something serious and thorough in so many fields of Indian science simultaneously.

To begin with his article on the Toltecs (pp. 83-100), the author is certainly right in declaring their so-called *empire*, which is alleged to have extended across Anahuac from the western to the eastern ocean, a baseless fable, if empire is meant in the sense of a centralized monarchy. One of the numerous places called Tula or Tullan lay on Serpent Hill, and was an antique religious centre of the Mexicans, like Nani Waya, "the sloping hill," among the Choctaws; from it the fabled empire took its name. What was originally meant by Toltec empire is, according to Brinton, the whole extent of the Nahuatl nation, which had extended all over southern Mexico; but other scholars prefer to see in the Toltecs the ancient dominion of the Maya people. That Tollan must be identified with *tonatlan*, 'sun's place,' as the birthplace of Quetzalcoatl, is an assertion which requires more proof to be credible.

Another paper, on "The Earliest Form of Human Speech as Revealed by American Tongues," contains statements which we should expect to find rather in the writings of Rudolf Falb than in those of Brinton. From examples occurring in Howse's Cree Grammar, he thinks it is possible that in early epochs one term may have signified a certain thing and also its exact opposite (like the Cree *eth*, 'being' and 'not-being'), and claims to have found instances to sustain this in Tinné and Nahuatl. This is exactly the theory of Carl Abel, over which many linguists are dubiously shaking their heads. On page 408 we find a description of what the language or speech of the palæolithic man *must once have been*, and a discussion of the problem whether early men modelled their sounds rather from what they saw or from what they heard. Were they *visuaires* or *auditaires?* Brinton is more inclined to make them "visuaires," but we think the question is not well put.

The treatise on "The Conception of Love" is based too largely on imagination and speculative etymology to be of real value to linguists or psychologists. But now comes a rehearsal of the Taensa controversy, which the author brings forward simply to injure Lucien Adam, the scholar chiefly implicated in the affair. As Brinton had lately made peace with him, it is evidence of Punic faith to touch the subject again, and to repeat the same historic falsities as he advanced previously. How little Dr. Brinton is capable of judging about languages and their affinities may appear from the fact that in 1867 he declared the Natchez tongue cognate with Maya, and in 1873 with Maskoki (Choctaw, Creek, Seminole, etc.), but with no open retractation of the former statement. More lately, having asserted that Chorotega, a Chiapanec dialect of Nicaragua, was cognate with Aimará, he made due retractation.

Dr. Brinton's activity has proved very useful in raising new Americanistic problems or presenting the old in a novel light, whatever the real value of his own articles, theories, and publications may be. To become still more useful to science, he should without delay conscientiously edit the Maya dictionary of Motul, composed about 1590. Dr. C. H. Berendt's copy, with his own invaluable annotations, containing parallels from the modern Maya dialects, is in Brinton's hands, and the present state of Maya researches urgently demands the publication of this unique document upon the language.

Sporting Sketches. By Diane Chasseresse. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

IT is related of a certain English prelate that, when reading the third chapter of Daniel, he was wont to omit all the catalogues of musical instruments after the first, and to substitute the words "music as before." This was in the nature of a protest against unnecessary repetition, and the reader of 'Sporting Sketches' will be apt to wish that the lady with the Franco-mythological pen-name, whose wondrous deeds are herein recorded, had taken a hint from the worthy bishop. The desire to slaughter wild animals, which becomes a passion with many men and occasional women, is doubtless inherited from a remote and savage ancestry, and is a survival of a period when meat could not be obtained from a butcher round the corner, and when straight shooting with the weapon peculiar to the age was consequently a talent worthy of careful cultivation. But in these later days, deer-stalking and the pursuit of game generally can only be regarded as means of obtaining healthful and invigorating exercise, while "pot-hunting" for the benefit of the larder, which seems to have been the regular occupation of this modern Diana, cannot be described in book form without boring and wearying the reader. The wounding or killing of one stag is very like that of another, and the monotony of 'Sporting Sketches' is only relieved by the phenomenal character of some of the shots described—any scepticism in regard to which is met by the author's solemn declaration that "every word in the book is true." Moreover, she shows an entire lack of appreciation of the beauties of nature—a defect which is fortunately uncommon among genuine sportsmen, and is probably the distinguishing note of the pot-hunter.

In one respect only is the book remarkable—

in this age of wonderful wood-engraving—and that is in the grotesque badness of the illustrations. The author must be strangely free from vanity to have allowed a cold and possibly critical public to judge of her personal appearance from the illustration at page 158. In this extraordinary picture she is made to look like one of the recently discovered mummies dressed in an early Egyptian mackintosh, while on other pages her appearance, although quite different, can hardly be called attractive. She gives an account of her experience with a semi-tame otter, which is evidently intended to be humorous, but is simply disgusting, and she naïvely relates how a pet rabbit once ate up one of her pictures—and recovered !—thereby showing that it possessed a combination of the critical faculty with strong digestive powers that would have filled the soul of Thomas Carlyle with envy. The book is dedicated to the author's children, and is said to have been written for their amusement. In this it may meet with success, but it should have been strictly preserved for home consumption.

Following the Guidon. By Elizabeth B. Custer. Illustrated. Harpers. 1890.

THE earlier books of her military life have established for Mrs. Custer a personal and sympathetic audience that will accept this as kindly as it did those. The frank simplicity that reports the rather boyish pranks of "our brother Tom," and cites with affection what "our father Custer" did, may continue to be trusted to give a careful and interesting account, only colored by personal feeling as it concerns individuals, of a life whose lines of control were entirely outside those which environ civilians.

The volume opens with the winter march to the Washita, and the surprise and slaughter of Black Kettle's warriors. Taken by necessity from Gen. Custer's official reports, the revival of that combat requires no comment now, but it excites regret that Major Elliott's fate, if noted at all, should be so curtly dismissed.

The book is chiefly taken up with the summer camp of the Seventh Cavalry in 1869, near Fort Hays, and the incidents which revolved around it. Buffalo and Indians were the heroic, the matters of canvas-housekeeping the minor elements. In not much more than ten years it is estimated that nine millions of buffalo were slain, and in less than twenty the plains over which they roamed have been so laced, one had almost said lacerated, with wire fences and iron tracks that the desert, if not blooming as the rose, has at least become an additional granary for the continent, and one that grows year by year. This transformation from the wilderness where troopers marched, savages raided, and the innumerable bison grazed is, if not a miracle, at least a constant wonder to those who knew both conditions. The next generation will accept it as a matter of course, but to those who, like the author, have seen its accomplishment within a short span of active years, it is like enchantment.

In her mention of the buffalo Mrs. Custer does scant justice to either the magnitude or the multitude of that great beast. Eight hundred pounds is a low estimate for the weight of the individual animal, and to the ordinary reader figures convey little idea of numbers. Where not constantly hunted, as along the line of the then advancing Pacific Railroad, in places the whole plane of vision would be brown as with the trunks of a forest. It would matter nothing that vast areas might have none, as long as one's particular horizon was thus filled. Besides these vast herds were smaller groups of from fifty to a thousand, so that within the belt, varying with the season and the year, these untamed cattle might easily be found in season. Mrs. Custer's description of the chase is good, and may be preserved as that of an eye-witness of what is already an extinct sport, although it may be questioned whether the actual equalled the apparent danger. There might have been added, as must have been known at least by report, some account of the occasionally methodical evolutions of the moving herds—so apparently systematic and so closely resembling intelligent manœuvres as to deceive distant observers as to the nature of the masses.

That the rattlesnake is edible was demonstrated in the fifties by an intelligent and inquisitive officer on the upper Missouri.

The preface to the little book is an interesting essay upon guidons and military "calls," and the various chapters have as headings the trumpet-notes that make up the record of the soldier's day. Mrs. Custer's style, while losing none of its attractive simplicity, has much improved by practice, and she has given here a pleasant record of a life of some hardship and many inconveniences, but one which possesses a manifest fascination for the civilized nomads of both sexes. This story of it is gilded throughout with an affection that ennobles the storyteller quite as much as the object of it.

Aztec Land. By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

MR. BALLOU dwells delightedly in his preface on the luxurious ease with which one can "visit Mexico" in a Pullman car, in which "the traveller lives, eats, and sleeps." This furnishes the note for his entire volume: it is the most effortless writing imaginable, all the taking-pains being good-naturedly left to the reader. When the journey made by Mr. Ballou had painfully to be done on horseback, or even in the diligence, there was enough novelty in the obvious sights on the way to justify a tourist in making record of them; but, after it has been all told a hundred times, there is really no more reason for putting into a book what can be seen out of a car-window in travelling from the Rio Grande to Vera Cruz than if the route lay simply between Boston and Eagle Pass. To be sure, the author works in several pages of historical writing, but the knowledge displayed in them was evidently come at in a short and easy way. Mr. Ballou is aware that something is wrong with the Spanish chronicles, but is entirely wrong himself in thinking that they are to be incontinently bowled down in the radically sceptical manner of Wilson. Of the later and truly scientific study of Mexican archæology, he appears to know nothing. If he simply aimed to startle his readers by averring that Mexico "nearly equals France and Italy in historic interest," and by maintaining that our war with Mexico was undertaken to repel Mexican aggressions, he may be assured of success. The style of the book is to be commended, for the most part. Several proper names and Spanish words were too much for the proof-reader. The whole, justice compels us to say, has no excuse for being.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Autobiography of Anton Rubinstein. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bigelow, M. M. The Law of Fraud. Vol. II. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bolton, Sarah K. Famous European Artists. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Brown, H. F. The Venetian Printing Press: An Historical Study. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $10.
Butler, Sir W. F. Sir Charles Napier. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Champlin, J. D. Cyclopedia of Music and Musicians. Vol. III. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Claflin, Mary B. Brampton Sketches. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Claflin, Mary B. Real Happenings. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 30 cents.
Cooley, T. M. Constitutional Limitations. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Curzon, L. H. The Blue Ribbon of the Turf. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $1.75.
Dole, N. H. Count Tolstoi's Gospel Stories. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Duffy, Lieut. E. History of the 150th Regiment, N. Y. S. V. New York: Francis F. Harper.

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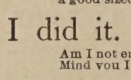

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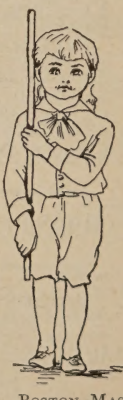

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 16, 1890.

The Week.

It would have been impossible, in the existing condition of politics and society in this city, to have made a ticket better adapted to the situation than that produced by the Municipal League last Thursday. Mr. Francis M. Scott, who heads it, is a man who has been the mainstay of every attempt to improve the city government through legislation for the last ten years. No bill relating to the city has been introduced at Albany during that period on the merits of which his opinion, it is safe to say, was not the best opinion to be had, so familiar is he with the working of our municipal machinery in every part, and so well does he understand all the devices by which it has been deranged or perverted for purposes of private gain. Moreover, he is a man of the highest personal character, whose motives in any public act no one who knows him has ever thought of questioning. He was in the Aqueduct Commission the trusted friend and colleague of the late Walter Howe, a man of precisely the same moral mould and an equally firm guardian of the public interest. In short, in any city in the world in which the chief executive officer is chosen solely with reference to the city's needs, he would be pronounced eminently worthy of the place. That he was not thought of sooner by the Committee of the League, shows how completely, under our present system of government, special fitness is thrown into the background in the minds of all of us when casting round for municipal candidates. We have actually grown accustomed to look on the nomination for an office of a specially qualified man as a piece of Quixotism, which may do for Englishmen and Germans, living under effete monarchies, but is wholly out of place in a model republic. Of the other candidates we believe all we hear of their fitness. It only remains now for the friends of good government, not simply to elect them by a bare majority, but by a majority so great as to convince the vicious and dangerous classes that the honest and industrious are easily masters in this city whenever they choose to assert themselves.

Boss Croker and his liquor-dealing followers have renominated Mayor Grant, as was anticipated. Only one newspaper, the *Sun*, has a word to say in Grant's favor. All the others are either silent on the subject, or strongly opposed. As for the *Sun's* support, one has only to recall the list, with Grant and his semi-criminal supporters at the end, of the rascals and shady political characters whom the editor of the *Sun* has taken to his bosom during the past twenty years. It would have been hard lines indeed for "Hughey" Grant if he had been excluded from this category. It is useless to point to a few respectable names on the ticket put in the field by such a body, and hope for any good to the city in the event of the ticket's election. Tammany is behind the ticket, and it is the Tammany gang that the people are asked to retain in power.

The signs of revolt against Quay in Pennsylvania are multiplying as the day of election draws near. Probably as good an indication as any is found in the increasing amount of anti-Quay literature in the columns of the Philadelphia *Ledger*. This paper is published on commercial principles strictly. The *Ledger* will not do any overt act or commit any offence against decency or good morals for any consideration. On the other hand, it will not knowingly quarrel with its bread and butter. Guided by these maxims, it has until lately dealt very gingerly with Quay and Delamater, and has kept out of its columns some of the most precious news of the day, which if published would have had a damaging effect upon them. The *Ledger* has been growing bolder lately. It published on Monday a sermon of three columns preached by a Philadelphia clergyman against Quayism. Hardly anything could establish more clearly the fact that it pays to oppose Quay.

The Rev. Dr. Phillips Brooks, the famous preacher, now for a long time Rector of Trinity Church, Boston, in his earlier life was for some years Rector of the important Church of the Holy Trinity in Philadelphia, from which it must result that he has still some special interest in Pennsylvania affairs. No doubt he was moved thereby, as well as by his instinct and training, and his duty as a moralist and public teacher, to address to Mr. Herbert Welsh, Secretary of the Lincoln Republican Committee, the following letter, which has been made public and will be circulated, together with other documents, in the anti-Quay interest:

> TRINITY PARISH, BOSTON, September 25, 1890.
>
> DEAR MR. WELSH: As a citizen and a Republican, I am thankful to know that the Republican citizens of Pennsylvania propose to protest against Quay. If ever such protest was needed, it seems as if it were needed now. I cannot come to the meeting, and indeed I think that the voices of Pennsylvania should mostly be heard on that occasion; but I bid you godspeed, and shall rejoice in your success.
>
> Yours most sincerely, PHILLIPS BROOKS.

Now we may prepare to see the Quay managers manifesting the same anxiety that Tammany has betrayed lest the clergy should soil themselves by contact with "politics"; but most honest people will think that when Quay and Tammany have reduced politics to the question of maintaining the Decalogue or not, the clergy have an eminent right to speak.

The nomination of David A. Wells for Congress by the Connecticut Democrats, and his acceptance, are among the best signs of the times. That the Democrats should be willing to nominate such a man shows that the party is gaining rapidly in positiveness and courage on the main question of the day—the gross abuse of the taxing power by the Federal Government. With this question no man in America is so competent to deal as Mr. Wells. No man in the United States, and not many elsewhere, handles economic questions with so sure a touch and with such fulness of information and such power of analysis. He is one of the very few among us whom we could send into any assembly of trained economists or statesmen in the world with the certainty that he would do us honor. He is essentially what Bishop Potter said he was in the Phi Beta Kappa address at Harvard last summer—a man who, "for a long time to come, will be recognized in both hemispheres as, in a department of learning fruitful in fallacies and half-truths, a true interpreter and disseminator of the truth." He will be a powerful reinforcement in Congress if he is elected, as we think he will be, to those in the House who know anything about trade, commerce, or industry.

Dr. William Everett, son of the famous Edward Everett, has been nominated to oppose Mr. Cabot Lodge for Congress. Mr. Everett is well known also as a "Scholar in Politics," and a distinguished Harvard man, and we trust may push Lodge hard, but we may rely on it that Lodge will not let himself be beaten if money and patronage can save him. In a speech at the Tremont Temple two years ago, Mr. Everett alluded to a statement of Mr. Lodge's that, on various political matters, he had "changed his mind," and went on to say that when a rising young statesman had excited the hopes of his friends by his devotion to the cause of reform, and had then gone into close alliance with mere partisan politicians, "he had not changed his mind; he had changed his soul and his heart." The canvass between the two "Scholars in Politics" is made all the more interesting by the fact that, for the first time in Massachusetts history, a political party has gone outside the limits of the district for a candidate. Mr. Lodge resides a part of the year in Boston, but his domicile and his tax residence are in Nahant, within the limits of the Sixth District, which is entirely north of Boston. Mr. Everett resides at Quincy, where he is the head of Adams Academy, and is separated by the whole width of Boston proper and Dorchester from Mr. Lodge's district. Going outside the limits of a district for a Congressional candidate was, before 1882, forbidden by law in Massachusetts, though there were great doubts if the law was constitutional; but this is the first instance of a convention's accepting the opportunity now offered. Of course the Republican papers are much concerned at the insult to the local Democracy, though the nomination was unanimous and by acclamation. We pre

sume if it had not come, Mr. Everett would have been nominated in the district in which he lives.

Mr. Russell, the Democratic candidate for Governor of Massachusetts, has raised a genuine "live issue" in the campaign by embodying in his first formal speech a discussion of the lobby scandal of the last session of the Legislature, as revealed in the West-End Railway franchise inquiry. He declared his determination to fight this "secret, irresponsible body, that stands like a giant robber between the people and the Legislature, demanding money of every interest that comes within its reach," and added:

"It is due to every interest seeking legislation that it should obtain a fair and full hearing without paying tribute to the lobby. It is due to the Legislature that it should not be beset by such secret influences. It is due to the Commonwealth that this body, which has grown up and has thrived under Republican administration—a body for which that administration is absolutely responsible—should be eradicated. What is the remedy? First, something more than measures to legalize the lobby. Measures should be adopted tending to limit or exterminate. Next, let the Governor of the Commonwealth declare that any act which comes to him tainted with improper influences cannot become a law with his approval. Speaking as the candidate of the people's party, charged with the duty of serving their interests only, I pledge myself, if elected, to use all power within my reach to apply these remedies to the evil."

This is the first formal appearance of the anti-lobby issue in our politics, but we are prepared to believe that the day is not far distant when it will be so important an issue that all candidates will have to take a stand on one side or the other of it.

We are under great obligations to the *Tribune* for revealing the date of one of the suspected foreign press extracts upon Belden's Congressional Republican campaign circular, namely, that from the London *Times*. The *Tribune* has found it in the *Times* of July 12, 1880, and gives it in its ungarbled form, which shows it to be quite a different thing from what it appears to be in Belden's circular, and that it was published over ten years ago. Here is the extract as Belden's mutilators give it:

[London Times.]

It is to the New World that the Cobden Club is chiefly looking as the most likely sphere for its vigorous foreign policy. It has done what it can in Europe, and it is now turning its eyes westward and bracing itself for the struggle which is to come. IT CANNOT REST WHILE THE UNITED STATES ARE UNSUBDUED.

Here it is as it appeared originally, and as given in the *Tribune* of Saturday, italics being ours:

It is to the New World that the Cobden Club is chiefly looking as the most likely sphere for its vigorous foreign policy. It has done what it can in Europe, and it is now turning its eyes westward and bracing itself for the struggle which is to come. It cannot rest while the United States are unsubdued, *so it will go on plying them with arguments and statistics, with books and pamphlets and speeches, until reason has at length done its work and has dislodged protection from the great stronghold in which it has entrenched itself.*

It will be observed that Belden's garbler changed the comma after "unsubdued" into a period, and suppressed the sentence which followed explanatory of the kind of work which the Cobden Club was to do in the New World—that is, by means of "arguments and statistics, with books and pamphlets," by appeals to reason. Nobody has ever denied that the Club does this kind of work. The protectionists have represented it as a great corrupting agency, with an illimitable fund supplied by British manufacturers, and the *Times* extract was garbled so as to give color to that view. Else why was it garbled at all? The *Tribune*, curiously enough, appears to think that its presentation of the text refutes our charge of forgery. What it does is, to make it perfectly plain why Belden's rascally hack did not put the precise date on one of the suspected quotations. Now will it help run him down on the other?

That the Cobden Club is an economical association with a small income, which it spends in circulating books and pamphlets, the Republican managers carefully conceal. Here is a specimen of the way the work is done, taken from the Des Moines (Iowa) *Register*, the Republicans being just now greatly alarmed in that State:

"The 'Cobden Club of London, England, and New York,' have actively joined hands with the Democratic party of Iowa and the nation, *to buy out the next House of Representatives of the United States!* Iowa Democracy is making the entire struggle of this year's contest for British interests. Prohibition and all other State and national issues are being held in abeyance, and the whole contest staked on free trade in the interest of English manufacturers, and *Cobden Club funds are paying the entire expenses of Iowa Democracy in this year's campaign!* These facts are undisputed. The conspiracy has been so strongly proven that denial is impossible. The Democratic State and Congressional committees have unlimited Cobden Club funds at their disposal, and Iowa and all other States are being flooded with free-trade documents from 'No. 52, Williams street, New York,' which is the United States office and headquarters of the British Cobden Club!"

Now, every sentence in this contains a lie, the greatest of all being of course the editor's impudent assertion that "the facts are undisputed." But it explains clearly why the Congressional Committee could not allow it to go forth, on the authority of the London *Times*, that the work of the Cobden Club was the supply of "arguments and statistics, books and pamphlets and speeches." So they converted a comma into a period, and suppressed the explanatory portion of the sentence, just like a "Hungry Joe" raising a check; and then chuckled over the trick when found out.

The *Tribune* claims in behalf of the Republican managers and editors, that "not more than three" of the hundreds of campaign extracts from English papers were even suspected of being "inaccurate"—a euphemism for being concocted bodily. This is a mistake. We hunted down more than that number ourselves, and either showed that they were garbled, or altered, or ascribed to important English journals when they came from obscure ones, in some cases American, or that the publishers were unable to say where they got them. In fact, *all* of them were suspected of having something wrong about them, if not of being wholly forged. Our denunciations of them in 1888 were almost constant, and met with no defence. As a general rule, the rascals who were issuing them took refuge in gloomy silence. The *Tribune* apparently forgets the old and well-founded rule, that when a man is found guilty of even one forgery, all papers which he issues for his own profit are justly suspected—that, in short, the presumption is against their genuineness. Its unconsciousness that there is anything wrong in "converting a comma into a period," and leaving out the explanatory portion of the sentence thus mutilated, represents the state of mind of the Beldens, Plummers, Quigs, and the like who are or have been engaged in this wretched business. They do not know how honorable men feel about such things, and are extremely puzzled, and even angry, when called to account for them. We think it no exaggeration to say that, since 1884, scores of cases of this species of dishonesty have passed under our eyes, but we have only exposed the worst ones, or those issuing from the most conspicuous sources. In most of them the game has not seemed worth the candle.

The new document issued by the Republican Campaign Committee must have been conceived in the spirit of insolent contempt for the understanding of those to whom it is addressed. In staring lines it bears the title: "The Tariff not a Tax. At all Events, not upon the American Consumer." Then follows the statement that "among the reckless assertions of the free-traders oftenest met with is the statement that the tariff is a tax upon the consumer. Of course it is, and then again, of course it isn't. A revenue tariff undoubtedly taxes the consumer; *a protective tariff has precisely the opposite effect.*" On another page it speaks of "a protective duty, which is often wholly, and always largely, paid by the exporter." Yet in the very next sentences it says: "By its additions to the free list, then, the Republican party has left in the people's pockets a sum which last year amounted to more than $65,000,000, and has opened our ports to merchandise—upon which the American consumer has heretofore been paying a tax—which was last year imported to the value of $365,406,000. *This is nearly 50 per cent. of the total importation, and is 10 per cent. greater than the face importation provided in the Mills bill.*" What "face importation" may be we shall leave the Republican Committee to explain; but what is to be said of the "face" of those who import into one little eight-page pamphlet such plain contradictions as these? "The tariff not a tax, at all events not upon the American consumer," on one page, and on another page credit claimed for leaving "in the people's pockets a sum which last year amounted to more than $65,000,000," through the remission of tariff duties and opening our ports to merchandise "*upon which the American consumer has heretofore been paying a tax.*" Surely, to print these statements together is the very insanity of presumption. The high-taxers seem to imagine that the farmers to whom this pamphlet is specially addressed cannot remember from page to page. We suspect that this will prove to be a grave miscalculation.

Mr. John R. Morris of Baltimore, who has been investigating the report that a tin-plate factory was to be established at once in that city under the protecting ægis of the McKinley Law, announces as the result of his inquiries that the "works have fled to Chicago," and warns that city to get a tight grip upon them, since the near approach of election day makes it extremely improbable that Chicago will be able to "keep said works over a week at the outside." He adds: "Mr. Quay has got our tin-plate works on the road, as theatrical people say, and St. Louis, Cincinnati, Louisville, and San Francisco must be allowed their turn till the next Congress is elected." Mr. Morris goes on to explain, in a more serious vein, the real object of the travelling "tin-plate factory":

"The whole talk about establishing works to make tin plate here or elsewhere is a fraudulent political device, to gull voters for a month into the belief that there is to be a new industry created. No tin plate is to be made in this country. The purpose in more than doubling the duty on imported tin plate was not to cause tin plate to be made in this country, but to compel the American public to use Pittsburgh sheet iron instead of tin plate for roofing. Our canning and domestic utensil industries were sacrificed to further a swindle. That this is the case is indicated by the clause in the new law taking the metal tin from the free list and imposing a duty of four cents a pound on it. That would never have been done if it had been intended that tin plate should really be made in the United States. Cheap pig-tin is required for a real tin-plate industry. By putting out silly stories just now, Mr. Quay hopes to break the force of these facts till after the election."

That good Republican newspaper, the Pittsburgh *Despatch*, says that a number of Welsh tin-plate men, whose names are given, have just concluded at that place an investigation undertaken with a view to establishing works there. They have decided that no money can be made in the business there or anywhere else in this country.

The public have not been unmindful of an advertisement in all the newspapers lately of the prospectus of the National Cordage Co. We refer to this company because it is one of the producers of binding-twine. The prospectus says that

"the annual aggregate profits of the several concerns for the past ten years have been more than enough to pay the annual dividend on the preferred stock and leave a very large surplus, notwithstanding the fact that, during some of that period, the interests now consolidated were in competition of a character now avoided.

"The Committee further certifies that at no time within the *past twenty-five years* have the aggregate annual profits of the several concerns been insufficient to pay the 8 per cent. dividend on the preferred stock, although the consumption of cordage at the beginning of that period was only one-quarter what it is to-day."

We invite attention to this statement in order to set it in juxtaposition with a statement of "the cordage-manufacturers of the United States" submitted to the Senate Committee on Finance on the 26th of May, 1890, viz.:

"The cordage and binder-twine manufacturers of the United States beg that your honorable committee will amend that clause in the Tariff Bill which relates to our business. It places a duty of 1¼ cents per pound upon binder-twine. *Should this become a law it will close our mills.* We ask for 1⅝ cents per pound, an increase of one-half cent."

Well, what did Congress do? It fixed the duty about one-half a cent per pound *lower* than the rate that these manufacturers said *would close their mills.* And now an important section of them (fourteen out of forty-two concerns) advertise in a strictly business way that the trade is highly profitable, and prospects for the future extremely flattering. We have no doubt that the latter statement is true, and that the former, the one presented with so much solemnity to Congress, was a falsehood, known to be such when made.

The State Department is said to be in some trouble of mind, and not wholly without reason, over the sort of semi-official welcome given to the Comte de Paris by the Collector at this port, who says he received him on behalf of his superior, the Secretary of the Treasury. The French Government may very well take umbrage at this, for two reasons. One is that the Comte de Paris is a pretender to the French throne, an enemy of the Government, and has for this reason been expelled from France. The other is, that he has recently, by his own confession, taken a prominent part in the Boulangist plot to overthrow the French Republic and possibly bring on his country the horrors of civil war. There are about this last incident several aggravating circumstances. Boulanger was the principal instrument, when Minister of War, in procuring the legislation which drove all possible claimants of the French throne, even the Duc d'Aumale, out of France. The baseness of this was shown by the production of a letter in which Boulanger expressed, in the most fulsome terms, his gratitude to the Duke for his promotion in the army. To the baseness of turning on his benefactor Boulanger added by denying falsely that he ever wrote the letter. There never was after this incident any difference of opinion among the best men in France about Boulanger's character. His subsequent conduct as a demagogue, a conspirator, and charlatan, and his exposure by the trial before the Senate as an embezzler of the public funds, therefore, took none of them by surprise. The Comte de Paris must have known him as well as any of them, better than most of them.

Nevertheless, the Comte de Paris did not hesitate to enter into a conspiracy with this charlatan to overturn the Government, and actually supplied him with funds for the purpose through the Duchesse d'Uzès. He has admitted this himself in a manifesto which the friends of the monarchy read with shame and astonishment. "Proscribed by the Republic," said he, "I employed, in order to oppose her, the weapons with which she furnished me. I do not regret having made use of them to divide Republicans." In other words, in order to revenge himself on the Republican Legislature for having exiled himself, he was willing to hire a man whom he knew to be a worthless adventurer, to plunge his country into confusion and disorder, and make Paris the scene of another, possibly bloody, revolution. We doubt if such an avowal from such a quarter can be found in history. There would, after all this, be, of course, a considerable want of good taste and discretion in the offer to the Comte de Paris of any official civilities. In fact, we might go so far as to say that there has been a certain want of judgment shown by him in selecting the United States, a sister republic, for a visit immediately after these unfortunate incidents in his career. He is justly entitled, of course, to a respectful reception from the public, and a hearty greeting from his old comrades of the Army of the Potomac, in consideration of his services in the field during the rebellion; but at this juncture care will have to be taken by our Government to prevent the perfectly proper civilities he will receive in this country from having, in French eyes, the air of a public or official welcome.

Signor Crispi's denunciation of "Irredentism" at the banquet given him in Florence is but an expansion of what he said about it a short time previously in an interview with the correspondent of the *Figaro*. "Irredentism" means, as most of our readers know, a movement to rescue what its promoters call "unredeemed Italy (*Italia irridenta*)"—that is, the territory now belonging to Austria and Switzerland occupied by an Italian-speaking population, but which really has not belonged to Italy proper for centuries. The only portion of it which can be said to be in Italy proper is the Swiss Canton of Ticino, which fills the Italian side of the San Gothard pass; but the trouble here is that the Ticinese want to remain Swiss, for Swiss they have been three hundred years. To the correspondent of the *Figaro* Signor Crispi said: "Irredentism is a fad with some of our young men. In 1866 we might have got more. Our statesmen committed mistakes. I will not jeopardize what I have for the sake of a rectification of the frontiers, either on the side of Austria or elsewhere." This sounds like the robust common sense which has, in fact, on the whole, marked Italian politics ever since the kingdom was established. Irredentism means war with Austria, at least, and would put an end to the Triple Alliance, which is Italy's main reliance for defence against France. To an observation about the size of the European armaments, Signor Crispi answered: "I know it; these armaments will end by ruining Europe for the benefit of America." He apparently knows nothing about our pensions, which as a financial burden surpass in size the military outlay of any of the European Powers. Our advantage over them lies simply in greater ability to pay the money. In folly we should run neck and neck with them but for the fact that we let our pensioners stay at home and work if they please. Thousands have, however, been made by the pensions as unproductive as soldiers, for the pension leads often to loafing and drunkenness.

M'KINLEY PRICES.

PRICES of goods under the McKinley Tariff are now generally called McKinley prices, as distinguished from ordinary or normal prices. The peculiarity of McKinley prices is, that they are generally higher in the things that we are in the habit of importing, but unchanged in the things that we do not import. This is directly contrary to the promise of the framers and friends of the bill, who tell us that protection makes lower prices for the protected goods—a manifest untruth, since it is absurd to suppose that the manufacturers would go to Congress and ask for anything that would make lower prices for what they have to sell. Still more absurd would it be for them to contribute a fund of several hundred thousand dollars and put it in the hands of Matthew Quay, to carry an election for the express purpose of lowering the prices of their products. Still, there were a good many people foolish enough to believe this. They are being rapidly undeceived by the advertisements and circulars flying about the country announcing the McKinley prices of goods.

Our portfolio of McKinley prices is on the increase from day to day. For example, a dealer in hardware informs his customers that wire of which clock springs are made was taxed three cents per pound under the old tariff, but under the McKinley Bill is taxed *one dollar and sixty-three cents per pound*, an advance over the old rate of 5,300 per cent. What the McKinley price of this raw material of clocks may be, we are not advised.

A dealer in pearl buttons sends us an invoice with the duties as actually paid October 7:

1,473 gross pearl buttons, value in Vienna	$628 00
25 per cent. duty	157 00
Additional duty under McKinley tariff	754 80
	$1,539 80

The McKinley Bill is virtually a non-intercourse act as to many countries and things. Accompanying this invoice is a circular from Newell Bros. Manufacturing Co. of Springfield, Mass., announcing the McKinley prices of their make of *ivory* buttons. These are 30, 33, 35, and 45 in place of 26 and 30 as formerly. Ivory, however, is on the free list.

Two circulars have been forwarded to us from dealers in stationery touching the prices of blank-books. Liebenroth, Von Auw & Co., No. 50 Franklin Street, say that they are obliged to charge 25 per cent. advance on letter-copying books and 10 per cent. on all blank books except a few specified classes. Boorum & Pease, manufacturers of the same class of goods, Nos. 30 and 32 Reade Street, say that "*the revised tariff measure* and the steady increase for the past six months in the cost of leather," etc., have compelled them to announce an advance of "*at least* 25 per cent. in prices of our letter-copying books, and also an advance of 10 per cent. on all other goods in our catalogue," except a few specified articles.

The effect of the McKinley prices on the minds of the people has alarmed the Republican Campaign Committee so much that they have printed a new document containing the following statements:

"It [the McKinley Bill] will materially reduce the farmer's expenses and greatly increase his profits.

"It will not raise the price to the American consumer of one single article *that can be termed a necessary expense.*"

Observe the phraseology of the latter paragraph. The framers of the pamphlet could no longer say that the price will not be raised to the American consumer of anything that is bought in the market—evidence to the contrary is coming to them in showers. So they said that it would not raise the price of anything that could be considered necessary. We are thus led to ask what things are necessary.

Are buttons necessary, for example? By one of the most outrageous provisions ever inserted in a tariff bill, or in any bill, the duty on pearl buttons has been raised more than 100 per cent. and the cost doubled "to the American consumer." These buttons are used on the clothing of men, women, and children in countless numbers. They are not made in this country at all. They are made by poor people residing in the suburbs of Vienna. But other buttons, which can be used as a substitute for pearl buttons, are made here. The object of the pearl-button tax was to enable the manufacturers of these substitutes to put up their prices, and they have not lost a moment in doing so. Will the Republican Campaign Committee now tell us whether buttons are "a necessary expense" or not? Shall we discard them and use pins, or hooks and eyes, or holes and strings?

Are carpets necessary to the American people? They have gone up 25 per cent. since the passage of the McKinley Bill, in consequence of the new duty on carpet wool, and a Trust has been formed to control competition. Two-fifths of the looms in Philadelphia have been stopped and put under lock and key.

Is flannel necessary to American consumers? The prices of certain grades and qualities have been raised according to the following schedule:

NEW YORK, October 8, 1890.

Messrs. Le Boutillier Bros.:

DEAR SIRS: On and after October 9, 1890, the price of our 26 27-inch French serge twill flannel will be 52½ cents per yard (present price 42½ cents), 26-27-inch French plain printed striped and dotted flannel 57½ cents (present price 52½ cents), 26-27-inch French fancy printed striped flannel will be 60 cents per yard (present price 55 cents). Yours truly,

ARNOLD, CONSTABLE & CO.

Is linseed oil necessary? The duty is increased by the McKinley Bill from 25 cents to 32 cents per gallon, and the price has risen in our market even more than the duty, the article being controlled by a Trust.

We suppose that the Committee would say that kid gloves are not necessary. The effort of any poor girl to show some mark of gentility is usually manifested by the wearing of kid gloves of some grade or description. But the Committee would say undoubtedly that gentility is not necessary. Gloves of the cheaper grades are advanced by the McKinley Bill from 10 to 25 per cent.

Now, let us see how the two quoted paragraphs from this new Republican campaign document agree with each other. The first one says that the McKinley Bill will greatly increase the profits of farmers. The second one says that it "will not raise the price to the American consumer of *a single article* that can be termed a necessary expense." Even if we allow that buttons, carpets, flannels, blank-books, linseed oil, kid gloves, etc., are not necessary, and that we might make shift to do without them, this cannot be said of farm products. Wheat, corn, pork, and beef are unquestionably necessaries of life. We are now told that the McKinley Bill will not raise the price of any of these things, although we were told beforehand that it would raise the prices of all of them. It has not raised the prices of any of them, because they are articles of export. How, then, will the McKinley Bill "greatly increase the profits of farmers"? In a few localities along the Canadian border, the prices of eggs and potatoes will be raised by the bill. In this way alone will the first-quoted paragraph be made good, but only by giving the lie to the second one, which says that *not a single article* that can be termed necessary will be raised in price? Are not potatoes necessary to the New England operative?

We have cited only a few of the articles necessary to civilized life that have been raised in price by the McKinley Bill. We have not heard, however, of any case in which wages have been raised by it. On the other hand, we have heard of one case where wages have been lowered by it. The silk-ribbon weavers of Paterson reported to the Central Labor Federation on Sunday that their wages had been cut 20 per cent. since the passage of the bill. On the other hand, the McKinley Administrative Bill was intended to prohibit the importation of silks by making new and monstrous requirements of the foreign manufacturers, and the effect has been to produce as much consternation at Lyons as the duty on pearl buttons has produced in Vienna. The first consequence on our side of the water, as we have seen, has been a reduction of wages among our own silk operatives.

ARE SUGAR BOUNTIES CONSTITUTIONAL?

THE Chicago *Tribune* takes leave to advise its party friends that the sugar-bounty clause of the McKinley Bill is unconstitutional, and that it will be so declared by the Supreme Court whenever the question comes before it. There can be very little doubt that the *Tribune* is right in the first half of its contention. Senator Carlisle, in his concluding speech on the McKinley Bill, quoted decisions denying the constitutionality of taxes imposed to aid private persons or corporations in carrying on business, pronounced by the highest courts of California, Michigan, Wisconsin, Maine, Pennsylvania, and Kansas, by the United States Circuit Court of Missouri, and by the Supreme Court of the United States, besides the weighty opinions of Judge Thomas M.

Cooley and of the late Judge Story, in their respective commentaries on constitutional law. These decisions and opinions seem to cover every point that it is possible to raise in relation to bounty-paying, and to leave nothing to be said on the other side. Indeed, nothing was said on the other side. Not one decision was cited in opposition, while no less than three from the Supreme Court of the United States were cited to sustain Mr. Carlisle's positions.

Considering the importance of the principles involved and the possible consequences of such a precedent—which warrants every industry and every man whose profits are not satisfactory to him in calling on Congress for help—it is worth while to look more particularly at the cases in the United States Supreme Court here referred to. The first was that of Parkersburg vs. Brown (106 U. S., 487). The Legislature of West Virginia had authorized the city of Wheeling to issue bonds and loan money for the purpose of encouraging the establishment of manufacturing industries, and to take bonds and mortgages upon the property to secure its repayment. A vote of the people had been taken. The bonds had been actually issued and the money received for them. The Court held that the act was a gross perversion of the taxing power, that the bonds were absolutely void, and that no tax could be levied to pay either principal or interest. In the well-known case of Loan Association vs. Topeka (20 Wallace, 655) the Court said:

> "To lay with one hand the power of the Government on the property of the citizen, and with the other to bestow it upon favored individuals to aid private enterprises and build up private fortunes, is none the less a robbery because it is done under the forms of law and is called taxation. This is not legislation. It is a decree under legislative forms.
>
> "Nor is it taxation. A 'tax,' says Webster's Dictionary, 'is a rate or sum of money assessed on the person or property of a citizen by the government for the use of the nation or state.' Taxes are burdens or charges imposed by the Legislature upon persons or property to raise money for public purposes."

The array of legal authority on this question is overwhelming and is all on one side. In the case of the sugar bounties there is not even the pitiful excuse commonly advanced for such taxes, that the money will put the business on a paying basis, and therefore will be well invested. On the contrary, the very reason for paying the sugar bounties is that the business is a losing one. It is not pretended by anybody that the bounty will be of any avail except to make good the deficits of the sugar-planters. Much was said about the German bounties in the course of the debate, as though that example was a good one for us to follow; but Mr. Carlisle showed that the German Government received a net revenue from beet sugar of $9,000,000 per annum, after paying the bounty on exportation. This bounty is in the form of a drawback. It was, in its inception, the result of accident entirely. At the time when the present internal tax on beet roots was imposed, twelve and a half tons of beets yielded one ton of sugar. A drawback on exported sugar equal to the tax was allowed—that is, the sugar-manufacturer first paid a certain tax on twelve and a half tons of beets; then, if he exported one ton of sugar, the Treasury repaid him exactly what he had paid to it, else he could not have competed with other sugar-makers, or shared in the world's markets. But as time and invention went on, the sugar-makers learned how to get more than one ton of sugar out of twelve and a half tons of beets. They now get one ton out of eight and a half tons of beets, and, as the law has not been changed, they receive from the Treasury in drawbacks more than they pay to it in taxes on *exported* sugar, but not more than they pay on all the sugar produced by them. There is no drawback or refund of taxes on the sugar consumed in Germany, and thus it comes about that the Government receives a net revenue of about $9,000,000 from sugar, whereas our Government has made up an arrangement to produce a net deficit of about that sum, to be made good by taxes on all the people.

But whether this bounty-paying be constitutional or unconstitutional, there seems to be no way to bring the matter before the courts. A mandamus will not lie against a public officer to do a thing as to which he has a discretion. Still less will an injunction lie to restrain him from doing what the law requires him to do. No tribunal has been clothed with power to inquire into the constitutionality of laws except where private rights are affected, and where those rights are properly brought before the court for adjudication. Therefore, there seems to be no way of getting a judicial decision on the question, although the unconstitutionality of the bounty is evident, and the injustice and impolicy of it even more so.

THE POPULATION CENSUS.

It now seems practically certain that the census returns of the total population of the country will themselves demonstrate the defective character of the canvass by which they were obtained, far more conclusively than any number of partial recounts are at all likely to do. Up to October 10 the population of 137 out of the 175 supervisor districts into which the country was divided, had been announced. These districts are scattered all over the land, and there is no reason to suppose that the rate of increase in the 38 districts yet to be heard from will differ materially from that of the 137 already made public. The population of these 137 districts in 1880 was 40,352,446. According to the census returns, the same districts contain in 1890 49,909,961 inhabitants, an increase of 9,557,515, or at the rate of 23.68 per cent. If this rate be not exceeded in the one-fifth of the country not yet counted (and there is nothing to indicate that it will be), the census total of the population of the United States will little, if any, exceed 62,000,000.

According to the official statistics of immigration, the number of immigrants who came to this country during the ten years ending July 1, 1890, was, exclusive of those coming from Canada, 5,242,530, or nearly twice as many as ever before landed on our shores in a like period of time, and one-third more than the entire number of inhabitants of this country when the first census was taken in 1790. Doubtless there was some emigration, of which we have no reliable statistics. It is, however, not at all likely to have exceeded the immigration from Canada, of which of late years no official figures have been given. It is, therefore, safe to assume that of the entire increase, which, according to the Census Office, will be apparently less than 12,000,000, 5,250,000 are to be credited to foreign immigration, and but 6,650,000, or about 13¼ per cent., to natural causes. This percentage is, as the following table will show, so much below the rate of natural increase during any previous decade of the country's history as to amount in itself to a demonstration of the untrustworthiness of the Eleventh Census. (The asterisk denotes an estimate):

Date of census.	Population.	Total decennial increase.	Immigration during decade.	Natural increase during decade.	Percentage of total increase.	Percentage of increase due to Immigration.	Percentage of natural increase.
1890	*62,632,679	*11,976,880	5,245,330	*6,631,550	*23.68	10.45	*13.23
1880	50,155,783	11,597,419	2,812,191	8,785,228	30.07	7.29	22.78
1870	38,558,371	7,115,050	2,453,824	4,838,008	22.63	7.74	14.89
1860	31,443,321	8,251,445	5,573,500	5,611,889	35.58	11.12	24.46
1850	23,191,876	6,122,433	1,713,251	4,409,148	35.87	10.27	25.60
1840	17,069,453	4,203,433	599,125	3,604,308	32.67	4.65	28.02
1830	12,866,020	3,227,198	143,439	3,083,759	33.55	1.49	32.06
1820	9,638,822	2,393,941	*118,385	2,303,941	33.07	*1.64	31.43
1810	7,239,881	1,931,398	*70,000	1,851,398	36.38	*1.32	35.06
1800	5,308,483	1,379,269	*70,000	1,299,269	35.10	*1.78	33.32
1790	3,929,214						

It appears that the rate of natural increase indicated by the census of 1890 is less than 60 per cent of that shown by the census of 1880, is less than during the decade when the country was ravaged by war, is scarcely more than half of that shown by the censuses of 1850 and 1840, and is very much less than half of the natural increase during any decade previous to 1830. It is doubtless true that the rise in the standard of comfort, and the great increase in the proportion of urban to rural population, have caused and have been accompa-

nied by a marked decrease in the birth-rate. But it is not possible to believe that, in the absence of a prolonged and devastating war, or a widespread and deadly pestilence, the rate of natural increase should suddenly, in the short space of ten years, have fallen from 22¾ to 13¼ per cent. Even if allowance be made, as allowance should be made, for the fact that the census of 1870 was very defective, and that therefore the apparent rate of increase in 1880 was greater than was really the case, it still remains true that no such diminution in the rate of natural increase as the census of 1890 will indicate, is at all credible.

RAILWAYS AND FARMERS.

Mr. J. S. Jeans, the Secretary of the British Iron and Steel Institute, now in this country, has a readable article upon American Railways and British Farmers in the September *Nineteenth Century*. He dwells upon the great fall in our average freight rate, and not only ascribes to it the agricultural depression in England, but also calls it a most potent factor in the decline in the values of manufactures and other commodities during the last decade. He gives a number of reasons why our railroads have been able to bear up under such reductions; longer trains, heavier cars, and more work per engine being the principal ones. The English railways come in for severe though but partly deserved criticism, because their charges have not been reduced, and because, from "slower-moving minds," their managers have not availed themselves, even to a small degree, of American experience in transportation economy. The fact is stated that a net revenue of about $3,000 per mile on our roads will pay a 5 per cent. dividend, whereas the same dividend on English railways requires earnings of $12,500 per mile. This leads to the further query why American roads, with all their "water," should have cost but about one-fourth that of the British lines, when materials and labor are higher here. Strange to say, no itemized statement of the capital cost of English railways has been made, so we cannot account for so great a difference.

Passing from this, Mr. Jeans raises two important questions: Will the United States continue to supply Europe with breadstuffs, and will the future supply be carried at charges cheaper than the present? The United States of late have not held their old position in relation to the foreign food supply, but Mr. Jeans thinks that we shall recover it. Our land under cereals now comprises but one-seventh of our area, excluding Alaska; and even with allowances for lakes and mountains we can, by cultivation of available land and by irrigation, bring immense supplies of grain to market "if it is shown to be worth while." The London correspondent of *Bradstreet's*, Mr. Bear, in a late letter, said "the feeding capacity of the United States could be doubled in a single year. It is all a question of price." This gentleman for years has been prophesying a decline in our exports of breadstuffs because of a reduction in the European value of wheat which would leave no profit to our farmers. Contrary to this opinion, Mr. Edward Atkinson calculates that American farmers can sell wheat in Liverpool at 25s. per quarter (say 70 to 75 cents per bushel in New York) and still make a profit. The argument of the *Nineteenth Century*, to the same effect, is based largely on the future construction of railroad mileage, and is in brief this: The average miles constructed yearly have been 5,417. In twenty years, at this rate of increase, our system would contain 270,000 miles. The traffic necessary to support such a system (at the same quantity per mile as now) would require 410,000,000 tons more than are now carried. This great increase would of necessity be composed largely of cereals and products of cereals which can find a market only abroad.

The decline of late years in our exports of breadstuffs has been greater in values than in quantity, and it is possible that this condition may continue. With increasing competition from Russia, India, South America, and other countries, a gradual fall in the price of grain may be expected. If, in addition to these reasons of Mr. Jeans, there should be a permanent check to our international trade, such a check, under the assumption that we must continue to raise and export cereals, would register itself first of all in the prices paid us for our exports, rather than in the quantity exported. This price would be lowered in proportion as trade from Europe to America was made difficult and expensive. The opinion that these exports must continue, finds support in the fact that agriculture is the slowest of all pursuits to accommodate its overabundance in any product to the laws of demand and supply.

Such declines in value, Mr. Jeans thinks, would be inevitably followed by reductions in rates of transportation. Our increasing railroads create traffic and in turn must have it even at lowering tariffs; at the same time, if values of produce fall, a demand for a corresponding reduction in railroad charges is certain to be made. There is also the further probability of better facilities and lower charges for water transportation, both ocean and inland. Under this view of the case, time must be our main reliance for bringing about adjustments and remedies for the lower prices which farmers of the West and East and in England apparently must expect.

As for the railroads, the case looks brighter. Our transportation lines can adjust themselves to altered conditions much more easily and quickly than we can hope for in agriculture. A large export traffic with lower charges need not mean less returns to security-holders. A large expenditure of capital, producing a smaller cost per unit, is the law of progress. Our mechanical engineers and officers think that the limit of cheapness in railroad operating has been reached; but so, indeed, they thought before Bessemer made steel rails, and invention will not die with Bessemer. If air-brakes applied to freight-trains (with other improvements for safety) will enable 50 or 100 per cent. more freight-trains to be run with greater speed over a given piece of track each day, we shall double the earning power of that track without doubling the expenses; but this cannot be done without an outlay of capital for appliances and for terminals which shall be able cheaply to dispose of the increase of traffic. Under this reasoning the outlook is better for railroad than for farm-owners, whether the latter are in America or in England.

A FUGITIVE FROM THE TERROR.

Paris, September 30, 1890.

The Salamons are a family of the Comtat Venaissin. One of them was consul at Carpentras (all these southern cities had consuls: they had preserved the traditions of Rome). He had two sons, Baron de Salamon and Louis Sifferin, who became a bishop and the Pope's internuncio in Paris during the Revolution. The Abbé Bredier possesses a copy of the Memoirs of this internuncio, which have recently been published. Salamon was born in 1760, and was educated at Lyons by the Oratorians; at the age of twenty he was admitted doctor of the famous University of Avignon; at the age of twenty-two he was appointed "auditeur de la Rote d'Avignon." He bought a councillorship in the Parlement of Paris, and took part in the debates at the famous trial of the diamond necklace. In 1790 Pius VI. appointed him his internuncio at the court of Louis XVI. He had been already, for some years, a sort of unofficial correspondent of the Holy See. When the Revolution broke out, Salamon's mission became difficult and dangerous: he spread among the general public the papal briefs, written on the question of the civil constitution of the French clergy. These briefs were sent, with all the canonical forms, to the metropolitan, who had them printed, and they were then distributed by Mgr. de Salamon. The internuncio was arrested and thrown in the prison of the Abbaye. He thus became one of the witnesses of the famous massacres of September, and it is a miracle that he was not also one of the victims of this event, which Napoleon called the Saint Bartholomew of the Revolution.

The first chapter of the Memoirs now published, and dedicated to Mme. de Villeneuve (born Countess of Ségur), has this title: "My martyrdom from Sunday, September 2, 1792, at two o'clock P. M., to Monday, the 3d of the same month, at eight o'clock A. M., in the garden of the Abbey of St. Germain-des-Près." Well could he say to Mme. de Villeneuve, as Æneas to Dido—

"Infandum, regina, jubes renovare dolorem."

Salamon had, after his arrest, been conducted to the dépôt of the mairie (which is now the Prefecture of Police). He was taken before a committee of five men, among whom he recognized Marat, whom he had known as a doctor (of the stables of the Comte d'Artois, a veterinary doctor). At the dépôt he found several priests, the grand vicars of Toulouse, of Bourges, of Strasbourg, together with some Paris curates. On September 1, 1792, a member of the Commune, with his tricolor sash, came and said: "The sixty-three oldest among you will be transferred to the Abbaye; let them come forward and enroll themselves." "Though I was," says the internuncio, "one of the last arrived, I hastened—I do not know why—to present myself, and I was enrolled without anybody asking me any questions. It was surely an inspiration of heaven; for to it is due the fact that I am still alive, as will be seen hereafter." Eighteen prisoners were left behind, the best known among them being the Abbé Sicard, the educator of the deaf and dumb. He was only transferred with the others the next day at two o'clock, at the mo-

ment when the massacres began, and all his companions, without any interrogatory, were massacred when they left their carriage; Sicard alone was saved. A watchmaker who was a great patriot and revolutionist, threw himself between him and the murderers, and begged them to spare a man "who was so necessary to suffering humanity."

Let us return to Salamon. He spent his first night at the Abbaye in the refectory of the monks, with eighty-three prisoners, on a mattress where a place was offered him by an unknown man, a negro soldier, who was a deserter. The next day he was again put among the priests, his first companions; it was the 2d of September and a Sunday. At two o'clock, during a repast which the prisoners were taking, the keeper, opening the door with much noise, said to them: "Make haste! The people are marching against the prisons and have already begun to massacre the prisoners." They left their repast and prepared themselves for death. The screams of the mob were already heard. The prisoners, addressing themselves to the old curate of Saint-Jean-en-Grève, an old man of eighty-four years, who had a great reputation for sanctity, asked him to give them all the absolution *in articulo mortis*. He said to them that the danger did not seem to him sufficiently imminent, and that they had better make confession. The internuncio was making his to the old curate when the keeper came back. "The people are more and more enraged; there are perhaps two thousand men in the Abbaye." He added that all the Carmelite priests had been massacred already. The old curate then consented to give solemnly to all the priests who were round him the absolution *in articulo mortis*. After having done so, he asked the internuncio to give him absolution in his turn.

Then they all began to sing the prayers for the dying, the accustomed litanies; many were crying. Night came; at half-past eleven, the assault on the Abbaye began. Seeing that one of his companions had escaped by a high window, left open, the internuncio, who was very strong, succeeded in reaching the same window, and jumped out. Thirteen prisoners followed them; the fear of death gave them wings—already the doors were forced. Salamon found himself in a little court. Some of the invaders soon arrived; they had for their mission to save a certain Abbé Godard, who knew the mistress of Manuel, the procureur of the Commune. Godard, who was six feet high and had first jumped out into the little court, where he was followed by Salamon, was seized by a tall man, who shouted, "There is the brigand," and disappeared with him. Salamon threw himself towards the door, screaming, "I am not guilty!" An old man, who had a torch in his hand and blood on his clothes, said to him, "Come! if you are not guilty, no harm will be done to you." The crowd opened before them; not a word was said. They crossed a long court and walked unmolested through a great crowd and under "una bella luna, che illuminava tanti furfanti" (the original Memoirs were written in Italian). It is quite clear that among the murderers were some men hired to save certain of the prisoners. The internuncio profited by these arrangements, though they were probably not made in his favor. Some other prisoners also profited by them. Salamon had abandoned the ecclesiastical costume since the 10th of August, and this probably saved him. The candid account which he gives of his emotions is not very creditable to his courage; there was evidently nothing in him of the saint or of the hero, and the rest of the Memoirs proves it.

When we speak of the clergy of the eighteenth century, we can show two extreme types—one the heroic curate of Saint John, who received death with as much calm as the early martyrs; the other the *abbé galant*, such as appears in so many memoirs of the time. The Papal internuncio was something between the two—nearer, I am afraid, the second than the first. He was egoistical, a gourmand, always waited upon by women who spoiled him, sent him presents of fruit and other good things, who felt for him that peculiar sort of devotion which we may call, in want of a better name, ecclesiastical devotion. He saw few priests, and sought the society of men and women of the world. He was, on the whole, very secular. The heroine of his Memoirs is his old governess, Blanchet, who had a sort of canine affection for him.

After the massacres of September he continued to remain in France, but he had no further diplomatic duties and ceased to be an internuncio; he became merely a Vicar-apostolic—a title which shows well the religious condition of France at the time. He continued, in that capacity, to correspond with Pius VI. and Cardinal Zedala, but his correspondence with them is unfortunately lost. We must remember that Salamon had been a lawyer, a member of the Parlement, before he became a representative of the Holy See. As such, like all his confrères, he had signed a protest of the Parlement against the acts of the National Assembly. This document was discovered in 1794, and the name of Salamon was found on it. The members of the Committee of General Security (a singular name for such a committee) issued a writ against him. With his usual luck, he succeeded in escaping, and the Memoirs give us in minute details the history of this Odyssey during the Terror. We see in it a former member of the Parlement, an official representative of the Holy See, obliged to hide in the woods, to sleep on straw, to become a vagrant, to lead, as he says himself, the life of a wild beast of the forest. Curiously enough, he never interrupted, during this period, his correspondence with Rome and with a few priests in France, proscribed like himself. "Ma vie sous la Terreur" reads like a sensational novel, and is full of characteristic anecdotes. Salamon was able to go to Paris every week, and lived the rest of the time chiefly in the Bois de Boulogne or at Passy.

After the death of Robespierre, a great change took place, and Salamon was able to resume his usual life. He remained as Vicar-apostolic till 1801, when he was relieved of his functions by Mgr. Caprara, and was appointed administrator of the dioceses of Normandy. That province was very much agitated. There were divisions between the members of the clergy who had taken the oath to the Constitution and those who had not. The concordat was not yet signed. Salamon sent important notes to the Pope, and, his mission having come to an end, he reëntered private life for a long period. Why was he not appointed to one of the bishoprics after the concordat? We do not know; he was obliged to content himself with being made *episcopus in partibus*. In 1820, at the age of sixty-two years, he was appointed Bishop of Saint-Flour. He performed his episcopal duties with much zeal, and died on the 11th of June, 1829. Though he had sybaritic tastes, at least in his youth, as the Memoirs show almost at every page, he wished to be interred like the poor, and to be put in what is called the "fosse commune."

Correspondence.

PARTIES AND THE PEOPLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to me very strange that anybody who contemplates the session of Congress which has just closed, the actual amount of evil which it has accomplished in the present, and its forebodings of far worse evils in the future, can imagine for a moment that this is a mere question of party or can be remedied by the mere substitution of a Democratic for a Republican majority. The spirit of the Democrats will be to say, as Mr. Bryce puts it in his admirable article in the *North American Review*, "They have chastised us with whips, but if we get into power we will chastise them with scorpions." Even if, chastened by adversity, they begin with moderation, it will not take many years for them to better the instruction they have received.

Will they come into power? The Republicans have set themselves to make friends with the Mammon of Unrighteousness, and they have made them with a vengeance. Witness this story going the rounds of the papers, and which, if not true, is at least well invented. It is said that a gang, of which at least some of the Senators and Representatives are members, taking advantage of the act which they helped to pass, have bought 40,000,000 ounces of silver at about 97 cents, and are selling it to the Government at $1.10 to $1.20. Think what material for a campaign fund is there! And if we add to it the plunder which the robber barons will draw from the McKinley Bill, one is lost in admiration at the resources which a grateful constituency is ready to place at the disposal of the Republican managers, especially when eked out by judicious economy in expenditure in the "doubtful" States. Was there anything more corrupt in the Parliament of George the Third, or in France before the First Revolution? And we are the descendants of the men who rose in armed rebellion because the British Government put a tax on tea!

The fact is, that Congress is suffering from organic disease deeply rooted in its organization and modes of doing business—a disease which will need for its treatment the full strength of a national public opinion under strong leadership, and which, unless it is remedied, will drag us steadily down to a bottomless depth—unless we find a resting-place in the present condition of the Argentine Confederation. In Mr. Bryce's article referred to, he describes the Speaker of the House of Commons and his substitute, the Chairman of Committees, as being, by virtue of custom and the traditions of their offices, so thoroughly impartial and independent of party that they have been intrusted with extraordinary power without fear of abuse, though he expresses some anxiety for the future. In your article of October 2 you describe our Speaker as "a furious and reckless partisan, who has openly taken charge of money-making legislation and browbeaten the minority as public enemies." The difference between the two is owing to a process of evolution from the necessities of Congress, just as the Darwinian theory ascribes the growth of the organs of animals to the pressure of their natural wants and circumstances. Every body of men must have one or more leaders. If these are not provided, they will make them for themselves. You cannot get fifty men together, at least of the Anglo-Saxon race, without their choosing a presiding officer and giving him power to

enforce rules and order. For any permanent efficiency, however, there must be another and separate leader for the conduct of business. In the House of Commons this leadership is exercised by the Ministry, thus leaving the Speaker free to exercise his own invaluable functions. In our House of Representatives, on the other hand, there is no leader of business of any kind. The chairmen of the standing committees, who come nearest to it, are only local representatives, speak only for their committees on their special subject, and are themselves so numerous that no one can be called a leader. The only man who can possibly claim such a position is the Speaker, who has thus developed into a leader of both kinds with the result of spoiling both. He cannot be an impartial presiding officer, because he has to push through the party business. He cannot be an effective party leader, because he has no initiative or voice as to the kind of business, but must content himself with pushing through schemes hatched by other party managers under the influence of the lobby, and for which he cannot be held responsible.

The only reform which will be of any use is to provide adequate leaders of business, who can only be the executive heads of the departments, and thus leave our Speaker also free for his proper functions. No help can be expected from Congress, because the present method is most favorable to the party tyranny which a majority always desires. The only hope is in volunteer crusaders who feel the crisis, and are willing to devote themselves to an appeal to the country. G. B.

BOSTON, October 11, 1890.

THE WORD *RUM*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: But a very few years ago the origin of the word *rum* was a puzzle to the makers of dictionaries. One after another had been content to describe it as "an American or West Indian word." Indeed, even so late as 1889, no attempt was made to deal with the origin of the word, in 'Worcester's Dictionary.' At length, Prof. Skeat of the University of Cambridge expressed dissent. In the second edition of his 'Etymological Dictionary,' he said: "Sometimes said to be a W. Indian or American word; for which there is not the slightest evidence. The etymology of this word has never been pointed out; I think it is obviously a corruption of the Malay *brum*, or *bram*, the loss of *b* being due to want of familiarity with the Malay language," etc., etc.

In 1885 there appeared in *Timehri*, a periodical published in British Guiana, a paper with the title of "The Etymology of the Word Rum." It was written by Mr. Darnell Davis, the Comptroller of Customs of British Guiana. The writer claimed that Rum was a clipped word, and that it was cut off from *Rumbullion*, which was the original name given to the spirit made from the juice of the sugar-cane in the earliest days of its manufacture by the planters of Barbados. Instances of the use of Rumbullion were given in *Timehri*. The first was from a manuscript in Trinity College, Dublin, which contains "a briefe description of the Island of Barbados," and which, although undated, bears internal evidence of having been written in 1651. In describing the various drinks then in vogue in Barbados, the writer says: "The chief fudling they make in the Island is *Rumbullion alias Kill-Divill*, and this is made of sugar-canes distilled, a hot, hellish, and terrible liquor." The second instance was taken from a news letter from Leyden, dated 23d February, 1652, and published in No. 90 of *Mercurius Politicus* for the week from the 19th to the 26th of February, 1652. There is a report in that news letter of the latest intelligence from Barbados, which includes the following statement:

"He that brings these tydings to us saith the English Lord Willoughby there, that governs for the King, or rather for himself, hath strengthened all the ports and avenues there, as Carlile, Spike Bay, etc. So that part by the Brandywine wherewith we have furnisht him, the spirits of *Rombullion*, which our men there make him, and other good hopes we give him, he becomes Very valiant."

The last instance was taken from volume ii. of Gen. Lefroy's valuable 'Memorials of the Bermudas,' in which the following record was given of an order made on the 27th of November, 1660, at the Assizes: "(1.) John Moclarie, an Irishman, haueing presumptuouslie undertaken to deliver a caske of Rumbullian to the Gouernor's Negroe woman Sarah Simon to keepe, if not to retaile the same for his aduantage, and thereby haueing occasioned great disorder and drunkenesse amongst the Gouernors Negroes and others, and the same Rumbullian haueing bin discouered by Mr. John Bristoe, Marshall, It is vnanimously Ordered that the same shall be sould and the produce thereof be bestowed upon the Scochman latelie wounded by Mathew Makennie for his maintainance."

To the foregoing might be added the reference to the "menaces of these *Rumbullion* Hectors," which is made by Gov. William Byam in his Declaration, printed in a very rare tract, entitled 'Surinam Justice,' which was published in London, somewhere about 1663, when Surinam belonged to England.

Rumbullion, it should be pointed out, is an old Devonshire word, meaning a great tumult, and was doubtless taken to Barbados by the men of Devonshire, so many of whom made their home in the tight little island during the great Civil War. Certainly, when men got primed with "this country's spirits," as a Barbados law of 1655 calls them, they were likely to become tumultuous—in fact, rumbustical.

In part i. of Volume VI. of Cassell's 'Encyclopædic Dictionary,' published in 1887, and in the third edition of Prof. Skeat's 'Concise Etymological Dictionary,' the derivation of the word has been accepted as it had been indicated in *Timehri* in 1885. In the former work the authority is given. The latter omits this, but gives details which show the source of information. That they have not been misled has been established by a reference to Dr. Murray, at his "Scriptorium," where is being built up that triumphal monument of the English language called 'A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles.' Having his five millions of slips of quotations all carefully arranged, the genial Colossus of Words draws forth the several contributions for the illustration of the word rum, including the paper from *Timehri*. From the quotations submitted to Dr. Murray, the two following require no comment:

(a.) From page 9 of chapter iv. of Burton's 'English Empire in America,' published in 1685:

". . . fetching their drink from the next Spring, being unacquainted with any other, till the French and English taught them the use of that cursed Liquor, called *Rum*, *Rumbullion*, or *Kill-Devil*, . . . drawn from the dross of sugar and sugar-cane."

(b.) From pages 30 to 34 of Hughes's "American Physician," in Sir T. Pope's 'Blount's Natural History,' 1693, page 146:

". . . or else they convey it into a copper-still (as they do all their other settlings and dregs of sugar) to be distill'd, and make a sort of *Strong-Water*, which they call *Rum*, or *Rumbullion*, stronger than *Spirit of Wine*, and not very pleasant, until a man be us'd to it. This strong liquor is ordinarily drank amongst the planters, as well alone, as made into *Punch*."

It seems hardly necessary to add that Dr. Murray entertains no doubt but that Rum has been clipped from Rumbullion. L. S.

LONDON, September 26, 1890.

INVERSION OF TEMPERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In regard to the nocturnal inversion of temperature, it is my impression that, as a rule, on still nights the air is cooler in valleys than at a moderate height above them, owing to the fact that as it cools it becomes denser. I was familiar with the fact during all my early life in Vermont, on high ground between the Connecticut and Ompomponoosuc Rivers. On still, cold winter nights, the temperature at my home was seldom less than 5°, and sometimes as much as 10°, higher than along the Connecticut, two miles away, and about 300 feet lower. Early frosts were invariably more injurious to vegetation in the valleys than on the hills. I noticed the same thing at the Asylum for the Insane at Kalamazoo, Mich., which is about 150 feet above the level of the town. On one occasion, I remember there was a difference of 8 in favor of the higher ground.

W. L. WORCESTER, M.D.

LITTLE ROCK, ARK., October 5, 1890.

READY HANDS FOR DEMOLITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with a certain degree of enthusiasm the letter of my academic superior in the *Nation* of September 25, in which he expresses a hope that Mr. Van Brunt's temporizing plea for the continued existence of the modern buildings at Cambridge may find an adequate answer from a competent hand. It is possible that the A.M. lives farther away from Cambridge than I do, and may not know that hands abound there not only competent to the task which he suggests, but also capable of carrying out to its full consummation Prof. Norton's pregnant hint. Hands abound, and doubtless would be ready, if properly encouraged, to enter upon such tasks with fervor. There seem to be, in fact, even some undergraduates who, fitly inspired and upon proper occasion, such as, *e. g.*, winning a football game from Yale, might be expected to set themselves enthusiastically "to criticise, reprove, and correct the civilization of the time." These vigorous young gentlemen are quite capable of removing the last taint of Richardsonism from the college-yard. They could easily, I should say, not only pull Sever down, but carry it off. As to the superintendence and direction of their work I do not venture to make any suggestion. Prof. Ruskin, I have heard, was found useful in a somewhat analogous position at Oxford a few years ago, when he showed himself the guide, as well as the philosopher and friend, of a body of undergraduates who, for a brief season, were possessed by a zeal for manual labor. A HARVARD B.A.

Notes.

WE have received from Mr. John Bartlett, Cambridge, Mass., specimen sheets of his forth-

coming 'New and Complete Concordance or Verbal Index to the Words, Phrases, and Passages in the Dramatic Works of Shakspere,' a quarto volume of 1,650 pages. Its aim is "to present the passages with such fulness that only in exceptional cases will a reference to the context be needed." And on the side of minuteness it includes select examples of "the verbs *to be, to do, to have*, in their different tenses, together with the pronouns, prepositions, interjections, exclamations, and words used as expletives." The text of the Globe Edition has been followed. The workmanship is of the University Press.

Charles Scribner's Sons have just issued a second edition of Mr. Henry T. Finck's 'Chopin, and Other Musical Essays,' and on the 23d instant they will publish his new volume, 'The Pacific Coast Scenic Tour: From Southern California to Alaska; Across the Canadian Pacific; the Yellowstone Park and Grand Cañon,' with twenty full-page illustrations.

Harper & Brothers have nearly ready an illustrated holiday book, 'Christmas in Song, Sketch, and Story,' by Prof. J. P. McCaskey, and 'The Boy Travellers in Great Britain and Ireland,' by Col. T. W. Knox.

By a curious coincidence, the next two volumes in the series of 'Historic Towns,' edited by Prof. Freeman and Mr. William Hunt, and published by Longmans, Green & Co., are to be histories of old York and of New York. The former is by the Rev. James Raine, Prebendary of York. The latter is by Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, and as it is the first volume of the series devoted to a city outside of Great Britain, it indicates a welcome enlargement of the scope of the enterprise. Another book of interest to students of American life which the same firm announce, is a 'Hand-book of Political Americanisms,' by Col. Charles Ledyard Norton, greatly amplified from the series of articles which he contributed several years ago to the *Magazine of American History*. Finally, they will follow Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Blue Fairy-Book' with his 'Red Fairy-Book,' drawn from many outlandish sources, and freely illustrated. Mr. Lang's busy hand, by the way, will also be seen this season in his 'Life of Lord Iddesleigh,' and in selections from Burns for the "Parchment Library."

Mr. Austin Dobson has written yet another preface for yet another edition of the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' to be illustrated this time by Mr. Hugh Thomson, and to be published by Macmillan & Co.

Mr. W. H. Goodyear is now in London, preparing for the publication of his *magnum opus*, 'The Grammar of the Lotus'— a work which he has had in preparation for several years, and which treats of the history and development of decorative art in the ancient East.

Paul Heyse's 'Children of the World' is set down for immediate publication by Worthington Co.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish 'Doctor Le Baron and his Daughters,' a new story by Mrs. Jane G. Austin.

Dr. W. Clarke Robinson of Kenyon College has in the press, to be issued immediately, a book on 'Shakspere, the Man and his Mind,' dedicated to Dr. H. H. Furness of Philadelphia.

Mrs. Oliphant's 'Memoirs of the Life of Laurence Oliphant,' based upon a large mass of his private correspondence, is promised shortly by Blackwood & Sons.

The John W. Lovell Co. reproduce, in their paper "Westminster Series," a sketch of the Oberammergau Passion Play by Canon Farrar, originally written for the Manchester *Guardian*. It is perhaps the best critical estimate of this year's performance that has appeared, and it ought to be especially gratifying to those who truly appreciated the play, as an authoritative vindication of its dignity and propriety. The same book, however, contains an article from Mr. Stead's *New Review*, which suffers badly by contrast with the scholarly criticism that precedes it.

Time is certainly taken by the forelock when the Messrs. Routledge distribute already 'Kate Greenaway's Almanack for 1891.' It is adorned with this artist's customary properties of girls and posies and garlands, daintily arranged and printed in color; and there is a semblance of hand-painted covers, tied with a pink knot.

Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, have put forth a new edition of Charles Lamb's 'Adventures of Ulysses,' adapted for youthful readers. Mr. Andrew Lang furnishes a preface, in which he makes no allusion to the question of Homer's real existence or undivided authorship, and doubts and denies only his ability to memorize the contents of the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey,' concluding that he availed himself of the art of writing. It is a pity not to have given a better map of the track of Ulysses. The engravings are copies of designs whose origin we cannot determine. The print is open, and there is an index of names.

Prof. Henry Morley prolongs his "Carisbrooke Library" (Geo. Routledge & Sons) with volumes 8, 9, 10, the first being John Stow's 'Survey of London' (1598), that invaluable picture of the city in Shakspere's time; 'Masques and Entertainments,' by Ben Jonson; and 'Ireland under Elizabeth and James the First,' as described by the contemporary pens of Edmund Spenser, Sir John Davies, and Fynes Moryson. All these are preceded by the editor's learned and illuminating introductions. In that to the last-named volume he shows his purpose to have been to exhibit the nature and effect of early English rule in Ireland, as a contribution to the humane solution of the problem which yet vexes both peoples. In Fynes Moryson's 'Description of Ireland' (1600–1603) the closing selection (with which, however, Prof. Morley recommends the reader to begin), we find an earlier use of the word *bonny-clabber* than any cited in Dr. Murray's great Dictionary, where the first reference is to Ben Jonson, 1631. The spelling, too, has been overlooked. Says Moryson (p. 428): "They feed most on white-meats, and esteem for a great dainty sour curds, vulgarly called by them Bonaclabbe."

The section of Literary Theory and Criticism in Prof. Masson's edition of De Quincey's writings (Macmillan) is brought to a close in the eleventh volume. Here are grouped together criticism on German writers—Schlosser, Goethe, Lessing, Richter; on eighteenth-century English writers, particularly Pope; on contemporary poets—Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, Landor, etc. The onslaught on 'Wilhelm Meister' is followed by praise of Jean Paul, with analects. Prof. Masson has been kept busy with footnotes in a field so full of controversy, and not wanting in inaccuracies on De Quincey's part, to say nothing of ill or unfruitful judgment.

Last year's success in reissuing 'The Marble Faun' in two volumes, beautifully printed and illustrated with photogravures, has prompted the publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., to do the same by the 'Old Home' of Hawthorne. The result is perhaps less striking, but the volumes are certainly very comely, with their quiet cover in a green silk or silk-like cloth. The views have been well chosen. There are portraits of the author, of Nelson, and of Burns. Here and there the text is compared with the original entries in the 'English Note-Books,' and this offers much instruction in style and finish of composition.

The same firm makes over Lowell's 'Fable for Critics,' "with vignette portraits of the authors *de quibus fabula narratur*." These vignettes, however, are mere pen outlines, let into the margin, and, if sometimes suggestive of the original, are often mere caricature, as in the case of Holmes and Whittier. The idea was excellent, but this classic deserved better treatment, and some expense should have been ventured on portraits as nearly contemporaneous with the poem as possible. So we hope the publishers will look upon their present effort as merely that of a 'prentice hand.

Even later than usual this season is the volume of 'Les Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique,' which MM. Noël and Stoullig have published annually for now fifteen years. The preface this time is by M. Henri Meilhac, and it considers a phase of theatricals wholly unknown among us, prone as we are to follow foreign fashions, for it describes the performances given in the great clubs of Paris, when a play is written by one or more members—generally a *revue*—and acted by members of the club with the aid of professional actresses.

— In 1760, or thereabouts, the London publisher John Newbery, who made a specialty of children's books, issued the original 'Mother Goose's Melody,' which passed through eight editions in the course of twenty years. Nobody can now produce a copy, and it would appear that this nursery classic would have become obsolete in England but for its transfer to America and immense revival here. Isaiah Thomas, the famous printer of Worcester, Mass., was the prime mover in this revival, for he made reprints from Newbery's list, including 'Mother Goose,' this last about the year 1785. The year is in doubt because the covers of the only two copies extant have been torn off. Mr. W. H. Whitmore of Boston has just reproduced this first American edition in facsimile in a small quarto published at Albany by Joel Munsell's Sons. Moreover, he has entered on a laborious inquiry as to the origin of "Mother Goose," who (as the narrator of tales like "Little Red-Riding Hood," etc.) is indisputably French, and must be linked with the name of Perrault—Contes de ma Mère l'Oye. Mr. Whitmore discredits the unsupported tradition that the old lady was of Boston origin. The 'Melody' begins with John Newbery, and possibly with Oliver Goldsmith, who did hackwork for him at the time, as Mr. Charles Welsh has shown. Newbery's edition, or Thomas's reprint of it, Mr. Whitmore discovers was certainly in the hands of Munroe & Francis when, between 1824 and 1827, they issued in Boston 'Mother Goose's Quarto, or Melodies Complete,' which has proved the parent of an endless progeny on both sides of the Atlantic. Omissions were few, but additions and alterations to Newbery-Thomas many; and there were seventy new cuts, on which the best Boston engravers were employed. We can give but the barest hint of Mr. Whitmore's researches, in a line as difficult to pursue as that of equally perishable cook-books. He bespeaks a new edition, returning to the elder versions, purged of their grossness, of which the specimens retained in the reprint from Thomas cast a curious light (as do Franklin's Poor Richard's Almanacs) on the refinement of the period. He would retain of Newbery also the second part, "containing the lullabies of Shakespear," which the compiler refrained

from loading with the absurd "maxims" of the nursery rhymes proper. Meantime, Mr. Whitmore's pamphlet should be eagerly taken up, for its valuable prefatory bibliography, the queer cuts of the 'Melody,' the Munroe & Francis title-pages, and other reproductions.

—The 13th volume of the *American Journal of Mathematics* opens in a manner that characterizes it as in many respects the first, and in no respect the second, among those great mathematical journals which are devoted to the production of original articles of the profoundest and most exhaustive kind. In addition to the scientific contributions of which we are about to speak, it presents its readers with a fine head of Prof. Cayley. The opening paper, perhaps we ought to say treatise, of the new volume is in German, written by Mellen Woodman Haskell, a name wholly English; and, in fact, the paper is the work of a pupil (presumably an American) of the distinguished German mathematician, Prof. F. Klein of Vienna, and was prepared at the latter's suggestion and under his guidance. It contains abundant evidence that the pupil was very far from being a mere amanuensis. The paper occupies more than 50 pp. of the *Journal*. It is an elaborate exposition of a new method, invented by Prof. Klein, of representing geometrically, by means of a curve of the 4th order, an algebraical function of the fourth degree having 168 values. The second paper is by Prof. Cayley, "On a Soluble Quintic Equation" (6 pp.). The greater part of it is purely arithmetical, and it is amusing to observe that the purely numerical equation at the bottom of p. 57, to which the author appends the emphatic declaration "which is right," is certainly wrong, although undoubtedly the compositor and proof-reader and not the great mathematician are responsible for the error. The last term is printed "10,000" when it should be "100000." The remaining 38 pp. of this number of the *Journal* are occupied by Dr. Oskar Bolza, who begins the reproduction of a course of lectures which he delivered last year at the Johns Hopkins University, "On the Theory of Substitution-Groups and its Application to Algebraical Equations." This paper is especially worthy of the attention of mathematical students and professors because, as the editor of the *Journal* remarks in a note, "no separate work" on the subject "is found in the English language." Dr. Bolza has gathered together and moulded into a regular treatise all that is known on the subject at the present time. We presume that for some time to come the pages of the *Journal* will remain the only source of information on this important subject accessible to the English student.

—The English Dialect Society looks forward to a cessation from its labors in 1892. Nine glossaries yet remain to be published, but as the rate of issue is, on the average, only two per annum, the last report of the Society foreshadows a reluctant abandonment of one-half. This is a pity; and as it is only a question of funds, it would seem as if the $3,500 needed to finish up the work might be forthcoming even from a single donor. The way would then be clear for the Rev. A. Smythe Palmer's English Dialect Dictionary, which is to be the next lexicographical achievement of our indefatigable kinsmen across the water. To this enterprise—unlike Dr. Murray's Dictionary—Americans can contribute only with money. The Society's publications for the current year have lately come to hand, bearing the Trübner imprint as of yore, but protracted into "Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., Limited." No. 60 is entitled 'English Dialects, their Sounds and Homes,' by Alexander J. Ellis, who has effected an abridgment of Part 5 of his 'Early English Pronunciation,' with a selection of the examples reduced to the Glossic notation. It indicates as accurately as may be "the prevalent non-received pronunciation of certain districts into which the English-speaking portion of England, Wales, and Scotland has been mapped out." The maps are two, viz., of England and Wales, and of Scotland (for the Lowland dialect), and these are colored and numbered in a manner too elaborate to be more than referred to here. Nor can any one without earnest study master the bounds of the "*sum* line" and the "*suom* line," the "Southern *teeth*" and the "Northern *dheeth* line," and all the rest of this scientific apparatus. We must confine ourselves to a citation from p. 57, in which Mr. Ellis says: "It is remarkable that in the American Colonies, afterwards the United States, a distinctly East-Anglian character was introduced, and that in the Australian Colonies the whole speech is modelled upon the N. and E. London, or so-called Cockney habits, which are essentially M E. [Mid-Eastern], and especially Es. [Essex], rather exaggerated than obliterated."

— No. 61 is a "Glossary of Dialect and Archaic Words Used in the County of Gloucester," compiled by J. Drummond Robertson, and edited by Lord Moreton. This territory is mapped on a convenient scale to show local peculiarities. It is divided by the Severn into two unequal parts, of which one has two and the other six dialectic subdivisions. No fewer than eight counties, including Shakspere's, touch upon Gloucestershire, and it is no wonder that the Shaksperian illustrations are very numerous. Under *breeze* (gad-fly), in the Addenda, surprise is expressed that Shakspere's use of the word is unrecorded in the 'New English Dictionary.' Dr. Murray's recent discussion of the derivation of *cockney* leads us to notice that *eye* (p. 45) is defined, on authority, 'a brood of pheasants'; and the compiler adds: "'I never got an *eye*,' is a phrase I have heard used in Gloucester of a hen which has failed to hatch a sitting of eggs. Has this any connection with *Ei*, an egg?" Geometry being considered magic, we are told, *jommetry* is "used of anything supported in an unknown manner," as, "It hangs by jommetry." The old North Cotteswold shepherd tells of having learned nought at school—"nether reedy, writy, nar zummy." A man's decease is regularly denoted by the expression, "He's gone dead." Of a lazy person they say, "He was born tired"; and, recalling Miss Edgeworth's "Lazy Lawrence," we may remark the Gloucestershire synonym for indolence, viz., "He has a vit o' Laurence on un." "I'll give you *best* at that," signifies confession of inferiority. *Byer* is a rather poetic word for lonelier—as of a road. *Hamperment* for perplexity is a racy localism. References to American usage are frequent in this Glossary; here is one overlooked as such, the "So long!" of parting (*au revoir*). "It is not thought lucky to say 'good-bye,' which points to a long parting." There are numerous capital specimens of the dialect in prose and verse, and we will close with a line from the ballad, "George Ridler's Oven," for the sake of its insinuation of the jolly George's baldness:

"And his yead it grawed above his yare."

CLIVE.

Lord Clive. By Sir Charles Wilson. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan. 1890.

CLIVE is one of the most interesting figures in modern military history, because his career recalls those famous soldiers of antiquity whom fortune called, with little or no previous experience, from among ordinary citizens to win renown by feats of arms. He had no professional training, not having been intended for the army, and seems never to have cared much about strategy as an art. He never had to fight against European regulars, and had at no time a force exceeding 5,000 men under his command. Yet his exploits were such as might have done credit to the most skilful captains, and such as few or none of his contemporaries, with the possible exception of Frederick of Prussia, could have performed. They were accomplished not by deep-laid plans or intricate combinations, but by an extraordinary energy, boldness, and swiftness, coupled with great self-confidence, perfect coolness and clearness of head in a crisis, and the most undaunted personal courage. Clive was one of those men of whom it may be said that they must have come to the front in almost any line of active life; yet no one seems to have discovered his talents till he first obtained a chance of independent command; and he was remarkable as a boy only for audacity and insubordination. He resembles many of the ancient commanders in the extent to which this personal courage served him. Over and over again he had hair-breadth escapes from death in personal conflicts, and the marvellous ascendency which he acquired over his soldiers was very largely due to this quality, which procured for him the name by which he became famous within a few years over India, that of Sabut Jung, or "the daring in war."

But along with this there went a singularly active and penetrating mind, which was always pondering on the phenomena of the Eastern world in which his lot was cast, and studying how to turn them to the best advantage. He soon became (again like many of the great ancient commanders, and like some among the other English conquerors of India) a politician as well as a soldier, following up by diplomacy what had been won by the sword. It is, indeed, remarkable that the longer he lived the less he desired to use the sword, and the more he preferred to rely upon political methods, in this resembling Cromwell rather than Napoleon, who could never withstand the temptation to play for higher and higher stakes at the game in which his first triumphs had been secured. Clive resisted the intoxication of success, and refused in later life occasions for fighting when glory and wealth might easily have been secured, because he was disposed rather to attain moderate aims by pacific means.

His career—that is to say, his Indian career, to which his actions in England are mere interludes of less permanent interest—falls into three periods. The first begins in the year 1751, when the capture of Arcot revealed his extraordinary talents, and ends in 1753, when he returned to England. He was only twenty-six, and a simple captain of infantry, when the rapid succession of exploits against the French and their native allies in the Carnatic—what is now the southeastern part of the Presidency of Madras—marked him out as the best man England had in the East. As Sir Charles Wilson observes, he had already then discerned the two facts to which the Oriental triumphs of England there have been due, viz., the possibility of making, by good training and bold leading, effective soldiers of the natives of India, and the wisdom of vigor and swiftness in dealing with Orientals. Dupleix, the famous French Governor of Pondicherry at that time, and perhaps the most formidable

antagonist whom the English have ever had to meet in India, had already acted upon similar principles, and Clive doubtless profited by his example. Dupleix, however, was not himself a soldier, and the support he had from France was even less than that which the English at Madras obtained from home. These two years were enough to overthrow Dupleix's schemes, and to give England a preponderance in Southern India which she never subsequently, except for one brief space, forfeited.

The second period of Clive's action lay in Bengal during the years 1756 to 1760. He had here chiefly native antagonists to contend with, and none of these men of capacity. The disparity, however, between his forces and those of the Nawab of Bengal was so enormous, and the complexity of Bengal politics so great, that his success is hardly less striking than that he had achieved in the Carnatic. This success was gained by craft and intrigue, which in one instance degenerated into fraud, no less than by arms. Clive's military gifts, and in particular his activity and daring, were conspicuous now as they had been before; but he had comparatively little fighting to do, and was becoming a diplomatist and statesman rather than a soldier. Having crushed the French and the Dutch, neither of whom had strong forces at their command, and having overthrown the Nawab in one battle (Plassey, fought in 1757), Bengal lay at his feet, and the ruler whom he set up was virtually a mere dependent of the English. By a remarkable coincidence, it was at this very time that the famous Afghan chief, Ahmed Shah Durrani, defeated the Mahrattas in the great battle of Panipat and captured Delhi, thus shattering the prestige of the titular sovereigns of India, while inflicting on the strongest native military power—for such the Mahrattas then were—a blow from which it never quite recovered. Thus it came to pass that these four years of Clive's rule laid the foundations of British rule, making the English name feared, and establishing the immeasurable superiority of European troops over native armies.

The third period, separated from the second by an interval of nearly five years spent in England, mainly in struggles for the control of the Board of Directors of the East India Company, was still shorter than the two preceding, and gave no opportunity for the display of military talents. Clive appears in it partly as the statesman, resettling the relations between the English and the native powers, which had been brought into confusion by the unwisdom of those who had represented the East India Company at Calcutta since 1760; partly as the administrator, who found in existence abuses among the civil and military servants of the Company in Bengal the most flagrant and scandalous that have ever disgraced British rule in any conquered country. Clive remained only twenty months in India, the state of his health compelling a return to England sooner than he had desired. But in that time he was able to strike boldly and decisively at these scandals, so as to keep within bounds both the tyranny and the corruption of the services until the time came when a settled and regular administration could be introduced. He had to confront not only the furious resistance of the civilians, but a sort of mutiny or strike among the officers, and triumphed by boldness and firmness over both. On the death of the Nawab of Bengal, whom he had set up in the place of Surajah Dowlah after the victory of Plassey, a resettlement of the relations of the Company to the native rulers became necessary, and Clive, in taking for his British employers the *Diwani*, or financial administration of the three great provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, made them at one step the leading authority in India and the virtual protectors of their nominal suzerain, the Great Mogul at Delhi. That prince, who at the moment had been driven away from his capital, besought Clive's intervention to restore him to the throne of Delhi; but with a caution and prudence contrasting remarkably with the dash of his earlier days, Clive forbore to undertake the wider responsibilities which a march to the Jumna would have involved, though he doubtless foresaw that the time would come when Delhi itself and Upper India as far as the borders of the Punjab would fall under the influence or rule of the Company.

On his return to England after these great services, Clive had to learn that it is not the most real and disinterested services that are best appreciated. He deserved nothing but praise for his reforms in Bengal, and he had taken no opportunity of adding to his fortune, having, indeed, spent in this third period of rule more than he received. But he had made far more enemies by his recent good deeds than by his former bad ones. Those whose exactions and oppressions he had checked, and a large band of their friends in England, stirred up public opinion against him. They attacked him, not only in the press, but in Parliament, and as they found that he was able to justify his administration in the third period, and to prove that he had gained nothing for himself by the measures which had so much irritated the wrong-doers in Bengal, they recurred to the more questionable acts of the second period, some of which could hardly be defended, though they had been already condoned by the Company, and were doubtless palliated by the conditions and temptations among which Clive stood. As Sir Charles Wilson justly observes, he ought to be compared, not to regular commanders like Sir Arthur Wellesley, or regular governors like Marquis Wellesley, but to military adventurers like Hernan Cortes or Francesco Pizarro. Beside them, and especially beside the far more vulgar and brutal Pizarro, Clive comes out well. There is not much deceit to reproach him with, and hardly any cruelty; nor are his acts of self-aggrandizement to be named along with the rapacity of the Spanish conquerors.

However, these attacks embittered the short period of life that remained to him; for within a few months after the Parliamentary conflict was decided in his favor, the sufferings which he had to endure from a painful malady drove him to self-inflicted death. At least once before, in his early days at Madras, he had attempted his own life; and the natural moodiness and despondency of his temper, which only vigorous action could relieve, was aggravated by the pressure of disease. He seems to have had very few healthy hours in his life of forty-eight years, and this fact may fairly be allowed to excuse the occasional violence and acerbity of his temper. We are not surprised to be told that he was overbearing, haughty, and deficient in personal geniality; but he proved himself more than once a loyal friend, and showed as much generosity towards his family and dependents as he did ostentation in the management of his household and the adornment of his own person—a failing which, however, he reserved for England, for in India he scorned the Oriental pomp which Dupleix had affected, and impressed the native mind by severe simplicity.

Those who remember Sir Charles Wilson's narrative of the British Expedition to Khartum in 1884-5, will find in this book the same admirable qualities of style—clearness, terseness, directness, a skilful selection of the points most interesting to the average reader, yet a complete avoidance of sensationalism or "word-painting," together with a singularly calm and luminous judgment. The difficulty of compressing such an eventful life as Clive's into so small a compass is one which few can appreciate save those who have attempted a similar task; and though there are many points on which the reader will desire to know more, he will, we think, feel that the allotted space has been used in the best available way.

We will close with one reflection which Sir Charles Wilson has not dwelt on, though it arises from his narrative; probably he has thought it too obvious to need making. England seems to have had little or no sense of the magnitude of the work which Clive was doing for her in India. Plassey gave her in 1757 the lordship of the East, as the battle of the Heights of Abraham gave her in 1759 the lordship of the West, though in twenty years by far the larger part of that lordship was to pass away from her crown, if not from her blood and speech. A recent English writer (Prof. Seeley), whose power of style perhaps exceeds the accuracy and penetration of his thought, has stated with great force the view that the wars of the eighteenth century were waged by England for colonial dominion. True it is that colonial dominion has been their chief result. But it was not the leading or even a leading motive in the minds of those who began or directed those wars. The Government of King George the Second gave a faint and halting support to those who saved Southern India, and therewith probably all India, from the grasp of Dupleix and Lally. Clive was not effectively supported in Bengal, and, when he returned with the laurels of Plassey, could not obtain that red ribbon of the Order of the Bath which it seems now the English fashion to bestow on every respectable military or naval officer who lives long enough as a general or an admiral. Her position as a sea power naturally led Great Britain to attack and annex the transmarine acquisitions of other European Powers, such as Spain, France, and Holland, when she happened to be at war with them. She did not set out with any idea of founding a colonial empire. That empire grew of itself by the force of circumstances.

THE EARLY BIOGRAPHERS OF DANTE.

Dante and his Early Biographers. By Edward Moore, D.D. London: Rivingtons. Sm. 8vo, pp. viii., 181. 1890.

THE good fortune of Dante and of Shakspere in leaving little record of their lives has often been remarked, but the reflection that this is also fortunate for the readers of their works has, perhaps, been less frequent. To know the main outlines of the life of a poet is enough,—the large relations in which he stood to his contemporaries and the world. How well it would be if we knew as little of the life of Shelley as of Spenser! How needless is a biography of Wordsworth! The greater the poet, the more universal his genius, and the deeper the sources from which he drew inspiration, the less desirable is acquaintance with the petty details of his daily commerce with men, or the knowledge of his common bed and board. His personal experiences may color his feeling and give form to the expression of his thought, but as material for his imagination they lose their personal quality, they become typical, and representative of wider interests than those of any individual man. Dante makes

himself the protagonist of his poem, but, as he himself says, its subject is man.

In this little volume on Dante and his early biographers, Dr. Moore gives an account of the biographies of Dante written within a century and a half after his death, and discusses, with characteristic learning and good sense, their credibility and authority. Dante himself is the first and most trustworthy witness concerning the events and circumstances of his life. From him we learn of his birthplace and his family, of his chief friends and early love, of his youthful education and later studies, of his beginnings in poetry, of his employment in public affairs, of his banishment, and of his wanderings in exile. He gives us a clear and sufficient outline of the course of his external life.

The first account of him by a contemporary is that by Giovanni Villani in his 'Chronicle' (ix, 136) accompanying the mention of his death. It is brief, but interesting, because Villani speaks from personal acquaintance with the poet, who, he says, had been his neighbor (*il nostro vicino*). Villani had a just appreciation of his greatness, and speaks of his work in fit terms. His closing words are:

"This Dante, because of his knowledge, was somewhat arrogant, reserved, and haughty, and, as it were, like an ungracious philosopher, knew not well how to deal with unlettered folk; but, because of the other virtues and knowledge and worth of so great a citizen, it seems to us fitting to give him an enduring record in this our Chronicle, notwithstanding that the noble works left by him in writing afford true witness of him, and to our city honorable fame."

These words of Villani's stand as the first attempt at reparation for the wrong done by Florence to her greatest citizen. Three notices of the poet are to be found in the Comment on the 'Divine Comedy' known as the *Ottimo*, which was compiled within less than twenty years after his death. All of them are interesting, especially the famous note on *Inferno* x. 85, which runs as follows: "I, the writer, heard Dante say that the rhyme never led him to say aught but what he intended, but that many a time and oft he made words say in his rhymes other than that which, for other poets, they were wont to express." In the note on *Inferno* xiii. 144, the writer says that, in compliance with his request, Dante narrated to him the old tradition concerning the foundation of Florence and its relation to the god Mars. The note on *Paradiso* xvii. 61 contains a somewhat doubtful statement as to the motives of Dante's separation from his companions in exile.

This is all the direct biographical information that we have concerning Dante from his immediate contemporaries. The first formal biography of him is that of Boccaccio, written probably near the middle of the fourteenth century, twenty or thirty years after Dante's death. Though it contains but a scanty narrative and a poor supply of facts, and is in the main little more than a rhetorical composition, it yet affords some trustworthy and not unimportant information. Boccaccio was eight years old when Dante died, he knew intimately many Florentines who had been acquainted with the poet, he was thoroughly versed in the life of the city, its family histories, its traditions, and its customs. The meagreness of his narrative is therefore disappointing, but it is to be accounted for by the special quality of his literary temperament, and by the fact that this 'Life' is one of the first attempts at biography in modern literature. The inquisitive spirit of curiosity concerning the experiences and characteristics of eminent men, no less than the critical spirit of investigation, was still generally dormant.

The 'Life' has come down to us in two forms, and there has been much discussion as to whether both are the work of Boccaccio, or whether one of them is a remodelling of his original treatise, of later date and of uncertain authorship. One of the ablest of the younger school of Italian students of the early literature of Italy, Signor Macrì-Leoni, has lately investigated the subject with great thoroughness, and seems to have proved, what others have believed on less careful sifting of the evidence, that the longer form of the 'Life,' distinguished as the *Vita Intera*, is the genuine work of Boccaccio, while the other, known as the *Compendio*, is an inferior abridgment of it, with arbitrary and hurtful changes, the compilation of some unknown writer of the fifteenth century. Dr. Moore adopts and strongly maintains this conclusion.

But, although the genuine 'Life' contains comparatively little information, it is on several points of interest the only, and on others the chief, authority. For instance, it is from Boccaccio, and from him alone, that we learn the family name of Beatrice, that she was the daughter of Folco Portinari, and (from his Comment on the 'Divine Comedy') that she was the wife of Simone de' Bardi. These statements are of interest as bearing on the question of the literal and historical reality of Beatrice. The view that she was a mere allegorical creation of Dante's poetic imagination has been, and still is, zealously maintained by many intelligent students of Dante's works, in spite of what seems to us abundant and convincing internal evidence to the contrary. Boccaccio's notices of her show that he had no doubt of her actual existence, and indicate that this was the common belief. But the correctness of his identification of her as the daughter of Folco Portinari and the wife of Simone de' Bardi, is another matter. This identification has been almost universally adopted by those who have held to her reality as a woman, and Dr. Moore argues ably in its support. But to us it seems impossible that it should be correct. The evidence which the 'New Life' and the 'Divine Comedy' afford that the Beatrice of Dante died unmarried is practically incontrovertible. At the very least, the evidence of these books is conclusive that Dante would have his readers believe so. And we do believe so, in spite of Boccaccio's positive statement, because it is much easier to account for the existence of a report that Beatrice de' Bardi was the original of Dante's Beatrice than it is to credit the idea that the 'Vita Nuova' and the 'Divine Comedy' are consecrated to the exaltation of a married woman. Who the real Beatrice was may never be known; but we must believe that she was one who could rightly confess her love for Dante (*Amor mi mosse*), and, in her reproof of the wanderings of his desires, rightly refer to that beauty of hers which, so long as it was on earth, had given him pure and legitimate delight beyond aught else in nature or in art.

After his discussion of Boccaccio's 'Life' of the poet, Dr. Moore takes up in succession the later lives by Filippo Villani, Lionardo Bruni, Manetti, and Filelfo, analyzing their contents, and describing their various claims to authority; and in a final chapter he collects what may be learned from these biographers and other sources concerning Dante's personal traits and characteristics. This part of his little volume is of special interest. There are, indeed, some omissions in it of matters that bear on the subject, concerning which the reader would gladly have learned Dr. Moore's opinion. For example, but perhaps with good reason, he does not refer to the famous Letter of Fra Ilario. Considering, however, the importance which has been ascribed to this letter, which, if genuine, would be one of the most interesting contemporary documents relating to Dante, and considering, also, that its claims to authenticity have not, so far as we are aware, been thoroughly discussed by any writer in English,* the omission to say even a word concerning it may be regretted.

The Letter is in Latin, and purports to be addressed to the illustrious Ghibelline leader, Uguccione della Faggiuola, by a brother of the Monastery of Santa Croce del Corvo. It describes a visit of Dante to the monastery, and narrates at considerable length a conversation with him concerning his poem. The most striking passage of the letter is familiar to all readers about Dante. It runs as follows:

"Ecce igitur, quod cum iste homo ad partes ultramontanas ire intenderet, et per lunensem diœcesim transitum faceret, sive loci devotione, sive alia causa motus, ad locum monasterii supradicti se transtulit. Quem ego cum viderem, adhuc et mihi et aliis fratribus meis ignotum, interrogavi quid peteret; et cum ipse verbum non redderet, sed loci tamen constructionem inspiceret, iterum interrogavi quid peteret. Tunc ille, circumspectis mecum fratribus, dixit—*Pacem.*"†

The romantic character of this description is fitted to excite suspicion, so much is it in the style of that story-telling of which Boccaccio was the chief master in the middle of the fourteenth century. And the suspicion is quickened by the circumstance that the Letter is found in but a single codex, made up, like a scrapbook, of various short pieces, and that this codex originally belonged to Boccaccio. Moreover there is a passage in the Letter in which the writer professes to give in Dante's own words his reasons for writing the 'Divine Comedy' in Italian rather than in Latin, and this passage is so similar to that in Boccaccio's 'Life' of the poet which deals with the same subject (in great part being identical with it in phrase) that there can be no doubt that either both were written by the same author, or that one is the direct source of the other. Furthermore Fra Ilario cites two verses and a half of a beginning of the poem in Latin, which, he says, Dante repeated to him. The same verses and no more are given by Boccaccio in the 'Life.' It seems impossible to doubt that either Boccaccio had at hand the Letter at the time he wrote the 'Life,' or that the Letter is of later date than the 'Life,' and, consequently, not a narrative written at the time of the supposed visit of Dante to the monastery. But there is still another consideration which bears on the matter. In the 'Life' Boccaccio states that it was Dante's intention, according to the report of some persons—*secondo il ragionare d' alcuno*—to dedicate the three parts of his poem respectively to Uguccione della Faggiuola, Moruello Malaspina, and Frederick III., King of Sicily. Others, he adds, maintain that he dedicated the whole to Cane della Scala; "but which of these opinions is the truth is uncertain, for we have no evidence but the mere assertion of different

* Mr. Longfellow, in his "Illustrations" to his translation, printed it without comment, as if he accepted it as genuine. Dean Plumptre, without disputing the judgment that rejects it as apocryphal, adduces arguments in favor of its genuineness, and speaks of it as, "if not genuine, a work of genius."

† Dr. Parsons has virtually translated these words in his fine poem "On a Bust of Dante":

"Not wholly such his haggard look
When, wandering once, forlorn, he strayed,
With no companion save his book,
To Corvo's hushed monastic shade;
Where, as the Benedictine laid
His palm upon the pilgrim guest,
The single boon for which he prayed
The convent's charity was rest."

persons (*il volontario ragionare di diversi*)." Now, in the Fra Ilario Letter, the writer states that *Dante told him* that he proposed to dedicate the three parts of his poem to the three named personages. If, then, the Letter had been genuine, in which case, as we have seen, Boccaccio had it before him when writing the 'Life,' he could scarcely have said that there was no evidence concerning Dante's purpose except *il volontario ragionare* of different persons.

These facts and others of like nature lead to the conclusion that the Letter is not what it purports to be, but is a fancy piece not improbably composed by Boccaccio himself. And this conclusion is confirmed by the internal evidence afforded by the character ascribed in it to Dante. It is a conclusion eminently satisfactory to one who, from study of Dante's works, has so learned to know their author that he finds it difficult to conceive of him as he is represented in the Letter. He was, if we trust his own evidence as well as that of Villani, *schifo e disdegnoso*, not a man to wear his heart upon his sleeve, to expand in ready confidence to a stranger, and to exhibit the affectations of a sentimentalism such as might be appropriate to a weaker nature, and to a later and feebler generation—the generation of Petrarch and Boccaccio. The whole account lacks verisimilitude. It is a piece that shows more of the author of the 'Decameron' than of the 'Divine Comedy.'

Signor Macrì-Leoni has lately promised a full investigation of the Fra Ilario fiction. It will be looked for with interest, though there is so little need of confirmation of its apocryphal character that Scartazzini, in his recent valuable but disappointing volume of Prolegomena to the 'Divine Comedy,' dismisses it without ceremony as "a silly and ridiculous imposture."

A LITERARY PARALLEL.

Notre Cœur. Par Guy de Maupassant. New York: F. W. Christern.

Two young men now dispute the field of advanced French fiction together; and though they have many points of resemblance—writing as they do about the same high society of the monarchical salons, of which both are members and partisans—they differ very much in temperament and consequently in the treatment of their material. The style of Paul Bourget is uneasy, labored, and intricate. He affects, too, a little the ephemeral Anglomania of Paris. He is a student of English literature and philosophical essays, and one meets in his pages, too often with a feeling of displeasure, English phrases lugged in by the ears, and in questionable taste. Maupassant, on the contrary, is French without the slightest cosmopolitan touch to him, and his style is as different from Bourget's as Tacitus's from Carlyle's; for, trained by Gustave Flaubert to use his language with scrupulous nicety, his stories are marvels of terseness, vigor, and lucidity. His phrases seem compact without effort, swift, consecutive, and keen. Bourget, who has written some essays on contemporary psychology, sets his people to moving through the simple yet tense crises in which he wishes to portray them, while he shows to the reader their motives, half-motives, quarter-motives, and even unknown self-deceptions and propulsions, with really unusual scientific accuracy, yet taking away from the vitality of his subjects an indefinable something, as if he had chloroformed them for the operation. Maupassant, on the other hand, tells his story, usually of some equally simple crisis in a life, limpidly, quietly, without apparent eye to *arrière-pensées* of any sort, and lets the inevitable conclusion point its own moral.

On finishing Maupassant's present story directly after we had read Bourget's "Un Cœur de Femme," we could hardly resist the impression that they had been written by previous agreement, like the friendly contest between Leigh Hunt and Keats as to who could write the best sonnet on "The Cricket." In the first place, the publication of them was so nearly simultaneous that it is easy to fancy that they might have been begun and finished at about the same time. The titles, too, are nearly identical. Indeed, if Maupassant's had been "Un Cœur d'Homme," instead of the somewhat vaguer "Notre Cœur," conjecture would seem certainty, for each author has taken up the same theme, namely, that a human heart is capable at the same time of maintaining two loves, each distinct in itself. While Bourget has illustrated this by the trial of a woman distracted between two men, Maupassant has presented the converse proposition of a man torn between two women. The two solutions are interesting.

Both seem to agree that love is very seldom reciprocal, there being in the same heart (scientifically speaking) two poles, as it were—the pole of attraction (usually sensual) towards another, and the pole of self-flattery, if it may be so termed, which is intellectual, and points towards the pleasure given to one person by another's evident adoration. Starting from this basis, Bourget shows us Mme. de Tillière, a quiet recluse, shy and withdrawn from the world, engaged in a liaison with a super-sensitive, half-invalid man, without physical charm, whose misfortunes have won her pity, whose talents and fame have impressed her mind, and whose dependence upon her and worship of her have become to her a constant source of self-gratification. The opposite pole is inclined when she meets a notorious *viveur*, rich, handsome, blasé; gradually at first, and then with almost brutal violence, till she sees a moral wreck inevitable, and, tearing herself away from all further compromises, ends her heart's mystery and tragedy in a convent.

Maupassant deals with a man's torments under this divided empire of the love-poles. André Mariolle, an impressionable, purposeless dilettante, becomes wildly enamoured of Mme. de Burne, a young widow withdrawn from the gay world, whose brilliancy, beauty, and wit have gathered around her a small salon of talent, over which she presides impartially, in spite of the fact that nearly all its members are or have been unsuccessful and jealous suitors. Mariolle courts her in an extraordinary way, certainly original, sending her every night for a long period a burning love-letter, and at the same time maintaining in her salon the utmost discretion and tranquillity. Finally she yields to him—acknowledging the influence of the pole of intellectual vanity—and begins with him a secret *liaison* with which for a time he is wholly contented. He soon, however, understands that he cannot inspire the *grande passion*—that he merely ministers to her vanity. She becomes bored in his presence: "Il semblait que son cœur ne fût point entré avec elle. Il était resté quelque part, très loin, flânant, distrait par de petites choses"; and Mariolle, perceiving this, grows more and more dissatisfied with the merely friendly return she makes to his absorbing passion, and, by constant vain endeavor to arouse a return of it, more and more wretched, till he breaks abruptly off from his slavery, and goes into solitary hiding in a little house which he rents at Fontainebleau for the summer.

Here he meets, on his occasional visits to a neighboring inn, an agreeable little waitress with a good figure—a virtuous girl, too. It chances, just before one of these visits, that some visitor has insulted her, and Mariolle, learning of it, takes her away from the inn and installs her as waitress in his new house. There he soon divines (by her increased attention to her dress and her bearing towards him) that she has fallen in love with him; and to his wounded pride this feeling that here is a woman at least who does not scorn him, is pleasing and consoling. A sudden illness, in which the maid becomes nurse—a convalescence, in which she reads to him and becomes his companion—makes Mariolle more and more dependent upon her. Elizabeth replaces with her warm affection the chilly tolerance of Mme. de Burne.

Now, however, the image of the latter, the unattainable love, rises more clearly and charmingly than ever before Mariolle's eyes; and, more than ever discontented, he reveals his hiding-place to Mme. de Burne, with characteristic brusqueness, by telegram. She does not hesitate. She comes at once to Fontainebleau to seek out her exiled lover, still drawn to him by the flattery of his love; but, before renewing their friendship, she decides that all effort to arouse a *grande passion* between them will but work sorrow to both, and she tells him that their future relations must be purely platonic. Mariolle reflects, consents, sends her back to Paris; and, consoling Elizabeth, whom the apparition of the strange lady had thrown into a panic of fear and jealousy, he promises to take her back to Paris and maintain her near him in a separate establishment. Thus the novel ends. Mme. de Tillière, being a woman, could not waver between the two poles of loving and being loved without perishing, so she took herself out of the world; but Mariolle, a man, can at least make the experiment of keeping on terms with both—the worldly, spirituelle beauty whom he worships, and who merely esteems him, and the little bourgeoise with the pleasant face, whose deep attachment for him flatters and consoles him, and for whom he feels gratitude and pity. How his experiment succeeds we are left to conjecture.

The resemblance between the two tales may be traced further in many small details. For instance, both Mme. de Tillière and Mme. de Burne are young widows and childless; both keep small unworldly salons uniquely for literary and artistic Bohemians with whom the hostess is on terms of intimate and indifferent friendship. Mariolle and Mme. de Tillière, too, are not unlike. Both are shy, reserved, secluded, and sought after without success. Mme. de Tillière has never loved a man, Mariolle has never loved a woman. The officiousness of a friend plunges Bourget's heroine into the whirlpool from which she finally emerges battered and stranded, and the same officiousness of a friend draws André Mariolle forth from his quiet haven into the troubled waters in which we leave him still eddying. 'Notre Cœur' contains, it is true, several unmistakable Maupassanteries (if we may coin the word), such as his always beautiful descriptions of nature, which in this book include Paris, the Fontainebleau forest, and his beloved Mont Saint-Michel, that "feu d'artifice de pierres, dentelle de granit," which he describes with every succeeding attempt more and more graphically, and, it would seem, with warmer and warmer affection. His characters, too, are drawn with his usual confidence; but the whole book has a certain unreality about it, a feeling of *gêne*, unusual in his books, as if his

hand, taking awkwardly to the scalpel which Bourget plies so deftly, had shaken a little in this first experiment.

Autobiography of Anton Rubinstein. Translated from the Russian by Aline Delano Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890. Pp. 171.

RUBINSTEIN, the most inspired of living composers, differs from the generality of modern musicians, not only in the way in which he has refused to submit to Wagner's influence, but also in his aversion to using his pen for any other purpose than that of making the dots, lines, and pauses which constitute a musical manuscript. His activity as a composer has been astounding—his publisher's catalogue of his compositions covers forty-eight quarto pages—whereas his contributions to musical literature have hitherto consisted chiefly of a few essays on Russian music and on the sacred opera or secular oratorio; and, as he himself tells us, his "future biographer will not even enjoy the pleasure of collecting my correspondence, since it has absolutely no existence. I am not a friend to the pen, and especially do I dislike letter-writing." Nevertheless, he consented, a year or two ago, to tell the story of his life, and a stenographer was engaged to take down this autobiographic interview. The result is the present narrative, which, sketchy and meagre as it is in many places where we should be delighted to have further information, is yet full of interesting comments and suggestions.

It cannot but be a matter of satisfaction for Americans to learn from Rubinstein that his tour in this country laid the foundation of his prosperity. In his early days he gave lessons at a cheap rate, and for a year and a half lived in an attic in Vienna—often suffering the pangs of hunger—till Liszt took pity on him. It was Liszt who advised Rubinstein's Russian teacher, Villoing, to take him to Germany to complete his musical education. "At this time," he says, "I was a devoted imitator of Liszt, of his manners and movements, his trick of tossing back his hair, his way of holding his hands, of all the peculiar movements of his playing; which naturally called forth a smile from those who had heard Liszt, and perhaps also increased the interest felt in the boy virtuoso." Yet when, a little later, he called on Liszt in Vienna, he was somewhat coldly received, and was told to remember that a talented man must win the goal of his ambition by his own unassisted efforts; which, says Rubinstein, "estranged me from him." Two months later, however, Liszt called on him, was shocked at the evidence of poverty in his room, "and in the most friendly manner invited me to dine with him the same day—a most welcome invitation, since the pangs of hunger had been gnawing me for several days. After this I was always on good terms with Liszt until the time of his death."

During this period his compositions did not bring him in anything worth mentioning, and, like a spring poet, he had to consider himself lucky if he found a publisher willing to print them at all. Even later, when his lessons paid better and his concerts were well attended, he led an artist's Bohemian life, the result of which was "feasting when money was plenty, and going hungry when it was gone." In 1847 he was on the point of emigrating to America with two musical friends, but was dissuaded by Dehn, his teacher in the theory of music. It was twenty-five years after this that he was offered $40,000 to make a concert tour in America with Wieniawski. He accepted, and gave 215 concerts in this country.

"For a time," he says, "I was under the entire control of the manager. May heaven preserve us from such slavery. . . . The receipts and the success were invariably gratifying, but it was all so tedious that I began to despise myself and my art. So profound was my dissatisfaction that when, several years later, I was asked to repeat my American tour, with $100,000 guaranteed to me, I refused point-blank."

On another page, where he urges the introduction of musical instruction in Russian educational institutions, he does us the honor to bracket us with Germany: "Look at Germany and America, and see how they do things in those countries." And on p. 118 he gives his opinion that "of the German people at least 50 per cent. understand music; of the French, not more than 16 per cent.; while among the English—the least musical of people—not more than 2 per cent. can be found who have any knowledge of music. Even the Americans," he adds, "have a higher appreciation of music than the English."

It was his admiration of German music, combined with his German name, that caused Rubinstein, oddly enough, as he says, to be considered a German in Russia, while in Germany he was regarded as a Russian. In art he is a true cosmopolite; and while his orchestral music roots in Beethoven, Schumann, and Mendelssohn, and his piano compositions in Chopin, his spirit is Russian and his rhythms and intervals often Oriental. Even to Italian influence he was open, at least in his early years, for he says that Rubini's singing produced so powerful an effect on his senses that he strove to imitate the sound of his voice in his playing. His special idol to-day seems to be Chopin: "One thing is beyond denial—all that enchanted us, all that we loved, respected, worshipped, and admired, has ended with Chopin."

Rubinstein, like Liszt, was always ready to assist the poor and help along needy students, and in the course of twenty years the proceeds of his charity concerts amounted to no less than 300,000 rubles. But aside from his work as a composer, his most valuable services to art have been of a patriotic kind. Thirty years ago Russian music other than folk songs was hardly recognized in Petersburg society, and the state of public feeling on the subject may be inferred from the remark of a lady who brought her daughter to Rubinstein to be educated in the Conservatory, which he had helped to found. Rubinstein informed her that all the lessons were given in Russian, whereupon she exclaimed, "What! music in Russian! What an original idea!" The Conservatory soon became popular—too popular, indeed, to suit Rubinstein, who thought when the number of pupils had risen to 700 that the Conservatory was in danger of becoming a music-factory instead of a music-school. Parents also seemed to look upon it as a sort of asylum for weak-minded children, good for nothing else, and a resort for young men anxious to secure exemption from two years' military duty by means of an easily won diploma. But to-day Russian music and Russian musicians are honored everywhere, at home and abroad, and for this change Rubinstein is very largely responsible. On pages 110–111 he gives a list of notable Russian musicians and teachers, and the concluding sentences of this chapter will please vocal teachers who are constantly accused by pupils of having ruined their voices: "In regard to singing, it is difficult to say who are the superior and who the inferior teachers. They may be compared to physicians—not even the most successful among them can insure life; and the best master in the world may ruin the voice of his pupil when trying to cultivate it."

Stratford-on-Avon. From the Earliest Times to the Death of Shakespeare. By Sidney Lee. With 45 illustrations by Edward Hull. Macmillan & Co.

STRATFORD-ON-AVON is in itself an interesting example of the growth of an English town, and the author of this volume has very dexterously woven in with the historical thread the special interest of the Shaksperian in the institutions and village life which Shakspere knew in his boyhood. The work is admirably proportioned, and avoids with great success the dulness of archæology and too much learning even when drawing from old records the necessary illustrations. Notices of the town do not antedate the seventh century, when it first emerges from obscurity as a monastic foundation dependent on the See of Worcester. From this grew the manorial group, which gradually increased, and, by means of fairs and the usual fostering influences, developed a local trade. Three natives who obtained advancement in the Church, Robert, Bishop of Chichester; John, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Ralph, Bishop of London, were special benefactors. The first two were brothers and also Chancellors of England; the last was their nephew. Robert attended to the paving of some of the long streets which had grown up; John founded the chantry in the parish church, and purchased the patronage of it from the See of Worcester for the benefit of the chantry, which thus controlled it in the same way as Westminster Abbey is now constituted; Ralph built a college for the chantry priests. Meanwhile the exercise of local functions of government had been increasingly held by the Guild, originally a religious association, but developing into one for self-help, which was the principal institution of the town. The care of the poor, the police regulation, and all general oversight gradually fell to it, and education was finally attended to by its erection of the Free Grammar School. In the Reformation the chantry and college fell, and the Guild, already somewhat decayed, was recreated as the corporation of the town, to which its government and the custody of the church, almshouses, and college-house, as well as the Grammar School, were intrusted. This was in 1557, and it was of this body that Shakspere's father was an officer in his more prosperous days. Sir Hugh Clopton, Lord Mayor of London, had already built the stone bridge and done some other benefits to the town.

The first half of Mr. Lee's narrative deals with these matters in an attractive way, and the remainder he devotes to a survey of the actual appearance of the town in Shakspere's youth, with its streets and markets, its houses and their furnishings, its sanitary condition, the visitations of plague, flood, fire, and famine, the gardens and industries of the people, the paternal oversight of the citizens by the governing board, the discipline of children at home and in the school, and their sports, indoor and outdoor, the occasional visits of the players, and, in general, the whole round of life as it was presented to Shakspere's youth. He takes up, naturally with particular attention, the story of the poaching in Charlecote Park, which he credits, and gives an interesting account of the hall and its inhabitants; and he also examines the traditions of Shakspere's drinking at the Bidford and Wincot Inns. Altogether one obtains a very full impression of the town and its doings, and of

Shakspere as one of the growing boys—some destined for London, like Richard Field, some for apprenticeship at home, some for the service of the great halls in the neighborhood. He does not follow Shakspere to London, but he follows him back to Stratford, enumerates his purchases of land, and gives details of his family and other friends in the town, and shows him in all the village relations of his latter days, including the dispute about the Welcombe Fields. Little of the material is altogether fresh, but it has been extracted from much dryer volumes and is well arranged to inform the reader what sort of a town Shakspere lived in, and what he was there as one of his own people. The illustrations are numerous and there are two maps.

Three Years in Western China. A narrative of three journeys in Sz̆ŭ-ch'uan, Kuei-chow, and Yun-nan. By Alexander Hosie. London: George Philip & Son. 1 vol. 8vo, pp. 302. Illustrated.

ALTHOUGH this handsome volume ought to have been published six years ago, since the courageous author's journeys were made between 1882 and 1884, yet there is a peculiar timeliness in its issue. The commercial metropolis of Sz̆ŭ-ch'uan (Sz-chuen), the most westerly province of China, the city of Ch'ung-ch'ing (Chungking), was, by an agreement of the Chinese Government made March 31, 1890, raised to the rank of a treaty port. The regions traversed by Mr. Hosie, and so pleasantly described by him, are now opened to European and American intercourse. Hence, to pioneers of trade, to the missionary, traveller, and interested reader at home, the mass of information which Mr. Hosie so admirably presents is doubly welcome for its value and readableness. Mr. Hosie, who is in the British Consular Service, dates his preface at Wenchow, China, September 6, 1889, and Mr. Archibald Little has furnished an introduction of twenty pages, dated London, May, 1890, which shows him master of his theme; but we take exception to his implication that Mr. Hosie here gives us "the latest information" concerning western China. About two years ago, the Rev. Virgil Hart, an American missionary, published a volume of his experiences entitled 'Western China,' in which he has put at our disposal the story of much of what Mr. Hosie has seen and of some things that the English traveller did not see. Indeed, as regards the Yang-tse Kiang Valley, Mr. Hart's record is more full of interesting detail both to the commercial man and the student of humanity.

Pausing only to do justice to a fellow-pioneer, we may say that both books agree as to the richness of the province of Sz-chuen, or, as we must hereafter write it, Sz̆ŭ-ch'uan; and that Mr. Hosie's narrative is of the liveliest as well as the most informing. We have here the record of the trained and fully equipped traveller using to the full unusual opportunities. Starting from I-chang, one thousand miles from the mouth of the Yang-tse Kiang, the port opened in 1876, he made his way by small steamer and boat to the city of Chu'ng-ch'ing, now the newest treaty-port, and thence by an overland route reached Kuei-chow, the capital of Kuei-chow province. Moving westward into Yun-nan, he journeyed back along another route to the Yang-tse River, and visited Che'ing-tu, the capital of the richest province in China. Thence through the country of the Lo-los to Ta-li on the Eul-hai (lake) and eastward to Yun-nan Fu, near another lake, he again, by a third and different route through Kuei-chow, reached the Yang-tse. Another journey was made later through the white-wax country, to the sacred mountain O-mei, and to the highest navigable point of the Yang-tse.

The interest of this readable book of travels in a country about which we are sometimes tempted to think too much has been written, arises from the fact that the races of western China are non-Chinese. Over fifty pages of the Appendix are devoted to exercises in the Pho language, which will be useful to linguists, but much more interesting to the general reader are the glimpses of pretty girls with feet unbound, of fine-looking hunters and mountaineers, the curious arts and customs of the non-Chinese races of whom both Marco Polo and Mr. Hosie tell. Further, in describing the various industrial arts and commodities, the English author has not simply transferred his Parliamentary reports to the heavy laid paper of an elegantly made English book, but graphically describes what he saw. The manufacture of "rice" paper is pictured as the deft paring into a flat sheet of a roll of pith. In one place he finds that the people, instead of cleansing their clothes by water, accomplish the same end by fire. The coat or trousers, when greasy or stained, is simply heated red hot on the coals, and the suit of asbestos is pure again. At O-mei the clouds prevented the author from seeing the "Glory of Buddha"—the Brocken spectre of Asia—which, reflected in the air-strata at eleven thousand feet above the earth, is interpreted by priest and devotee as a manifestation of the Enlightened One.

In a word, this timely volume confirms the previous reports of the richness of the great province of Sz̆ŭ-ch'uan, adds interesting data to the researches of Francis Garnier and Colborne Baber concerning the Lolo people, forms an interesting appendix to Col. Yule's 'Book of Marco Polo,' and modifies the conclusions and ardent beliefs of the great railway pioneer and trade-route seeker, Mr. Colquhoun.

In its mechanical setting, this traveller's story has been well favored. Paper, print, binding, map, index, introduction are all of the best. Despite the crowd of books on China, there is room and welcome, at the front, for this latest comer. It is another mark of British progress and record of Chinese advance, for in the same year of the opening of this far western city as a port of commerce, we read of the assent of the Imperial Government to the construction of a railway from Peking to Kirin. The prospect of a railway through China from the Russian to the Burmese frontier, built before the twentieth century is ushered in, is no longer the baseless fabric of a vision, but a well-grounded probability.

The Annals of Tacitus, I–VI. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Indexes, by William Francis Allen, Professor of History in the University of Wisconsin. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1890.

THE confidence with which we have awaited the appearance of Prof. Allen's second posthumous work has not been deceived. His 'History of the Roman People' evinced a comprehensive grasp of the whole subject; but his particular knowledge of the imperial period, proved by more than one publication, showed clearly that in him the student of Tacitus would find a trustworthy and helpful guide. He was also much interested in the character of Tiberius, of whose reign these six books of the 'Annals' are a history. All these facts promised an intelligent and interesting treatment of one of the great works of antiquity, and the promise has been kept.

In this edition the text (which is based upon that of Halm's fourth) is preceded by essays upon the life, writings, and style of Tacitus, the extent and administration of the Roman Empire, and the character of Tiberius. It is to this last that scholars will be most likely to turn first, for upon the conception that one has formed of the Emperor will depend one's judgment about many of the events of his reign. In this matter Prof. Allen took a moderate, and, we believe, the most reasonable course. He could not believe in the theory of Tacitus, that Tiberius was all his life a hypocrite; nor, on the other hand, had he any sympathy with "the modern fashion of whitewashing the disreputable characters of history." He rejected, too, the hypothesis that, upon the accession of Tiberius to the throne, at the age of fifty-six, he became all of a sudden, from a man *egregius vita famaque*, a hypocrite and a tyrant. The fact is, that during the fifteen years from his accession to his retirement at Capri, we can scarcely discover a manifestly unjust or cruel act on the Emperor's part. But after that time a great change came over him. Into the succeeding years misfortunes crowded thick and fast. Tiberius, always lacking in self-reliance, and now full of apprehension of personal danger, was thrown into a panic by the conspiracy of Agrippina and her sons, the murder of Drusus, and the treachery of his trusted minister Sejanus. The old Emperor, "broken in body and spirit, disappointed, morbidly brooding in solitude upon his wretchedness, knowing no one whom he could trust, . . . allowed the bad qualities which he had hitherto held in abeyance, to get the mastery over him." Such is Prof. Allen's explanation of the reasons for the fearful scenes of cruelty and tyranny which made infamous the last eight years of Tiberius.

In the commentary on the text, it is very evident that Prof. Allen was not one of those who seem to believe that Latin books were written to afford a field for the study of grammar. Attention is paid to the style and peculiarities of language of Tacitus, but the chief object is to remind the student that he is dealing with a chapter in history, to be read and understood as such. The difficult points in this line, as well as in public and private antiquities, are explained, rather than grammatical *cruces*. This, we believe, should always be the aim in a commentary on a work used by students of sufficient maturity to approach an author like Tacitus. Plenty of men in our colleges can rattle off the rules of syntax, and account for every accusative and subjunctive in the longest period; but when it comes to any real understanding of what they read, they are often as ignorant as Philip's eunuch. To such persons this book will be a real benefit. The notes are sufficient, yet always brief; they are not polemical, but present simply the editor's own conclusions, and are never padded out with a mass of lore to show his knowledge. The gap in the history caused by the loss of nearly all the fifth book, is filled out by quotations from Dio Cassius, Juvenal, and Suetonius —an excellent idea. We have also a map and several portraits of members of the imperial family.

We have hinted that Prof. Allen was no grammarian, and have rather approved of it. Yet in the course of study of any author, at any period of the student's life, certain grammatical peculiarities will always arise which it is an editor's duty to explain. We do not think that the part of the introduction which treats of the grammatical and stylistic peculiarities of Tacitus will be found sufficient by teachers or ad-

vanced scholars. It is the weak point in the book; the editor clearly felt it a task, and it bears marks of hasty work. For example, we find the statement: "Many words are used only by Tacitus, and others only by him in a certain meaning, *e. g.*, *finire*, die, *inturbidus*, undisturbed, *circumflui*, surrounded by." Of these three words it is true that *inturbidus* is used only by Tacitus; but *circumflui* is used in the same sense by other writers, while Tacitus himself sometimes uses *finire* in its common meaning. The statement is therefore defective, and cannot be improved by changing the position of the word *only*. A more serious error is in the remark that the use of the historical infinitive in a subordinate clause is peculiar to Tacitus. This is true only when such a clause precedes the main clause. In its use when following the main clause he had predecessors in Sallust and Livy, and followers in Florus and Lactantius. An error in a different part of the book is a repetition of one which we noted in the 'History of the Roman People.' In the genealogical table of the Cæsars, L. Domitius is made to figure as the son instead of as the husband of the elder Antonia. Of course this is only a slip, and not due to ignorance, for in one of the notes the two are rightly described as man and wife.

The book has two excellent indexes, and the type is clear and handsome. The editors of the "College Series of Latin Authors" deserve congratulations as well as thanks for the first American edition of the 'Annals' which can be called scholarly.

Nation-Making: A story of New Zealand. By J. C. Firth. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

THIS book is built in compartments like an ocean steamer. There is no direct connection of ideas between them, and what most strikes the reader in passing from one to the other is a steady and well-marked deterioration in quality from the beginning of the book to the end. In the first part Mr. Firth writes from the fulness of personal knowledge and experience of the early days of the colony, brings out the most interesting points of the Maori character in a variety of anecdotes, and paints with considerable skill and with plenty of local color a picture of the decline and fall of a remarkably fine race of savages. In all this, Mr. Firth is at his best, and, in spite of some peculiarities of style, this part of his book is pleasant reading. Another compartment is packed with statistics of more or less interest relating to the growth of population, indebtedness, railroads, etc., in New Zealand. As long as he confines himself to such statements of fact, Mr. Firth is presumably correct; but when he begins to draw inferences from the figures of imports and exports, it soon appears that he shares Mr. Blaine's grotesque ideas on this branch of political economy.

When the reader has made this discovery, he is to some extent prepared for what follows. In a subsequent compartment he is taken at headlong speed through the wars and waste places of the world's history, from the building of the pyramids down to the recent strike of the London dock-laborers. In lurid and somewhat incoherent language, he is warned that a terrific conflict is at hand between Labor with a big L and Capital with a big C, and that doubt, unbelief, and despair are casting their shadows over Humanity with a big H. If he follows the argument closely to the end, he will find that, according to Mr. Firth, four things are necessary in order to ward off the wrath to come: (1) that the day's labor shall be reduced to eight hours, (2) that trades unions shall be encouraged and upheld at any cost, (3) that the miserable theories of political economy on the one hand and those of "Darwin and his fellows" on the other shall be cast to the winds, and (4) that England shall at once spend one hundred millions sterling on new war-ships in order to become mistress of the seas. Having arrived at these invaluable results, the bewildered reader will probably examine such convictions as he may possess on these subjects, and, finding them unmoved by Mr. Firth's word-cyclones, he will close the book and murmur with thankfulness the customary Maori peroration: "Enough. It is ended."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Year's Naval Progress. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Barracand, L. The Viscountess. Chicago: Chas. H. Sergel & Co. 50 cents.
Boyesen, H. H. Against Heavy Odds. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Brinton, D. G. Races and Peoples. N. D. C. Hodges.
Chapin, Kate. At Fault. St. Louis: Nixon-Jones Printing Co.
Coppée, F. Disillusion. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Cranch, C. P. The Bird and the Bell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Dembitz, L. N. Kentucky Jurisprudence. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $6.
Dieulafoy, Mme. Jane. At Susa. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $5.
Edgren, A. H. French Grammar. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.20.
Fables, Anecdotes, and Stories for the Purposes of Composition. Boston School Supply Co.
Farrar, Canon. The Passion Play at Oberammergau. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Frances, K. E. The Chief Justice. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 23, 1890.

The Week.

SPEAKER REED has not "caught on" to the new Republican defence of the McKinley Law and its higher prices. He is arguing on the ground first assumed by its defenders, that the law has, to quote the language of Belden's Congressional Republican campaign document, "in no case raised the cost of necessary supplies to the American consumer." In other words, he is maintaining that "cheapness" is a desirable thing, and that the McKinley Law has given us a great deal of it. We place a passage from his speech at Buffalo on Wednesday evening side by side with a passage from Mr. McKinley's speech in Kalamazoo on the previous evening:

[McKinley, Oct. 14, 1890.]

Well, now they say you would have things cheaper if you only had a Democratic revenue tariff. Cheap! I never liked the word. "Cheap" and "nasty" go together. *This whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty, for cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country, and that is not the kind our fathers builded. Furthermore, it is not the kind their sons mean to maintain.*

[Reed, Oct. 15, 1890.]

They also ask me if I know of any article which has been lowered in price by the tariff. I could spend the entire evening in giving the facts showing that articles have been lowered in price. I can remember the time when I had to pay $1.45 a yard for ingrain carpet. Now you can buy it for 45 cents a yard. I remember when you had to pay $6 a keg for nails. Now you can get the same nails for $3 a keg. The Democrats say it is invention that lowers prices. Is invention the gift of God? In my opinion it rests upon protection. It is the protective tariff which tempts our inventors to work at inventing cheaper processes of manufacturing.

According to Mr. Reed, the McKinley Tariff Law is working to make what McKinley calls a "cheap and nasty" country filled with "cheap men."

The two apostles should "get together." Their speeches on this topic, at present, sound like the wanderings of a demented or intoxicated person, but they are really the observations of two perfectly sane but rather unscrupulous men who find themselves in "a hole." The fun of it all is increased by the fact that only two weeks ago McKinley, in an interview with the Chicago *Tribune*, tried to show that one of the merits of his bill was that it cheapened more things than the Mills Bill, by putting them on the free list. Here is his very amusing boasting on this subject:

"In spite of what has been said to the contrary, the bill gives to the people freer trade than any tariff legislation that has been put upon our statute-books in more than a century of our existence. During the first thirty years of our history nearly every article was made dutiable. In 1824 less than 6 per cent. of our imports was free; in 1833 only 15 per cent. of our imported goods was free; in 1842 only 27 per cent. was free; in 1846, the great revenue-tariff year, only 12 per cent.; in 1857 only 18 per cent. From 1873 down to 1883, 30 per cent. only was free, and in 1889 39 per cent. was free. This bill makes about one-half of them absolutely free to the people. The Mills Bill, that famous Democratic tariff bill, only made free in all about 47 per cent. of our importations. By the bill just passed one-half of our importations, or nearly so, are made free."

The way these people contradict themselves now, and not simply from year to year, but from week to week, shows how great is their perplexity. They literally lie like clockwork, on the principle of any port in a storm.

After the arguments on the evils of cheapness to which Massachusetts Republicans have been treated of late, it must have been a relief to those who attended the meeting in Boston last Thursday evening to listen to Edward L. Pierce, the Republican candidate for Congress in the Third District. He declared that on a subject like the tariff "a thoughtful man will decline to wear labels or badges, or to bind himself to any one abstract theory." Acting on this independent platform, he said that a measure like the McKinley Bill is at best a compromise between sections and interests. He pleaded for such reciprocity as would benefit New England, saying (in the face of the McKinley Bill) that "the free potato is far more essential to a laboring man's breakfast than free tea and coffee; for while these beverages are confined usually to the heads of the family, the potato goes around the table, for children and for all. The same is true of eggs, as every housewife knows." He even refused to join in the work of assailing importers of foreign goods—those conspirators who, according to the Philadelphia *Press*, are putting up prices to help the Democrats—saying of them: "There are importers in this city who are behind no class of citizens in mercantile honor, in public spirit, and in generous benefactions." A speech of this kind is, of course, very discouraging to the Lodges and Hoars and Greenhalges. The Boston *Journal* scents danger for Mr. Pierce, and comes to his defence in this way:

"We shall, no doubt, be quickly told by our Democratic adversaries that Mr. Pierce does not agree with the Republican party; that he favors free potatoes from the Provinces, free eggs, and free coal. That may or may not be true under all conditions, all circumstances, but it is only the superficial critic who will, on this account, question the quality of Mr. Pierce's Republicanism. The allegiance of a life-long, honored member of the Republican party is to be measured by no such test."

We are glad that the line of Massachusetts Republicanism is conceded to lie within free eggs and potatoes. We shall not be at all surprised, after the election returns of the next month are in, to be told that it embraces also free coal and iron ore.

The following appears in the Philadelphia *Press*:

"Some of the New York importers, acting on a request of the Democratic Congressional Committee to increase prices in order to hurt the Republicans, have already discovered that lying does not pay. A Western house was charged an advance on an order for some woollen goods, on the ground that the tariff had been increased, but examination by the Western house disclosed the fact that the old rate on these particular goods was 35 cents a pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem, while the new rate is 22 cents a pound and 40 per cent. ad valorem, a reduction instead of an increase—to say nothing of the fact the goods were in stock before the new Tariff Act took effect. As a result, the New York house lost a valuable customer. Some of the retail houses which have been trying to help the Democratic party by advancing prices on goods not affected by the tariff, are suffering a loss of customers in the same way. It serves them right."

It appears from this that the editor does not know that the beauty of dearness is now the true Republican doctrine. Consequently, the New York importers who have been raising their prices have really been helping the Republicans, and probably got their orders from the Republican Congressional Committee. It is true that there is no real unity of sentiment among the chiefs as to which is better, cheapness or dearness, or as to which the McKinley Bill will produce. In fact, its effect seems to vary with the locality in which the orator finds himself. The bill is somewhat like the horse which the owner was extolling to a possible purchaser, who asked if he hadn't got the internal disease known as "bots." "Well," said the owner, who had never heard of "bots" before, "if it's a good thing to have, he's got it." We quite agree with the *Press* that "lying does not pay." And we also agree with the gentleman who, when it was proved to him that the assertions of the New York *Tribune*, made in the canvass of 1884, that if Cleveland were elected we should have to pay $3,000,000,000 of "rebel claims," were groundless, exclaimed in breathless astonishment, "Then there has been a terrible amount of lying somewhere."

The wide range of the McKinley prices is shown from day to day by the new circulars issued by manufacturers. Two new ones reached us last week. One was from Wolff & Randolph, manufacturers of Wolff's Acme Blacking, Philadelphia, who advise the trade that an enormous increase in the cost of their raw material, due to the McKinley tariff, compels them to advance their prices. The other was from the Hayden manufactory at Newark, N. J., informing customers that the McKinley Bill has increased the cost of their celebrated "horse-clippers." So it appears that the cost of polishing the horse has gone up simultaneously with the cost of polishing his harness. The price of the horse himself has not gone up, so far as we know, although the duty on horses has been increased from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. ad valorem. The Elizabeth (N. J) *Journal* tells us that these circulars marking up prices are issued by "Democratic conspirators," and that it is all "a shrewd political dodge." But it takes courage to believe that "this fictitious marking up of prices and sending abroad free-trade circulars will not result as was intended, because the people of this nation are not fools, whatever

the free-traders take them to be." We advise it to write at once to the parties just named, and ask them whether they are Democrats, or free-traders, or whether they have any political design in issuing their respective circulars.

One value of the new Tariff Bill as a means of proving to the people that the tariff *is* a tax, consists in the wide list of articles of which the price is increased by the bill, thus making it certain that persons of all classes will feel its influence. For instance, the photograph in these days is so common that it is no longer a luxury, but an almost universal means of keeping by one the countenances of friends, living or dead. The improvement in cameras, too, has raised up thousands of amateur photographers, who find the most innocent of pleasures in carrying away with them pictures of scenes they visit. The tariff taxer has not let the photograph escape. Albumenized paper is one of the requisites of photography. Its manufacture has been tried in this country, and photographers say that the result is a failure. But a single concern in western New York wants "protection" while it is experimenting with its paper, and the Republican Congress has raised the duty, so that the imported paper, which cost $32 a ream last year, will henceforth cost $42.50. The increased cost of each photograph will be small, but a Boston photographer estimates that the increased duty on this one article will put a tax equal to four cents a head on every man, woman, and child in this country. And what have the Republicans to offset such an argument? A picture, in the style of a circus poster, of the House with the Democrats absent when there was no Republican quorum, and when the Republicans were trying to steal the seats of legally elected Democrats!

One of the swindles of the McKinley Tariff Bill is found in the paragraph putting a duty on natural mineral waters of sixteen cents per dozen bottles. This will add at least one dollar to the price of every case of Vichy, Seltzer, Apollinaris, Giesshubler, Kissingen, Sprudel, etc., none of which are or can be produced in this country. Probably the idea of putting a tax on them was to make a better market for the American imitations of these waters. This conception was carried into effect in Conference Committee in paragraph 341, but the Committee forgot to strike out the paragraph 650 in the bill which puts "mineral waters, all not artificial," in the free list. Consequently, the law in one paragraph makes these waters free, and in another makes them dutiable at sixteen cents per dozen. The customs authorities, under the clause which directs that if two or more rates of duty shall be applicable to any imported article, the highest rate shall be assessed, have enforced the duty of sixteen cents per dozen. Whether this clause applies to cases where one of the conflicting rates of duty is no duty at all, may be a question.

"The little tin god on wheels" has been spurred to greater activity since the Pittsburgh *Dispatch* announced that the Welshmen who visited that city had decided that it would be unprofitable to start works there or anywhere in the United States. A *Tribune* despatch now tells us that "three tin-plate works in the vicinity of Pittsburgh are a certainty, while four others are contemplated." The little tin god is contemplating a great many works in different parts of the country. He is going to get his block tin, the *Tribune* despatch tells us, from Dakota, Wyoming, and California. These mines will easily supply all the tin that will be required by the three tin-plate works that are "a certainty," and the four that are in contemplation, there being no tin ore in paying quantities in any of those places. It casts a shadow of doubt upon the whole *Tribune* story to read that certain Welsh gentlemen, members of the British Iron and Steel Institute, who have been in Pittsburgh lately, have tin-plate works in contemplation. "During their visit to Pittsburgh last week," says the despatch, "they made inquiries which led the writer to that conclusion." These are the same gentlemen, no doubt, who were interviewed by the Pittsburgh *Dispatch* to the contrary effect.

The little tin god has taken the stump in Illinois, as appears from the following paragraph in a Rockford paper:

"Mr. Hitt called attention to the matter of tin plate. Up to 1879 this was entirely imported at the cost of $14 per box. An American factory was started, and the foreigners put the price down to $4 per box. This closed the American factory. The price then went up to $11. Then another American factory started, and again the price went down. This time agents were sent to this country and directed to follow the product of the American mills about, and make the price twenty-five cents lower than any price made on the American goods. The mills closed again and remained closed. It was thought that the time had come to stop this boycotting of American goods, and a tariff of two and two-tenths cents per pound had been placed upon tin-plate. What is the result? *Already a factory with a capital of $3,500,000 and to employ 3,500 hands was being organized at Chicago. Another $7,000,000 factory was started in Baltimore.* Another tin-plate factory was being started at St. Louis."

The Chicago factory and the Baltimore factory have been searched for with great assiduity since the announcement of their "contemplation" went abroad on the wires, but nobody has been able to find trace of them. Mr. Hitt's fable about a tin-plate factory in this country in 1874, and its effect upon prices, was exposed in the Senate by a quotation from David A. Wells's book, 'Recent Economic Changes,' showing that the ups and downs of the tin-plate market were due to inventions and discoveries, and to the laws of supply and demand, with which the toy tin-plate works at Demmler, Pa., had no more to do than a meteor has to do with the movement of the earth in its orbit.

The speech of Carl Schurz at Boston on Monday evening on the tariff question and the Lodge Bill, was fully up to the measure of his powers as a political thinker and a public debater. No speech of the present year has been on a higher plane of practical morality and philosophical thought. A large part of its value is due to Mr. Schurz's historical studies, for which his 'Life of Henry Clay' has especially fitted him. It is to be regretted that such a document was not given to the public somewhat earlier in the present campaign.

There is no more significant and encouraging sign of the times than the complete change in the attitude of the *Staats-Zeitung* towards Tammany. The same journal which, during the last municipal campaign, preferred Grant to Hewitt, has at last caught the drift of public opinion and thrown Tammany overboard. Nothing can be more outspoken than its characterization of the two candidates for the Mayoralty. "As regards both natural ability and education," the *Staats-Zeitung* says, "Grant is utterly beneath Scott; and if one of the two is destined to achieve political distinction transcending the limits of our city, it can only be Scott. Grant has shown that he uses his position chiefly for the advancement of his organization, and it is this fact that has made his administration so odious to thousands. Scott will not be owned by any political organization, and that is the best feature of his nomination. His experience of many years in municipal affairs, his familiarity with the laws bearing on them, which renders him independent of the doubtful guidance of 'legal advisers,' his tact, energy, and other qualities, give every assurance that he will make an excellent Mayor."

That this language will have its due effect on thousands of voters from among the class which has hitherto steadily supported Tammany, no one can doubt, nor that the permanent alienation of that vote from Tammany would be of incalculable benefit to the city. There has been for many years no greater puzzle to the foreign observer of our institutions than the rôle the Germans have played in the politics of the chief city of the American Continent. German administrative ability at home has converted an arid sand waste on the Spree into a city which is an unsurpassed municipal model, while German indifference here has largely helped to make New York, naturally one of the most favored spots on the face of the earth, a reproach to American civilization. That the Germans are beginning to recover from their apathy is evident from the enthusiasm with which some of their most prominent representatives have thrown themselves into the work of the Municipal League, and there is every reason to hope that the mass-meeting of German-Americans which will soon be called will help to communicate this enthusiasm to the masses.

The old abuse of assessing the clerks in the departments at Washington for "voluntary contributions" of specified amounts has been revived, and is again almost as unblushing as in the days of the notorious Hubbell. The Republican managers not only "re-

quest," in terms not to be refused, a certain percentage of the clerk's salary, but they also insist that he shall make a journey to his old home and vote the Republican ticket on election day. The various State associations at Washington have charge of this work, and "spotters" have been appointed to note any failure and report the offender for the punishment of dismissal, which is plainly threatened. All this is done under the administration of a President who, when a candidate, announced his belief in the wisdom of the Civil-Service Law, and declared that "the law should be faithfully and rigorously enforced."

Mr. Robert Lincoln, son of Abraham Lincoln, has been rather distinguished for commonplace doings and sayings, and has thus, and by virtue of his ancestry, gained several public positions, which he has filled in a respectable sort of way. He has now really distinguished himself by writing a letter from England to help Quay in his death-struggle in Pennsylvania. That would be quite sufficient to give him an unpleasant eminence, but the form of his letter adds something to the moral offence. He writes particularly to object to the use of the name "Lincoln Republicans" by such men as Herbert Welsh, Henry C. Lea, and others who have adopted that style and title in their fight against corruption in the politics of Pennsylvania. He says that he does not know any warrant for the use of his father's name in that fight. So much the worse for him. All the rest of the world knows the warrant for its use. Abraham Lincoln was known in his early life in Illinois as "Honest Abe." This appellation was earned by scrupulous adherence to the ten commandments, and especially to one of them which says, "Thou shalt not steal." The golden rule was no "iridescent dream" to him, but a maxim to guide him in his downsitting and his uprising in political as well as every-day life. He never could have reached the pinnacle where he stood and stands by any toleration of the ways of Quay and Delamater. It was a perfectly natural and justifiable step for Messrs. Welsh, Lea, and their associates to take the name of Lincoln. They might have taken that of Washington as properly. Mr. Robert Lincoln has written himself down very decidedly by his letter in behalf of two common cheats, but he cannot write his father down nor write Quay and Delamater up.

The Philadelphia *Ledger* agrees with us that, if our estimate of what the total population of the country according to the census will be, shall be verified, the result will be to "completely discredit" the census itself. Since our estimates were made, which were based on the returns from 137 supervisors' districts, we have received the figures for 26 more districts, leaving but 12 yet to be heard from. The total population of these 163 districts in 1880 was 47,710,933; and in 1890, according to the census, it is 59,106,931—an increase of 11,395,998, or at the rate of 23.89 per cent. A similar rate of increase for the remaining twelve districts, which in 1880 had a population of 2,453,850, would give a total for the country of 62,138,000. After deducting the increase by immigration, the rate of natural increase indicated is but 13.44 per cent. It is probable, from the location of the districts the returns from which we have not as yet seen, that the increase in them may be relatively greater than in the rest of the country; but even if the increase should average as much as 50 per cent., the rate for the country as a whole would be but 25 per cent., and the portion of this due to natural growth exclusive of immigration but 14½ per cent., or, as we have before stated, less than in any previous decade, and very much less than in any decade except that of the war and the defective census of 1870.

The penalty of ten days' suspension imposed by the Union League Club on that very queer person, Col. Elliott F. Shepard, for ungentlemanly behavior to his fellow-members, is, when one examines it, fully as queer as Shepard himself. The standard of social morals enforced by club rules is, or ought to be, precisely that which governs the intercourse of gentlemen in private houses, or in a steamer or a railroad car. That is to say, in such intercourse a man may make himself offensive by conduct resulting from thoughtlessness, from an outburst of temper, or from ignorance of certain social facts. All such cases are, as a rule, expiable by an apology couched in suitable terms. But if he should make himself offensive in ways which could not be atoned for by an apology—that is, by offences indicating incurable faults of character, such as conceit, or selfishness, or dishonesty, or mendacity, or morbid curiosity—the rule of private life prescribes the permanent cessation of social intercourse with him. When one gentleman offends another in a way which cannot be settled by an expression of sincere regret, the offended party, in the more highly civilized countries, ceases to see the offender or to communicate with him except on business. In some places he kills him, but in our happier clime he simply breaks off intercourse with him for good. He never thinks of saying to him, "Sir, your conduct on such a day in such a place shows that you have neither the instincts nor the training of a gentleman. I shall, therefore, taking everything into consideration, refuse to speak to you for a period of two weeks from this date." In other words, gentlemen do not pass sentence on each other like a police magistrate sitting on "a drunk." They do not send associates to Coventry for limited periods and then take them back as if nothing had happened. A man is either fit company for gentlemen, or he is not. If he is not, nothing that can happen to him in ten days will make him fit. No man is for social purposes an occasional or temporary blackguard or lout. If he is a blackguard on the first of the month, he is sure to be a blackguard on the fifteenth.

Dillon, we see, has announced his intention, and that of O'Brien, of going back to undergo his term of imprisonment, whatever it may be, as soon as he finishes his tour in this country. This is not a very respectful announcement to the court which will shortly convict him, but it is as respectful as the court deserves. In no Anglo-Saxon country since the abolition of the Star Chamber have public men been tried for political conspiracy proved by public speeches, before such tribunals as are now set up in Ireland. The appearance of the prisoner before them is a mere waste of his time, and he is entirely justified, if he has other engagements, in surrendering when it suits his convenience. Public opinion in England, even Tory opinion, seems to condemn Balfour's last move strongly, because it will fill the winter session of Parliament with Irish debates, in which John Morley will appear as a witness about Irish criminal procedure. But, on the other hand, it will probably insure the Liberal-Unionists another year of security in their seats, for it renders a dissolution in 1891 very improbable. Lord Salisbury will not like to dissolve in the midst of a renewal of the Irish hubbub, and of a virtual confession from Balfour that order does *not* reign in Ireland.

The latest turns in Spanish politics are decidedly in favor of the Conservatives, and there seems now to be a general expectation that they will be triumphant in the approaching elections. Indeed, Sagasta himself is reported by a Paris newspaper to have admitted that he had no real hope of success. The Conservative canvass is in the hands of one of the ablest and shrewdest politicians of Spain, Señor Silvela, Minister for the Interior, and Cánovas is left free to expend his great oratorical powers in the doubtful districts. His programme of labor legislation, after the Bismarckian model, is well calculated to cut into the Liberal strength in manufacturing centres, while the landholding interests are sure to stand by him as before on the ground of his promises of protection to national agriculture. Then, too, the dignity and success of his administration thus far, accented just now by the favorable result of the new loan to fund the Cuban debt, are strong points to his advantage. The Liberals, on the other hand, have by no means healed their dissensions, and Sagasta has been particularly unfortunate in his free talks with French reporters. He stirred up Castelar mightily by admitting the Queen Regent's right to dismiss or form a Cabinet on her own notion of what was proper, without regard to the wish of the Cortes, and drew upon himself a savage attack from Zorrilla by asserting that the Republicans ought to be content with the law of universal suffrage. The latter, in fact, challenged Sagasta to an open discussion of Spanish affairs before a Paris audience, undertaking to expose the hollowness of his pretensions, but the ex-Premier declined thus to wash the national dirty linen in the presence of strangers.

CHEAPNESS.

THE Republicans have contributed, and are contributing every day, a number of interesting novelties to economical literature. The enemies of political economy have long been in the habit of reproaching it with not being a science; but what little science there was in it will hardly survive, in America at least, the improvements which our high-tariff men are introducing. Among these improvements are the following propositions, which have until now been unknown to all the professors and politicians of other countries:

(1.) That an import duty is not a tax, and yet raises the price of articles to the consumer. (2.) That the object of raising prices to the consumer is to enable the domestic manufacturer to pay higher wages to his workmen. (3.) That although the duty does raise prices to the consumer, the consumer does not pay the duty, but the foreign vender. (4.) That if it were called a "tax," it would be paid by the consumer, but by calling it a "duty," the foreigner is made to pay it. (5.) That it does not raise prices to the consumer at all, but, on the contrary, lowers them. (6.) That the manufacturers are enabled to continue to pay higher wages to their workmen, in spite of this fall of prices, by refusing to consider the tariff in detail and looking at it "as a whole." (7.) That any one who refuses to look at the tariff "as a whole," and complains of it for either lowering or raising prices, is a bad man. (8.) That there is in all high tariffs an inward and spiritual force which makes their effect on prices really a matter of indifference to the truly devout, and that faith is just as needful in political economy as in religion.

It will readily be seen that there is hardly any more room for "science" here than in the dogmas of the Catholic Church. The high-tariff doctors are as exacting in the matter of belief as Tertullian or Cardinal Newman. Cardinal Newman wrote a book called the 'Grammar of Assent,' showing that belief is a matter of will—that is, that if you have your will in proper order, you can believe anything you please. It is just as difficult to believe that a tariff both raises and lowers prices, and enables manufacturers to pay higher wages by lowering prices, as to believe in the Trinity or Transubstantiation. You have simply to "pull yourself together," and down goes the doctrine. In fact, we know of tariff zealots who are in Tertullian's state of mind, and like a tariff of contradictions because it furnishes things hard to swallow. Their eyes glow and their mouths water with pious zeal when they light in it on a flagrant absurdity. It seems to them that the bigger the absurdity, the more "American" it is, and they gulp it down, just as Tertullian would have liked an "impossibility" for his spiritual breakfast every morning.

The hardest trial for the believer, however, and most astounding contribution of all to the protectionist gospel, has been made by two minds of very different calibre—President Harrison and Mr. Cabot Lodge. The President's mind it would be disrespectful to examine too minutely as long as he occupies his present high office. Mr. Lodge's we know to be exceedingly acute and well trained. It was President Harrison's which produced in 1888, during his canvass—simply, we admit, as what Roman Catholics call a "pious opinion"—the doctrine that cheapness is an evil. Said this great doctor in a speech in Chicago in that year: "I am one of those uninstructed political economists that have an impression that some things may be too cheap; that I cannot find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coats."

Now this, when you examine it, is really a tremendous proposition—a more serious one, by far, than anything contained in the Syllabus of Pius the Ninth of blessed memory. It contains an attack on the modern civilization such as no Pope has as yet ventured on. For in what does material civilization consist? Simply in making things pertaining to human safety and comfort "cheaper"—that is, attainable by less and less labor and self-denial—clothes, food, shelter, transportation. For one thousand years it has been the understanding of the civilized world that this cheapening process was a good thing, and that those who facilitated it in any field were benefactors of their race. That President Harrison's attack on it did not produce more sensation, that it did not make even more commotion than the infallible decree of the Vatican Council, has always astonished us. Probably a thousand could be got to believe in the Pope's infallibility for the one who could be got to believe that wearing a cheap coat damaged the moral side of his nature. Nevertheless, it seemed to fall rather flat except among the tailors. In tailoring circles it was received with pious awe, but the rest of the world neither accepted it nor rejected it. They simply suspended judgment about it, waiting for more light.

But now comes Mr. Cabot Lodge, the Scholar in Politics, and tells a Yankee audience at Lowell the other day, that "the cry for cheapness is un-American, and that there is such a thing as too much cheapness." Of course nobody will believe for one moment that Lodge has got this notion through the working of poor human reason. Lodge's understanding would do no such jobs for any man. He has got it, in our opinion, through the working of tariff grace in his soul. President Harrison's pious opinion sowed the seed, and tariff grace did the rest. It probably puzzled Lodge at first to find the proper depreciatory epithet for cheapness, but it came, as such things always come finally to the spiritually minded. It came upon him as a revelation that the desire for cheapness was "un-American," a sign of a carnal heart or unregenerate American nature. When the doctrine is firmly established, the American father and mother searching the town for a place where they can save money in the purchase of household utensils or the children's clothing will be looked on as a depraved couple, and be avoided by their neighbors as still under the dominion of the European Satan, the Cobden Club. It will, in fact, work nearly as great a revolution in modern thought as Darwinism. A world in which people sought for things because they were dear would, it is easy to see, be absolutely a different world economically, socially, politically, and even morally from that in which we now live. Our whole system of ethics would have to be revised. Extravagance would have to be struck from the list of public and private vices. Prudence would have to be furnished with a new meaning. Inventors would become as despicable as liquor-dealers, and the increase of taxation the highest aim of the statesman.

THE BUSINESS SITUATION.

AN examination of railroad earnings and expenses for the fiscal year just closed does not show any general cause for financial alarm, nor does an outlook over the present railroad situation point to any reason for the heavy decline in stocks which can be attributed to causes arising from transportation alone. Explanations of the large reductions in the prices of shares and bonds should be sought for outside of any serious change in the net earnings or intrinsic values of railroad properties. There are, on the other hand, some features of the general condition of our trade which should have attention. Business over the whole country is good—better, indeed, than for a few years past; while the prices of all commodities are advancing. Increasing trade demands increasing funds to carry it on. A merchant who may have railroad shares or bonds in his safe, and who feels the need of more money in his business, sees that it is better to sell his railroad investment, even at a loss, than to let his expanding trade suffer.

A small investor, who is perhaps a manufacturer, during slack times may put his reserve capital into railroads. Yet if the orders for goods increase, he will sell his railroad securities. For, profit or no profit, the manufacturer must protect his business, since though his factory may run at a small margin of profit, yet to refuse orders for goods would be fatal to his future. Manufacturing is his business, his purchases of bonds or speculative stocks being matters of mere surplusage. This, however, is not the situation of a majority of merchants. Although business men may speak of 2 per cent. as a usual profit, yet their real gains may be much more than the percentage implies. For example, a firm with a capital of a million of dollars may sell eight millions worth of goods in gross annually. If there is a profit of even 2 per cent. upon the gross sales, as well as an interest charge of 6 per cent. upon the capital, the profits really are 22 per cent. upon the original investment. If, then, there is a boom in trade warranting such a calculation, outside investments yielding 5 or 6 per cent. of money which can now be used in business, are relatively dear at half the usual quotation. Here is one of the causes of stock declines.

Another consideration is not so favorable,

The uneasy money-lender is more apprehensive of the future of general business than of the railroads *per se*. For several years prices of staple goods have been low and the volume of trade has been moderate. After such an era, it is probable that we should this fall have seen a slight advance in prices and volume of business without the McKinley Bill. That Tariff Law, coming at a time when some advance was probable, has forced the rise far beyond its natural limits. Commerce now is feverish and uncertain as to the future, while still higher prices are predicted for everything Even dealers in goods not affected by the new tariff have caught the contagion. But will the consumer continue to pay an advance estimated as high as 20 per cent. on the things he and his family have been used to buying? To do this and at the same time to purchase as much as before is a financial impossibility unless his income is increased in proportion. An increase in the consumer's wages or salary will be slow in coming, if it comes at all. Meanwhile, what is he to do? He must curtail his purchases by just the amount of the increase in price. In this readjustment between quantity and price of articles manufactured, sold, and consumed lies the danger. The question will be, What articles will the wage-earner dispense with? and which factory will (after the boom) be obliged to shorten work or close?

Every one has noticed that periods of lower and higher prices succeed each other in our commercial history. These changes, when brought about through natural causes and gradually, do comparatively little harm. On the contrary, the McKinley Bill, by its suddenness and by its large differences from former tariffs in important lines, is the greatest effort of modern times to change quickly and completely the settled channels of trade. Fortunately, the wealth and natural resources of our country will aid us in limiting the evil effects to a certain extent, and yet such a far-reaching readjustment of commercial conditions can be made only through losses. All business must feel the "boom" and the reaction to a certain degree, but many of our industries will reach a place of safety only after much financial distress. Which industries will be most seriously affected, is the question that capitalists are now asking themselves.

Railroad securities are no doubt encountering this feeling of uncertainty in advance of other business; and herein is another reason for the late declines. There is, however, good ground for believing that these same railroad securities will be found among our most stable investments by reason of the present readjustment. A reaction having been anticipated and "discounted," these securities are already prepared for any business trouble that may come. If none comes, they will be so much the better fortified.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

THERE has lately been issued from the Government Printing-office a series of documents relating to the International American Conference. These are five in number, each one embracing a single subject, and they are bound in paper of different colors. The one entitled 'Report and Recommendations concerning a Plan of Arbitration' is in sky-blue, a most proper color, since it is conceived in the interest of heavenly peace. Of all the things considered by the Conference this is the one best entitled to commendation. Although it was not unanimously agreed to, it did, nevertheless, express the mature opinions of the American delegates and Government and of the American people, as we devoutly think. It was transmitted to the Senate and House of Representatives with a special message on the 3d of September last by President Harrison, who said: "The ratification of the treaties contemplated by these reports will constitute one of the happiest and most hopeful incidents in the history of the Western Hemisphere."

The plan of arbitration, after reciting the Christian motives that moved the framers "to lend their assent to the lofty principles of peace which the most enlightened public sentiment of the world approves," designates the subjects of international controversy as to which arbitration should be obligatory. These are "all controversies concerning diplomatic and consular privileges, boundaries, territories, indemnities, the right of navigation, and the validity, construction, and enforcement of treaties." As though this were not comprehensive enough, the next article says that arbitration shall be equally obligatory in all other cases, with one exception, namely, where, in the judgment of a nation, its independence is imperilled. Article v. declares that the scope of the plan includes all controversies now pending or hereafter arising. Article vii. provides that the choice of arbitrators shall not be limited to American States, but that any government may serve in that capacity. The remaining articles provide for the mode of choosing arbitrators and umpires, and for paying the expenses of arbitration.

The second grand division of the plan is entitled "Recommendation to European Powers." It recites that "this conference, having recommended arbitration for the settlement of disputes among the republics of America, begs leave to express the wish that controversies between them and the nations of Europe may be settled in the same friendly manner."

The appositeness of this entire scheme, and especially of the passage last quoted, to the Bering Sea dispute cannot be doubted. The subject is freshly brought to remembrance by an article in the *Herald of Peace*, an English publication, which has been sent to this country for distribution, not by the pestilent Cobden Club, but by the British Peace Society. The tone of the article is all that could be desired. Probably the publication and distribution of it is due to some shade of doubt whether the offer of Lord Salisbury to submit the Bering Sea question to arbitration is to be accepted by our Government or not. The latest information that we have had on this subject is contained in Mr. Blaine's letter of July 2 to Sir Julian Pauncefote, in which he (Blaine) expressed regret that Lord Salisbury had refused to request British sealers to keep out of Bering Sea during the present season unless the United States should "forthwith" accept arbitration. In the same letter Mr. Blaine said: "An agreement to arbitrate requires careful consideration; the United States is perhaps more fully committed to that form of international adjustment than any other Power, but it cannot consent that the form in which arbitration shall be undertaken shall be decided without full consultation and conference between the two Governments." Very proper, of course. Lord Salisbury's "forthwith" was used in the sense of "simultaneously." Mr. Blaine had asked that Salisbury should "request" British sealers to keep out of Bering Sea during the season of 1890. Such a request coming from the Premier must be construed as a command in order to be effective, and yet, if any British sealer should disobey it, he could not be punished, because Lord Salisbury had no right under English law to issue such a command. Nevertheless, he said he would take it into consideration on certain conditions, one of which was that "the two governments agree forthwith to refer to arbitration the question," etc. It was not an unreasonable condition, if Salisbury was to take a step involving a good deal of personal responsibility, that, simultaneously with it, arbitration of the whole dispute should be agreed to; otherwise he would be exposed to the charge of assuming unconstitutional powers without advancing the settlement of the controversy

Thus much explanation is requisite to show how the question now stands as between the two governments. Perhaps the time that has since passed has been usefully occupied with consultation and conference on this subject. We hope so, at all events. How it will stand between us and the world if the do-nothing policy is to spin itself out till the next season, can be read in the lines of the sky-blue document just issued from the Government Printing-office. We have, then, put upon record our testimony in favor of arbitration in all cases affecting "boundaries, territories, indemnities, and the right of navigation," and in all other cases not imperilling the independence of a nation. We have recommended the nations of Europe to adopt our plan so far as relates to their controversies with *us*. In due time we shall see what all this amounts to.

SCIENCE AND THE CHURCH.

EX-PRESIDENT WHITE'S series of articles, running for some months in the *Popular Science Monthly*, were unfeeling in their exposure of the obscurantist attitude of the Church, standing in days gone by athwart almost all lines of scientific advance, and it is not strange that they have evoked remonstrances. A very clever and plausible offset to his damaging showing has been brought forward by Prof. Wright, who reminds him that theologians are not the only men who have got in the way of scientific progress, but that scientists themselves have

vied with the most obstreperous dogmatists of the Church in disparaging and denouncing some of the greatest discoveries ever made. Why single out the latter sinners? asks the professor, who would make the opposition of the Church of other times to the scientific spirit to be only a part of the general opposition of prejudice and conservatism to what is new.

This will do very well for a telling rejoinder from a man who is eminent both in the Church and in science, but it does not really touch the essential point. It is undoubtedly true that men of science have been thick-headed and narrow-minded, and have withstood the truth as vehemently as any theologian of them all; but they have always admitted that there was at least a question to discuss, that more was yet to be learned, and that what appeared settled one year might be all overturned another. The representatives of the Church, on the other hand, had nothing to do with such give-and-take of argument. For them the case was closed antecedently and for ever. They had in their keeping, they believed and maintained, a body of authoritative teaching covering all things in this world and the next, and new light was out of the question. Hence, in their view, science was not only mistaken, but presumptuous, and to refute its assertions by simple reference to the dogmas of the Church was only a preliminary to an attempt to crush it out utterly. This is the great difference: erring scientists have hindered scientific progress by alleging lack of proof for the asserted advance; theologians have hindered it by declaring it inconsistent with an infallible authority. In one case there has been the clash of even-handed debate, out of which comes clearer knowledge; in the other, the intolerant cries of men who supposed themselves speaking in the name of supreme wisdom.

All this straw is well threshed, however, and it is not in our mind to stir it up afresh; we simply desired to refer to it as a point of departure for remarking on the sweeping change that time has wrought in the attitude of the Church towards scientific inquiry. It is no wonder that the ancient antagonism seems incredible and is denied at present, in view of the fact that to-day the results of scientific investigation are followed with keener interest by no body of men, not themselves scientists, than by the more intelligent and alert among the clergy. Indeed, the whole tendency now is, so far from decrying science, to hasten to accept its more advanced teachings, and to find in them new and convincing arguments for the truth of Christianity. Modern apologetics is filled with scientific terms and ideas pressed into service for the defence of the faith.

This changed attitude of the Church has some grotesque aspects. The old serene intolerance has in some cases given way to abject fear. We know one aged doctor of divinity who lives in daily dread that the doctrine of spontaneous generation may be proved true. He is almost afraid to read his morning paper lest he find that some man of science has succeeded in getting life from dead matter in such a way as to defy Tyndall's tests. The old divine is undoubtedly wrong in thinking that to establish spontaneous generation would be to destroy Christianity; theology has received many wounds as deadly as that would be, only to readjust itself to the new conditions and go on as before. But his alarm unquestionably reflects the real feeling of a great many of his class, who have had to get on leviathan's back, but are much disturbed as to where he may finally land them.

One curious product of the new relations between the Church and science is the lecturing charlatan who knows little theology and less science, but goes about pretending to harmonize the two in great swelling words of vanity. This type reached its consummate flower about ten years ago in the person of Joseph Cook, who has since been steadily sinking into the depths to join his own "Bathybius," much to the relief of all who love quiet. Of a far different class is Prof. Drummond, who writes his famous book, not to show that Christianity does not oppose science, not to prove that science is not inconsistent with Christianity, but to maintain that Christianity and science are identical. The chorus of delight with which this supposed demonstration was received by a large part of the Christian world sufficiently indicates the new place that science has made for itself in Christian minds. The strange tricks which geology has played with the interpretation of the first chapter of Genesis are destined to be duplicated or outdone in many departments of Christian doctrine.

Much more important than all this is the fact that there is a considerable body of Christian teachers who have made that best use of the scientific spirit of their time which consists in becoming cautious in stating their own views, and open-minded in receiving new light. The leading Professor in an orthodox theological seminary, who was an eager student even in his old age, used to say to his classes: "We really have no theology to-day, young gentlemen; we have something that will do for women and children, but have nothing for men. We cannot have it for years yet. We have to wait till we get a psychology, which we have not now. What you must do is to preach morality and religion, and let theology alone until you get something that a man can preach with self-respect." Such men must always have a better claim on the future than one like Cardinal Newman, who took fright at the spirit of inquiry, and sought refuge in the fancied security of an unchanged past.

MY EXPERIENCE WITH THE RUSSIAN CENSOR

In spite of the advantage which I enjoyed in a preliminary knowledge of the Russian language and literature, I was imbued with various false ideas, the origin of which it is not necessary to trace on this occasion. I freed myself from some of them; among others, from my theory as to the working of the censorship in the case of foreign literature. My theory was the one commonly held by Americans, and, as I found to my surprise, by not a few Russians, viz., that books and periodicals which have been wholly or in part condemned by the Censor are to be procured only in a mutilated condition, or by surreptitious means, or not at all. That this is not the case I acquired ample proof through my personal experience.

The first thing that an American does on his arrival in St. Petersburg is to scan the foreign newspapers in the hotels eagerly for traces of the Censor's blot—*le masque noir*, "caviare"—his idea being that at least one-half of the page will be thus veiled from sight. But specimens are not always or even very often to be procured with ease. In fact, the demand exceeds the supply sometimes, if I may judge from my own observations, and from the pressing applications for these curiosities which I received from disappointed seekers. The finest of these black diamonds may generally be found in the inventive news columns of the London dailies and in the flippant paragraphs of *Punch*.

Like the rest of the world, I was on the lookout for the Censor's work from the day of my arrival, but it was a long time before my search was rewarded by anything except a caricature of the Censor himself in *Kladderadatsch*. That it was left unmasked was my first proof that that gentleman, individually and collectively, was not deficient in a sense of humor. The sketch represented a dishevelled scribe seated three-quarters submerged in a bottle of ink, from the half-open cover of which his quill pen projected like a signal of distress. This was accompanied by an inscription to the effect that as the Russian Censor had blacked so many other people, he might now sit in the black for a while himself. Perhaps the Censor thought that remarks of that sort came with peculiar grace from martinet-ruled Berlin. About this time I received a copy of the *Century* containing—or rather, not containing—the first article in the prohibited series by Mr. Kennan. I made no remonstrance, but mentioned the fact, as an item of interest, to the sender, who forthwith despatched the article in an envelope. The envelope being small, the plump package had the appearance of containing a couple of pairs of gloves or other dutiable merchandise. Probably that was the reason why the authorities cut open one end. Finding that it was merely innocent printed matter, they gave it to me on the very day of its arrival in Petersburg, and thirteen days from the date of posting in New York. I know that it was my duty to get excited over this incident, as did a foreign (that is, a non-Russian) acquaintance of mine, when he received an envelope of similar plump aspect containing a bulky Christmas card, which was delivered decorated with five very frank and huge official seals, after having been opened for contraband goods. I did not feel aggrieved, however, and, being deficient in that Mother Eve quality which attributes vast importance to whatever is forbidden, I suggested that nothing more which was obnoxious to the Russian Government should be sent to me.

But when a foreigner offered the magazine to me, regularly, unmutilated, I did not refuse it. When a Russian volunteered to furnish me with it later on, I read it. When I saw summaries of the prohibited articles in the Russian press, I looked them over to see whether they were well done. When I saw another copy of the *Century*, with other American magazines, at the house of a second Russian, I did not shut my eyes to the fact, neither did I close my ears when I was told that divers instructors of

youth in Petersburg, Moscow, and elsewhere were in regular receipt of it, on the principle which is said to govern clergymen away from home, viz., that in order to preach effectively against evil one must make personal acquaintance with it. I was also told at the English Bookstore that they had seven or eight copies of the magazine, which had been subscribed for through them, lying at the Censor's office awaiting proper action on the part of the subscribers. What that action was I did not ask at the time, in my embarrassment of riches. It will be perceived that when we add the copies received by officials, and those given to the members of the Diplomatic Corps who desired it, there was no real dearth of the *Century* at any time.

About this time, also, I had occasion to hunt up a package of miscellaneous newspapers which had lingered as such parcels are apt to linger in all post-offices. In pursuance of my preconceived notions, I jumped to the conclusion that the Censor had them, regardless of the contingency that they might have been lost out of Russia. I called to ask for the papers. The official whom I found explained, with native Russian courtesy, that I had come to the wrong place, that office being devoted to foreign matter in book-form; but that, in all probability, the papers had become separated from their wrapper in the newspaper department (which was heedless) when they had been opened for examination, and hence it had been impossible to deliver them. Still, they might have been detained for some good reason, and he would endeavor to find some record of them.

While he was gone, my eyes fell upon his account book, which lay open before me. It constituted a sort of literary book-keeping. The entries showed what books had been received, what had been forbidden, what was to be erased, whose property had been manipulated, and, most interesting of all, which forbidden books had been issued by permission, and to whom. Among these I read the titles of works by Stepniak, and of various works on Nihilism, all of which must certainly have come within the category of utterly proscribed literature, and not of that which is promptly forwarded to its address after a more or less liberal sprinkling of "caviare." As I am not in the habit of reading private records on the sly, even when thus tempted, I informed the official, on his return, of my action, and asked a question or two.

"Do you really let people have these forbidden books?" "Certainly," was his half-surprised, half-indignant reply. "And what can one have?" "Anything," said he, "only we must, of course, have some knowledge of the person. What should you like?"

I could only express my regret that I felt no craving for any prohibited literature at that moment, but I told him that I would endeavor to cultivate a taste in that direction to oblige him; and I suggested that, as his knowledge of me was confined to the last ten minutes, I did not quite understand how he could pass judgment as to what mental and moral food was suited to my constitution, and as to the use I might make of it. He laughed amiably, and said: "*Nitchevó*—that's all right; you may have whatever you please." I never had occasion to avail myself of the offer, but I know that Russians who are well posted do so, although I also know that many Russians are not aware of their privileges in this direction. It is customary to require from Russians who receive literature of this sort a promise that they will let no other person see it—an engagement which is as religiously observed as might be expected, as the authorities are doubtless aware.

I did not pursue my search for the missing papers. I had allowed so much time to elapse that I perceived the uselessness of further action; they were evidently lost, and it mattered little as to the manner. Shortly afterwards I received the first of my only two specimens of Censorial caviare. It was on a political cartoon in a New York comic paper. I sent it back to America for identification of the picture, and it was lost between New York and Boston; which reconciled me to the possible carelessness of the Russian Post-office in the case of the newspapers just cited.

My next experience was with Count Lyeff N. Tolstoy's work entitled 'Life.' This was not allowed to be printed in book form, although nearly the whole of it subsequently appeared in instalments, as "extracts," in a weekly journal. I received the manuscript as a registered mail packet. The author was anxious that my translation should be submitted in the proof-sheets to a philosophical friend of his in Petersburg, who read English, in order that the latter might see if I had caught the sense of the somewhat abstract and complicated propositions. It became a problem how those proof-sheets were to reach me safely and promptly. The problem was solved by having them directed outright to the Censor's office, whence they were delivered to me; and, as there proved to be nothing to alter, they speedily returned to America as a registered parcel. My own opinion now is, that they would not have reached me a whit less safely or promptly had they been addressed straight to me. The bound volumes of my translation were so addressed later on, and I do not think that they were even opened at the office, the law to the contrary notwithstanding.

All this time I had been receiving a New York weekly paper with very little delay and no mutilation. But at this juncture an amiable friend subscribed in my name for the *Century*, and I determined to make a personal trial of the workings of the Censorship in as strong a case as I could have found had I deliberately desired to invent a test case. I may as well remark here that "the Censor" is not the hard-worked omnivorous reader of mountains of print and manuscript which the words represent to the mind of the ordinary foreigner. The work of auditing literature, so to speak, is subdivided among such a host of men that office hours are brief, much of the foreign reading at least is done at home, and the lucky members of the committee keep themselves agreeably posted upon matters in general, while enjoying the fruits of office.

The Censor's waiting-room was well patronized on my arrival. An official who was holding a consultation with one of the visitors inquired my business. I stated it briefly, and shortly afterwards he retired into an adjoining room, which formed the beginning of a vista of apartments and officials. While I waited, a couple of men were attended to so near me that I heard their business. It consisted in obtaining official permission to print the bills and programmes of a musical and variety entertainment. To this end they had brought not only the list of performers and proposed selections, but also the pictures for advertisement, and the music which was to be given. As the rare traveller who can read Russian is already aware, the programme of every public performance bears the printed authorization of the Censor, as a matter of course, quite as much as does a book. It is an easy way of controlling the character of assemblages, the value of which can hardly be disputed even by those prejudiced persons who insist upon seeing in this Russian proceeding something more arbitrary than the ordinary city license which is required for performances elsewhere. In Russia, as elsewhere, an ounce of prevention is worth fully a pound of cure. This, by the way, is the only form in which a foreigner is likely to come in contact with the domestic censure in Russia unless he should wish to insert an advertisement in a newspaper, or issue printed invitations to a gathering at his house, or send new, telegrams. In these cases he may be obliged to submit to delay in the appearance of his advertisement, or requested to go to the elegance and expense of engraved invitations, or to detain his telegram for a day or two.

Just as these gentlemen had paid their fee, and resigned their documents to the official who had charge of their case, another official issued from the inner room, approached me, requested me to sign my name in a huge ledger, and, that being done, thrust into my hands a bulky manuscript, and departed. The manuscript had a taking title, but I did not pause to examine it. Penetrating the inner sanctum, I brought out the official and endeavored to return the packet. He refused to take it—it was legally mine. This contest lasted for several minutes until I saw a literary-looking man enter from the ante-room and look rather wildly at us. Evidently this was the owner, and, elevating the manuscript, I inquired if it was his. He hastened to my assistance and proved his rights. But, as erasures do not look well in account books, and as my name already occupied the space allotted to that particular parcel, he was not requested to sign for it, and I believe that I am still legally qualified to read, perform, or publish—whatever it was—that talented production.

A dapper little gentleman, with a dry, authoritative air, then emerged and assumed charge of me. I explained my desire to receive, uncensured, a journal which was prohibited.

"Certainly," said he, without inquiring how I knew the facts. "Just write down your application and sign it."

"I don't know the form," I answered.

He seemed surprised at my ignorance of such an every-day detail, but fetched paper and dictated a petition, which I wrote down and signed. When we reached the point where the name of the publication was to be inserted, he paused to ask: "How many should you like?"

"How many copies of the *Century*? Only one," said I.

"No, no; how many periodical publications should you like?"

"How many can I have on this petition?" I retorted in Yankee fashion.

"As many as you please. Do you want four—six—eight? Write in the names legibly."

I gasped, but told him that I was not grasping; I preferred to devote my time to Russian publications while in Russia, and that I would only add the name of the weekly which I was already receiving, merely with the object of expediting its delivery a little. The document was then furnished with the regulation eighty-kopek stamp (worth at that time about thirty-seven cents), and the business was concluded. As I was in summer quarters out of town, and it was not convenient for me to call in person and inquire whether permission had been granted, another stamp was added to insure the answer being sent to me. The license arrived in a few days, and the magazine began to come promptly, unopened. I was not even asked not to show it to other people. I may state here that, while I never circulated any of the numerous prohibited books and manu-

scripts which came into my possession during my stay in Russia, I never concealed them. I showed the *Century* occasionally to personal friends of the class who could have had it themselves had they taken any permanent interest in the matter; but it is certain that they kept their own counsel and mine in all respects.

Everything proceeded satisfactorily until I went to Moscow to stay for a time. It did not occur to me to inform the Censor of my move, and the result was that the first number of the magazine which I received there was as fine a "specimen" as heart could desire. The line on the title-page which referred to the obnoxious article had been scratched out; the body of the article had been cut out; the small concluding portion at the top of a page had been artistically "caviared." Of course, the article ending upon the back of the first page extracted had been spoiled. On this occasion I was angry, not at the mutilation as such, but at the breach of faith. I sat down, while my wrath was still hot, and indited a letter to the Head Censor in Petersburg. I do not recollect the exact terms of that letter, but I know I told him that he had no right to cut the book after granting me leave to receive it intact, without first sending me word that he had changed his mind, and giving valid reasons therefor; that the course he had adopted was injudicious in the extreme, since it was calculated to arouse curiosity instead of allaying it, and that it would be much better policy to ignore the matter. I concluded by requesting him to restore the missing article, if he had preserved it, and if he had not, to send at once to London (that being nearer than New York) and order me a fresh copy of the magazine at his expense.

A month elapsed, no answer came; but at the end of the month another mutilated *Century* arrived. This time I waited two or three days in the hope of inventing an epistle which should be more forcible—if such a thing were possible—than my last, and yet calm. The letter was half written when an official envelope made its appearance from Petersburg, containing cut pages and an apologetic explanation to the effect that the Moscow Censor, through an oversight, had not been duly instructed in his duty towards me. A single glance showed me that the enclosed sheets belonged to the number just received, not to the preceding number. I drove immediately to the Moscow office and demanded the Censor. "You can tell me what you want with him," said the ante-room Cerberus. "Send me the Censor," said I. After further repetition, he retired and sent in a man who requested me to state my business. "You are not the Censor," I said, after a glance at him. "Send him out or I will go to him." Then they decided that I was a connoisseur in censors, and the proper official made his appearance, accompanied by an interpreter, on the strength of the foreign name upon my card. Convinced that the latter would not understand English well, like many Russians who can talk the language fluently enough, I declined his services, produced my documents from the Petersburg Censor, and demanded restitution of the other confiscated article. I obtained it, being allowed my pick from a neatly labelled package of contraband goods. That scratched, cut, caviared magazine is now in my possession, with the restored sheets and the Censor's apology appended. It is my proof to unbelievers that the Russian Censor is not so black as he is painted.

As we shook hands with this Moscow official, after a friendly chat, I asked him if he would be a little obtuse arithmetically as to the old and new style of reckoning, and let me have my January *Century* if it arrived before my departure for Petersburg, as my license expired January 1. He smilingly agreed to do so. I also called on the Moscow Book Censor, to find some books. The courtesy and readiness to oblige me on the part of the officials had been so great, that I felt aggrieved upon this occasion when this Censor requested me to return on the regular business day, and declined to overhaul his whole department for me on the spot. I did return on the proper day, and watched operations while due search was being made for my missing property. It reached me a few days later, unopened, the delay having occurred at my banker's, not in the post-office or Censor's department.

On my return to Petersburg, my first visit was to the Censor's office, where I copied my original petition, signed it, and dismissed the matter from my mind until my February *Century* reached me with one article missing and two articles spoiled. I paid another visit to the office, and was informed that my petition for a renewal of permission had not been granted.

"Why didn't you send me word earlier?" I asked.

"We were not bound to do so without the extra stamp," replied my dapper official.

"But why has my application been refused?"

"Too many people are seeing that journal; some one must be refused."

"Nonsense," said I. "And if it is really so, *I* am not the proper person to be rejected. It will hurt some of these Russian subscribers more than it will me, because it is only a question of *when* I shall read it, not of whether I shall read it at all. I wonder that so many demoralizing things do not affect the officials. However, that is not the point: pray keep for your own use anything which you regard as deleterious to me. I am obliged to you for your consideration. But you have no right to spoil three or four articles; and by a proper use of scissors and caviare that can easily be avoided. In any case, it will be much better to give me the book unmutilated."

The official and the occupants of the reception-room seemed to find my view very humorous; but he declared that he had no power in the matter.

"Very well," said I, taking a seat. "I will see the Censor."

"I am the Censor," he replied.

"Oh, no. I happen to be aware that the Head Censor is expected in a few minutes, and I will wait."

My (apparently) intimate knowledge of the ways of censors again won the day. The chief actually was expected, and I was granted the first audience. I explained matters and repeated my arguments. He sent for the assistant.

"Why was not this application granted?" he asked impressively.

"We don't know, your Excellency," was the meek reply.

"You may go," said his Excellency. Then he turned graciously to me. "You will receive it."

"Uncut?"

"Yes."

"But will they let me have it?"

"Will — they — let — you — have — it — when — I say — so?" he retorted with tremendous dignity.

Then I knew that I should have no further trouble; and I was right. I received no written permission, but the magazine was never interfered with again. Thus it will be seen that one practically registers periodicals wholesale, at a wonderfully favorable discount.

During the whole of my stay in Russia I received many books unread, apparently even unopened to see whether they belonged on the free list. In one case, at least, volumes which were posted before the official date of publication reached me by the next city delivery after the letter announcing their despatch. Books which were addressed to me at the Legation, to assure delivery when my exact address was unknown or when my movements were uncertain, were, in every case but one, sent to me direct from the post-office. I have no reason to suppose that I was unusually favored in any way. I used no "influence," I mentioned no names.

An incident which procured for me the pleasure of an interview with the Chief Censor for newspapers and so forth, will illustrate some of the erroneous ideas entertained by strangers. I desired to send to some friends in Russia a year's subscription each of a certain American magazine, which sometimes justly receives a sprinkling of caviare, for its folly, but which is not on the black list, and is fairly well known in Petersburg. After some delay an answer came to the effect that the publishers had consulted the United States postal officials, and had been informed that "*no* periodical literature could be sent to Russia, this being strictly prohibited." I took this letter to the Newspaper Censor, who found it amusingly and amazingly stupid. He explained that the only thing which is absolutely prohibited is Russian text printed outside of Russia, which would never be delivered. He did not explain the reason, but I knew that he referred to the socialistic, nihilistic, and other proscribed works which are published in Geneva or Leipzig. Daily foreign newspapers can be received regularly only by persons who are duly authorized. Permission cannot be granted to receive occasional packages of miscellaneous contents, the reason for this regulation being very clear. And *all* books must be examined if new, or treated according to the place assigned them on the lists if they have already had a verdict pronounced upon them. I may add, in this connection, that I had the magazines I wished subscribed for under another name, to avoid the indelicacy of contradicting my fellow-countrymen. They were then forwarded direct to the Russian addresses, where they were duly and regularly received. Whether they were mutilated, I do not know. They certainly need not have been had the recipients taken the trouble to obtain permission as I did, if they were aware of the possibility. It is probable that I could have obtained permission for them had I not been pressed for time.

I once asked a member of the Censorship Committee on foreign books on what principle of selection he proceeded. He said that disrespect to the Emperor and the Greek Church was officially prohibited, that he admitted everything which did not err too grossly in that direction, and, in fact, *everything* except French novels of the modern realistic school. He drew the line at these, as pernicious to both men and women. He asked me if I had read a certain new book which was on the proscribed list. I said that I had, and in the course of the discussion which ensued, I rose to fetch the volume in question from the table behind him to verify a passage. (This occurred during a friendly call.) I recollected, however, that that copy had not entered the country by post, and that, consequently, the name of the owner therein inscribed would not be found on the list of authorized readers any

more than my own. I am sure, however, that nothing would have happened if he had seen it, and he must have understood my movement. My business dealings were wholly with strangers.

It seems to be necessary, although it ought not to be so, to remind American readers that Russia is not the only land where the censorship exists, to a greater or less extent. Even in the United States, which is popularly regarded as the land of unlicensed license in a literary sense—even in the Boston Public Library, which is admitted to be a model of good sense and wide liberality—all books are not bought or issued indiscriminately to all readers irrespective of age and so forth. The necessity for making special application may, in some cases, whet curiosity, but it also, undoubtedly, acts as a check upon unhealthy tastes, even when the book may be publicly purchased. I have heard Russians who did not wholly agree with their own censorship assert, nevertheless, that a strict censure was better than the total absence of it, apparently, in America, the utterances of whose press are regarded by foreigners in general as decidedly startling. ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

ARTS AND CRAFTS EXHIBITION.

LONDON, October 4, 1890.

THERE is no group of artists in England who understand so well the uses of advertisements as the men who form the Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society, which has been in existence now but three short years. To say that it has for President Mr. Walter Crane, for chief supporters Mr. William Morris, Mr. Burne-Jones, Mr. Cobden-Sanderson, Mr. Henry Holiday, and the members of the Century Guild and the East End Guild and School of Handicraft, is to explain at once that it is under the management of those artists and craftsmen who, for eccentricity either of artistic work or social creed, talk more about themselves and get themselves more talked about by others than any of their fellow-workers in this country. If a man will but declare often enough and loud enough, "I alone am great, I alone know the Truth!" he is certain to find enthusiastic followers who put all their faith and trust in him. The members of this society have so repeatedly and with such conviction proclaimed that they are the saving remnant in the modern art world, that many people not only look to them for all that is best in the arts of design to-day, but believe that with them rests all hope for the future of these arts in England. It is for this reason, now when the degeneracy of decorative work is publicly lamented and the failure of South Kensington to mend matters generally confessed, that special interest is attached to the Arts and Crafts Exhibitions.

The first had the charm of novelty to counterbalance its somewhat obvious defects; and if it seemed too much the show of a mere clique to be truly representative, the difficulty of making the Society's aims and objects widely known at the very outset was an excellent and reasonable excuse. Last year the tendency to confine the exhibition to one special and small school was still more marked; and so trivial and so numerous were the exhibits sent by one or two of the exhibitors that they were somewhat severely taken to task for monopolizing all available wall space, to the exclusion of other and better work, with the out-scourings from their own studios. Indeed, from this arose one very pretty fight in an afternoon daily, in which Mr. Walter Crane unwittingly admitted the narrow principles of his Society by complaining that a rank individualist had been sent as art critic to their exhibition. Apparently the test of contributions submitted to the Hanging Committee was the social doctrine held by artist or craftsman. But the adverse criticisms of last year have not been without their good effect, and in the Preface to the Catalogue of this year's show, just opened in the New Gallery on Regent Street, Mr. Crane is careful to explain that—

"The Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society, while at first, of necessity, depending on the work of a comparatively limited circle, have no wish to be narrower than the recognition of certain fundamental principles in design will allow, and, indeed, desire but to receive and show the *best* after its kind in contemporary design and handicraft. Judgment is not always infallible, and the best is not always forthcoming, and in a mixed exhibition it is difficult to maintain an unvarying standard.'

This desire for greater breadth shows itself in the fact that certain firms who have hitherto held aloof are now exhibiting; in the increased space given to furniture (much of which, however, might profitably have been excluded), and to embroidery, and in the moderation of the old exhibitors, who, though several still send works with a lavishness which they would be the first to condemn if indulged in by a Royal Academician at Burlington House, have not been quite so generous with their own productions as hitherto, and have contented themselves with sending serious work, and not any mere trivial and valueless experiment that might be knocking about the studio.

But while there is less triviality, and at least an attempt at less exclusiveness than there was last year, while there are fewer pieces of furniture and cartoons and drawings in which good workmanship has been aggressively sacrificed to morality, the exhibition as a whole is uninteresting and colorless. There is nothing that is very striking either in itself or for the promise it gives of a healthier and more vigorous state of things in the future, or for even a suggestion of originality. There is some good—some very good—work, of course. It is true that the exhibits which will attract most attention and furnish most paragraphs in the press depend for their interest on anything rather than their artistic quality. There is, for example, the extraordinarily ugly Irish national banner, designed by Walter Crane, executed by Una Taylor, and exhibited by Charles Stewart Parnell, with a Celtic cross of flames enclosing the national harp, and set about with heraldic devices on a vivid green ground, which will probably be more discussed than anything in the show; but while it may be full of meaning from the heraldic standpoint, it is quite wanting in beauty of color or design. The names of Holman Hunt, who, as far as I know, has never before appeared as a designer, and Ford Madox Brown, whose work can so seldom be seen in London, and of one or two other men of conspicuous personality, may lend a certain interest to examples of design and handicraft which would otherwise be passed by with indifference. There is, however, much of genuine and intrinsic merit.

Mr. William Morris, whatever doubt one may have of his sanity as a social prophet (and for some incomprehensible reason he has made it impossible to consider Morris the artist apart from Morris the Socialist), whatever objection one may make to the narrowness of his theory of the limitations of design, is unquestionably a master of his own special and admirable methods; and to the show he contributes some of the best examples from his Oxford Street shop, some of the most successful productions from his factory at Merton. One of the finest exhibits in the entire collection is a piece of handwoven Arras tapestry which, though designed by Mr. J. H. Dearle, was executed under the superintendence of Mr. Morris, and comes from Morris & Co.'s workshops. The color scheme is fine. The subject is "The Forest," and the bright yet not crude greens of the trees in the foreground are in harmonious relief against the rich deep blues of the duly conventionalized distant thicket; it is really a very beautiful piece of color, a good design skilfully and adequately rendered in the medium employed. Its weak point is the drawing in the deer browsing under the trees—indeed, draughtsmanship is not the virtue of the designers who exhibit in the New Gallery—while the decorative border of flowers in the immediate foreground might be less spotty and restless; but, altogether, it is a very successful specimen of the Morris tapestries. There are also cabinets from the same firm, excellent in design and—what is of no small importance — workmanship; drawers open easily and keys turn readily in the locks, and these are qualities to be appreciated in furniture exhibited by a society which finds ample room for the much-vaunted "love-work" (indifferently made chairs and cabinets by benevolently minded men) from Toynbee-Hall apostles of art in East London.

It is almost too late in the day to dwell in detail on the Morris embroideries. Many examples are to be seen here, and, vigorous as they are and free from amateurish prettiness, none call for special notice because of originality or unusual beauty. It is worth noting, however, that many of the embroideries, not merely of this but of other firms and individual exhibitors, show how much stronger the school of design chiefly represented is in color than in drawing. Nor do the faded tones and sickly shades associated with its leaders' names predominate. There is good strong color, well arranged and harmonized, in much of the work. One of the most striking examples is a curtain by Miss May Morris, with stiff mediæval trees (that look as if they had originally overshadowed Adam and Eve on an old missal or on an old brass placque or carven stall), worked on an almost brilliant blue background; and very effective it is.

Decorations for a plaster ceiling, designed and executed by Mr. Stephen Webb, one of the chief designers in the firm of Collinson & Lock, serve as a reminder—much needed in the Gallery—that good models of design do not cease abruptly with the fourteenth century. His charming arrangement of little naked boys, for border and centre-piece, with its delicate scroll work and flying ribbon finials, has much of the feeling of the best domestic decoration done in early Georgian days. It is a relief to find that there are English designers still left who can free themselves from archaic affectation. Conspicuous among the good things are small bronze statuettes of Mr. Onslow Ford's "Peace," exhibited at last spring's Academy, and Mr. Hamo Thornycroft's "General Gordon" (this, however, has already been seen elsewhere). And much of the glass and the brass work, notably the well-known lamps of the Bensons, as well as the fine De Morgan pottery, is of unquestioned excellence, though in design varying but little from specimens on view in the shop windows of the exhibiting firms. Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's book-bindings, while expressing none of that soulfulness which he claims for them, are very creditable examples of the book-binder's craft; and the

large exhibit made by the Chiswick Press is still more interesting to the book-lover. It is also a pleasure to know that Mr. Morris is beginning to find followers in the art of book-illumination; Mr. G. E. Reuter, whose name is new to me at least, has designed and illuminated several sheets of the 'Roots of the Mountains' in a manner which shows, if no great originality, very careful study of his master.

Of the contributions of Mr. Burne-Jones and Mr. Walter Crane there is really little to be said. Nine cartoons of angels designed by the former for a window at Jesus College, Cambridge, show nine repetitions of the familiar Burne-Jones's sexless type, this time in angelic attire. Mr. Crane has often been seen to better advantage; he sends a design for wall-paper which is excellent, if not quite up to his peacock pattern of last year, but he seems of late to have confined himself chiefly to *gesso* work, with results which suggest that either he has not yet mastered his medium, or that, if he has, it is not worth the mastering.

When all is said, the truth still remains that the exhibition fails to awaken any very lively interest or enthusiasm. Why this should be, the Society, as if to save the visitor the trouble, have helped to explain, though I fancy quite unconsciously. In their catalogue it is their custom to publish several preliminary papers on the different arts represented, written by men always of practical experience, even if sometimes of no great fame. The leading members, who this year are trying to keep more in the background than usual, have left the writing of these papers to others of less prominence, and the latter have spoken out upon their respective subjects all too honestly. One after another, with occasional exceptions, they deplore the degeneracy of modern decorative art; one after another they have sought to point out the reasons for this degeneracy, and it is significant, if unexpected, to find how well they agree that one of the chief causes is, to quote from the opening paper, "the fashion for archæological mimicry." Mr. Reginald T. Blomfield ascribes the beginning of the evil in England to the ridiculous mediævalism of Horace Walpole; declares that the men of days when good work was done "made no laborious search for quaintness, no disordered attempt to combine the peculiarities of a dozen different ages"; and warns his readers that the English tradition, without re pect to which there will never be good work in England, will not spring up again "till the artists try to make the unity of the arts a real thing, and the craftsman grows callous to fashion and archæology." "Shall we," asks Mr. John D. Sedding, writing of needlework, "shall we continue to hunt old trails, and die, not leaving the world richer than we found it? Or shall we, for art and honor's sake, boldly adventure something—drop this wearisome translation of old styles and translate Nature instead?" And Mr. Selwyn Image on the same subject is no less explicit:

"The study of old work is of the highest importance, is essential; the patient and humble study of it. But for what end? To learn principles and methods; to secure a sound foundation for one's self; not to slavishly imitate results and live on, bound hand and foot, in the swaddling clothes of precedent. Learn your business in the schools, but go out to Nature for your inspiration. See Nature through your own eyes, and be a persistent and curious observer of her infinite wonders."

It is fortunately explained by a preliminary note that, for the opinions expressed in all these papers, the writers thereof are exclusively responsible; otherwise the show would seem to demonstrate how great a gulf extends between the theory and practice of its supporters. For it is this very striving after quaint or archæological effects, this very spirit of imitation, which prevails here as it did in the old Grosvenor Gallery. And now that novelty no longer lends charm to "archæological mimicry," now that the one man of genius who in the very beginning made it possible is dead, one wearies of the repeated and childish efforts to conceal weakness in drawing under Gothic or primitive pretensions. The crude shortcomings of men who would have been the first to relinquish their imperfect methods had they lived in a later age, are copied as if these alone gave value to the old work. The thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and not nature, have been studied. This is evident in every department, in every branch of design—in the embroideries, with their mediæval foliage and figures and arabesques; in the church decorations, with their absurd and pompous "quaintness"; in the book illustrations, with their style founded upon that of the earliest wood-blocks; in the cartoons, with their pre-Raphaelite drawing and composition. As I have already said, there are exceptions; a healthier spirit is manifested in the glass and pottery, and in the designs of Mr. Webb and one or two others. But these, it is to be regretted, are the exceptions to the general Gothic rule which gives character to the exhibition. Even when the mediævalism is less apparent, there is a seeking after eccentricity, as in several of the exhibits of the Century Guild, which is scarcely more satisfactory. With all the will in the world, eccentricity and mediævalism cannot make up for want of originality, and it is because of the absence of individuality in conception or treatment—within, of course, the due conventional limits—that the exhibition is so curiously lacking in interest as a whole.

A most praiseworthy aim of the Society is to increase the feeling for the unity of the arts, to bring artists and craftsmen, who have drifted only too far asunder, into closer sympathy. Mr. Crane, in his already quoted preface, hints that there is a possibility of a building being secured and schools opened in order that the Society's aims may be the better realized, their work better carried on and completed. But if the Society's schools borrow their standard from the Society's exhibitions, not even the union of artists and craftsmen will be sufficient to establish the arts of design in England on a sound and healthy basis.

I must not omit to mention a very practical innovation, introduced this year. There is to be a series of free evenings for "that part of the public who have no leisure in the daytime," namely, craftsmen, students, and workers in the arts. But for this sensible arrangement, many to whom the exhibition appeals most directly would never be able to visit it.

Correspondence.

THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL AND THE HIGHER CRITICISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read with much interest in your paper of September 25 a letter with the above title signed with the initials "A. F. H." Your correspondent very truly says that criticism and the Sunday-school are incompatible. So are criticism and all school-teaching whatever, as it must be founded on authority or it would come to confusion. The future will find itself in the same condition as the present; it will have to assert and maintain the intellectual authority of schoolmasters, and to impose intellectual submission on their pupils, if teaching is to go on at all. The misfortune of the present age is, that while new beliefs are substituting themselves for old ones in the minds of thinking men, it is not yet possible to teach the new beliefs authoritatively, because they are not yet settled and accepted by the community.

The falseness of our present position may be compared to that of the European Governments just before the revolution in naval armaments. They were aware that the old system could not last long, yet they went on building in the old way because the new principles were not yet so clearly understood as to be brought at once into practice. So they wasted money and they lost time; yet it is not easy to see how they could prudently have done otherwise. In matters of opinion it may happen that a minority, with the force of the past behind it, overrules with that momentum the strength of a majority. In the conflict between science and theology the whole momentum of the past is on the side of theology, and it is not yet by any means exhausted. Besides this, theology has had time to associate itself with social morality and with political stability, while science is quite by itself, and has not had time to ally itself with other powers. Hence, although the morality of the Old Testament is certainly not our morality, it is somehow indirectly associated with it, which Darwinism is not.

It seems to me, however, that the time has now come when all the accepted results of science—those on which all scientific men are agreed—should be taught authoritatively in schools, and substituted for earlier systems that we now know to have been only temporary and provisional. This is already done to a considerable extent, by clear and intelligible scientific manuals, in the schools under the direct control of the French Government.

Your correspondent "A. F. H." observes that "society, public sentiment, does not require that we should practise honesty in the matter of our beliefs. It encourages just the opposite course." Yes, we live in an age when the prizes of life are freely given as rewards for hypocrisy, and steadily refused to outspoken honesty. By the prizes of life I mean honorable and lucrative situations, social rank, and the sort of marriage by which a man rises in the world. The influence of the clergy and of women is now in great part directed to procure what they know to be only an external submission, involving a considerable number of lies in the course of the year. A mother is perfectly aware that her son does not believe in miracles, and she implores him to attend mass "to please his poor mother." Sisters and wives exercise the same influence in favor of shamming when they clearly know it to be shamming. In the case of the clergy, the explanation seems to be the desire for an apparent external success; but in the case of women it is probably their instinctive conservatism, their desire to uphold all established usages. Some of your readers will remember what Sir Henry Maine said on this subject:

"Are, then, women characterized by a passion for change? Surely, there is no fact witnessed to by a greater amount of experience than that, in all communities, they are the strictest conservators of usage and the sternest censors of departure from accepted rules of morals, manners, and fashions."

What we desire for the future, and what *must* ultimately come with time, is the establishment of some moral authority in complete

harmony with modern knowledge. Any established moral authority is sure to have the support of women, and then the present conflict will be at an end. P. G. HAMERTON.

AUTUN, October 8, 1890.

UNSECTARIAN SECTARIANISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a note of your issue of the 2d instant, mentioning the fact that a Unitarian, a Universalist, and another not a church-member are on important committees representing the trustees of the new Baptist University in Chicago, you remark: "Such things would have seemed nothing short of incredible less than fifty years ago." Permit me to call the attention of your readers to a similar breadth and liberality in a Baptist college founded one hundred and twenty-six years ago. I quote from the charter of Brown University, which was adopted in 1764, the following sentences (the italics are mine):

"It is hereby enacted, ordained, and declared, that it is now, and at all times hereafter shall continue to be, the unalterable constitution of this College or University that the Corporation thereof shall consist of two branches, to wit: That of the Trustees, and that of the Fellowship, with distinct, separate, and respective powers. And that the number of the Trustees shall and may be thirty-six, of which twenty-two shall forever be elected of the denomination called Baptists, or Anti-pædobaptists; five shall for ever be elected of the denomination called Friends or Quakers; four shall forever be elected of the denomination called Congregationalists; and five shall forever be elected of the denomination called Episcopalians. And that the succession in this branch shall be forever chosen and filled up from the respective denominations in this proportion, and according to these numbers, which are hereby fixed and shall remain to perpetuity immutably the same. . . . And that the number of the Fellows, inclusive of the President (who shall always be a Fellow), shall and may be twelve, of which eight shall be forever elected of the denomination called Baptist or Anti-pædobaptist, *and the rest indifferently of any or of all denominations.*

"And, furthermore, it is hereby enacted and declared, that into this liberal and catholic institution shall never be admitted any religious tests; but, on the contrary, all the members hereof shall forever enjoy full, free, absolute, and uninterrupted liberty of conscience; and that the places of Professors, Tutors, and all other officers, the President alone excepted [he must be a Baptist], shall be free and open for all denominations of Protestants."

Honor to whom honor is due.

Respectfully, T. E. BUSFIELD.

BANGOR, ME., October 10, 1890.

SAUL AMONG THE PROPHETS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On what theory of proof do you so frequently, in order to convince your readers of the soundness of a position, quote some man whom you have all along claimed to be utterly unworthy of belief? For instance, I have been taught by you that Blaine is not only a great liar, but careless as regards matters of fact and illogical in his conclusions; and yet, as evidence to lay before, not his admirers, but your readers, you, with damnable iteration, repeat his statement that "in the McKinley Bill there was not a section or a line that would open the market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork." JOHN L. STARR.

CHICAGO, October 10, 1890.

[We have no theory of proof in the matter. Mr. Blaine uttered the merest economic truism, and we commended it to the more besotted advocates of protection as coming from one of their own partisans, lately lauded to the skies by them as the greatest American statesman of the age.—ED. NATION.]

QUAY'S MICHIGAN IMITATOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your mention of the charges against James M. Turner, Republican candidate for Governor of Michigan, leads me to believe that his nomination has become a subject of interest outside this commonwealth.

It may be stated, in passing, that the charges have been fully sustained by the publication, since your notice was written, of the candidate's own quibbling denial, and of a crushing rejoinder from his original assailant. In addition, the records of the Supreme Court of the State have been published to show that Mr. Turner had been guilty of clipping coupons from Government bonds which he had already sold in apparent good faith to Mr. Vanderbilt, and had resorted to a subterfuge to procure the payment of the coupons to his wife.

Surely no honest citizen, not blinded by partisan zeal, would select such a candidate as his choice for an office of trust and dignity. Yet honorable men, notably the present Governor of the State, with whom the charges were filed three years ago, but who thought it was not his duty to investigate them after Mr. Turner withdrew his name as a candidate for reappointment to the office of Blind-School Commissioner; and ex-Gov. Alger, well known for his Presidential aspirations, who confessed himself "staggered" by the charges and by Mr. Turner's virtual admission of their truth, but kept silent about them, as, he naïvely remarks, "any gentleman would"—these honorable gentlemen, men of influence in their party, not only failed to use their influence to prevent Mr. Turner's nomination for Governor, but have given him their support in his present candidacy, as a matter of party fealty. With such eminent examples of party loyalty before them, it is not likely that the rank and file of the party will hesitate to vote the "straight" ticket, especially as no Republican newspaper in the State has published the charges in full, or referred to them except as the "mud-slinging" of the adversary.

The truth is, that the Republican party—by its appeal to sectional prejudice in the attempt to pass a Force Bill; to greedy patriotism in its extravagant pension laws; to selfish interests in its abuse of patronage; and, above all, by its complete surrender to the rapacity of the protected classes—believes itself to be so thoroughly intrenched in the interests of its thick-and-thin supporters that it can safely defy the moral sentiment of the people—witness this nomination in Michigan and that in Pennsylvania.

By the Republican party I mean, of course, the political machine which shapes its policy and fills its offices. To learn who control this machine, who are its constituent parts, it is only necessary to visit a popular drinking-place, crowded with delegates, on the day of a political convention. It is the rumseller and the bar-room politician who make the nominations of the self-styled "party of moral ideas." In this respect, its opponent, the Democratic party, is no whit better. In the district in which I live, those of us who desire to express by vote our emphatic disapproval of the McKinley Bill and the Lodge Bill are confronted by a Democratic candidate for Congress who, in his two terms of service, has been a blatant champion of the liquor interest, but a weak-kneed disciple of tariff reform, and who in his personal habits is notoriously intemperate. In this instance it is the bar-room politician who is the candidate.

With the nominating machinery of both parties in the hands of their baser elements, there would seem to be room, at least in the State of Michigan, for a third party—a party of tariff reform, of ballot reform (including nomination by petition), and of temperance reform—or at least of hostility to the saloon in politics. Such a party would, I believe, find many supporters even in this "safe" Republican State, and, if it served no other purpose, might help to purify the other two.

Respectfully, WM. W. HUDSON.

DETROIT, MICH., October 11.

TWO COMPLAINTS FROM JAPAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The first complaint is against the United States postal system, which is ordinarily so accurate and careful to attend to the convenience of the public. The writer, having served for one year as a clerk in the distributing department of the Chicago Post-office, understands how intricate the railway postal system is, and how carefully it is planned so as to carry mail to its destination by the quickest possible way. He is, therefore, the more surprised to find that letters for Japan from the States in the vicinity of Chicago, often go first to New York city, and thus lose the steamship for which they were intended. When inquiries have been made at the American end, the excuse of the postal clerks is that they have orders to send *all* "foreign letters" to New York. Such an order may have been issued under the administration of Postmaster-General Vilas, when, during his "falling out" with the Pacific Mail on the question of its subsidy, the mail for Japan, China, etc., was sent via England. But it is very strange if that order has not yet been rescinded, or, if rescinded, that the postal clerks should continue to make such a mistake after their attention had been called directly to it. In any case, what is the sense of having letters for Japan from Wisconsin or Minnesota sent to New York?

The second complaint is against some very intelligent persons, such as editors, teachers, preachers, etc., who seem strangely ignorant of the foreign-postage rates, which can be easily ascertained by inquiry at any post-office, or else are very careless. For instance, on a letter containing only a two-cent stamp the recipient in Japan must pay six cents, or double the amount lacking to make five cents, the regular rate to this country. Or newspapers are sent out, as in the United States, with no stamp, and never reach their destination, because the pound rate, allowed in local postage, does not hold in foreign postage. Or, on photographs, carelessly sealed in an envelope, but paid for at the rates of open packages, letter postage is, of course, due at this end, and amounts to from twenty to thirty cents. Thus, although it is very pleasant, it is often also very costly to receive photographs of friends. In all these matters, slight as they are, the victims, like their patriotic forefathers of the last century, object, not to the amount of the "stamp-tax," but to "the principle of taxation," particularly as it rests upon the ignorance or carelessness of others.

UNCAS.

SEPT. 20, 1890.

A NEW WAY TO PUBLISH BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like to call attention to the questionable methods of "The American Pub-

lishers' Association," doing business at 199 Clarke Street, Chicago.

Some time ago a lady, who lives in a little Maine village and enjoys some reputation as a writer of religious poetry, received a request from this Association for a selection of her poems for publication in a volume to be entitled 'Local and National Poets of America.' Not wishing to be disobliging, this lady took some pains to copy a few of her representative verses and despatched them to Chicago.

Some time afterwards she received the following letter:

DEAR MADAM: On September 3 we shipped to your address two copies of 'Local and National Poets of America,' at the lowest net price of $3.75 per copy (the retail price is $6), together with poems and MSS. We cordially thank you, Mrs. ——, for your subscription order and prompt and courteous coöperation; and we sincerely hope you will still further favor us by receiving the books from the express office as promptly as you conveniently can. We are already receiving complimentary letters from contributors, which we highly prize; and it would please us to receive some expression from your pen as to the merits of 'Poets of America.' Your poetry is considered excellent by the editor, and we would be pleased to know how many lines the whole of your poems make, with a view of publishing them in book-form. Hoping you will be fully pleased with 'Poets of America,' and your representation therein, we remain, sincerely yours,

AMERICAN PUB. ASSOCIATION.

I may add that, in accordance with advice, the lady, whose name was persistently misspelled throughout the correspondence, refused to accept the package of books from the express company. Accordingly she got the following letter, dated Chicago, October 14, and signed as above:

DEAR MADAM: About September 4 we shipped you two copies of 'Poets of America' which now lie in your express office uncalled for. Please let us know why you do not take them. If you cannot spare the full amount of the C. O. D., let us know how much you can, and we will instruct the agent to release the whole package to you on payment of that amount, and you can remit the balance of the bill at your convenience.

The lady wrote back that the reason she did not receive the package when it was brought to her door was, that she "had never ordered or thought of ordering such a shipment." She added: "You must have labored under some mistake or illusion in the matter, for it is difficult to think that a respectable association of publishers would deliberately attempt to force books on any person."

Such imposition as this should be stopped.

Yours, etc., A. N.

BOSTON, October 18, 1890.

BENTHAM'S DEONTOLOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Can any reader of the *Nation* be so kind as to mention, if possible, where a copy of Bentham's 'Deontology' can be found? It was a posthumous work of Bentham's, published by John Bowring, and is not included in the eleven-volume edition of his works by that editor. Only this last can be obtained in any of the New York libraries; and as I am desirous of either purchasing a copy of the 'Deontology,' or obtaining the use of it, I shall deem it a great service to me if some one can indicate where it may be secured.

Very truly, J. H. HYSLOP.

NEW YORK, October 14, 1890.

TEMPERATURE OF THE AIR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for September 25 (p. 250) is a note on the temperature of the air. Its conclusions are not exactly in accordance with my observations. I have often noted the temperature of the air as it flows from higher regions, and invariably found it much lower than that of the air on the higher ground, though I have never had an opportunity to test it in a mountain region, only in hilly regions. In the mouths of ravines I have noted 6° to 12° difference. On one occasion, while camping at the mouth of a ravine on Lake St. Croix, on the Minnesota side, the thermometer on the prairie, some 150 feet above the lake, was 32°, while on the lake shore at the mouth of the ravine it was 20°. It was at sunrise. A light draught sucked down the ravine, while the air over the lake was perfectly calm. On still summer nights the same proportionate difference is observed; the air floating down the ravines on Lake St. Croix and Pepin and other points on the river is very perceptibly colder than the air out in the lake or on the sides of the ravines away from the influence of the down draught.

I noted once a decidedly cooler downflow soon after noon one hot August day. I was examining the geological structure of the deposit in the bluff formation that bounds the Mississippi River bottoms the whole length of the State of Mississippi. I was in a ravine that was entirely dry except during rains; on picking something up from its bottom, I thought I detected a cool air in slight motion. On moistening my finger it was very perceptibly flowing down, exactly as water would do; and on holding a thermometer in the air-stream it fell 3°, from 92° to 89°. There was no wind at the time. This was about half a mile from the bottom, nine miles west of this village. The stream of cool air did not seem to be more than two or three inches deep. In the bottom region just referred to, the temperature is perceptibly warmer than on the hills, so much so that the foliage is three or four days in advance of that on the hills in spring. But this doubtless is owing to the damper air arresting radiation, especially at night, more than does the air over the hill region, as the variation in level, about 200 feet, is not enough to make so much difference in foliage.

It would seem that the reason given in the note referred to for the greater warmth of the air flowing down the mountain, by compression in descent, is hardly the right one, as the compression is too slight and gradual to be perceptible. I would suggest, rather, it arose from the air passing over rocks heated during the day and not yet cooled. I have noted often, long after sunset, a mass of rock giving off a very perceptible amount of heat on a still night. In the ravines which I have noted there was in all a heavy growth of timber, grass, etc., that effectually prevented any warming by the direct rays of the sun, nor were any large enough to hold an extensive body of air; while in a mountain valley, even if it was covered with timber, it would take some little time for the air to be changed. Even then, it is hard to see how warmer air would flow downwards; it should rise, one would think. Evidently, further observations are necessary to determine the question satisfactorily.—Yours truly,

H. H. TEN BROECK.

CARROLLTON, MISS., October 11, 1890.

CAPITAL AND INTEREST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of a recent work on 'Capital and Interest,' attention is drawn to conflicting views of eminent economists on the subject. May a student of the "dismal science" who has no claim to eminence, venture a suggestion from a point of view somewhat (as he thinks) novel, and not unworthy of consideration?

Capital is, I believe, allowed to be the unconsumed product of labor. In this view, whatever be its existing form, it represents the equivalent of the skill, industry, and time expended in its production; it is stored-up labor—labor at rest, like any idle workman. When called into activity, it is therefore a contribution of labor towards the productive undertaking which seeks its aid, and as such is entitled to *wages*, which we may call interest, or by any other name.

Let us suppose a dozen men of equal ability intending to coöperate in some undertaking. Half the number have no capital, but their personal labor is required. The others have their savings of half their earnings to put into the concern in addition to their personal labor. This embodied labor in capital would, it seems to me, represent three more working partners, and be entitled to its proportionate wage or "interest."—Very respectfully, R. W. H.

RIVER FOREST, ILL., October 11, 1890.

[Undoubtedly; but the question discussed was not what the "three more working partners" are entitled to, but how do they get what they are entitled to? If we all got what we were entitled to in this world (which is unfortunately not the universal rule), it would still be the task of political economy to show how we arrive at that measure of justice.—ED. NATION.]

NOT WORTH A DÂM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *Dâm* is a small brass coin current in Persia and India, and equivalent in value to one-fortieth of a *rûpiya*, or rupee, or about a cent. The phrase "not worth a dâm" was used by Englishmen trading in the East to express their sense of the utter worthlessness of a thing; in England, however, owing to ignorance of its origin and meaning, it suffered orthographical profanation, and came to signify a thing of so small account as not to be worth the waste of breath involved in damning it. Recently an American from the West, while taking a glass of wine in the Munich Rathhaus Keller, remarked to his companion: "I don't care a continental *dâm*." His mental spelling of the word was doubtless *damn*, although the expression was really synonymous with "continental red," "continental farthing" or "fip," and would have no sense unless it referred to some coin of small value.

E. P. E.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. expect to publish next week 'The Tsar and his People; or, Social Life in Russia,' by Theodore Child, Vassili Verestchagin, and other writers, copiously illustrated in key with the holiday season.

G. P. Putnam's Sons add the following to their previous announcements: 'Where We Went and What We Saw'—in the Levant—by Charles McCormick Reeve; 'Pilgrims in Palestine,' with a preface by Thomas Hodgkin; 'Principles of Social Economics,' by George Gunton; 'Stories from the Arabian Nights,' selected and edited for the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" by Stanley Lane-Poole, with fresh translations of Sindbad and Aladdin, in three

volumes; and 'English Fairy Tales,' collected by Joseph Jacobs, President of the English Folk-Lore Society.

Worthington Co. will publish directly 'Asbella, from the Life of a Virtuoso,' by Ossip Schubin, translated by Elise L. Lathrop; and 'The Old Meeting-house,' by the Rev. A. M. Colton.

John Wiley & Sons have nearly ready the second volume ("Gold and Mercury") of Egleston's 'Metallurgy.'

'Veni Creator: Thoughts on the Person and Work of the Holy Spirit,' by H. C. G. Moule, is in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

'The National Cyclopædia of American Biography,' in progress under the editorship of Mr. James R. Gilmore ("Edmund Kirke"), with James T. White & Co. of this city for publishers, differs at once from the corresponding work of Messrs. Appleton in confining itself to the United States and disregarding the continent southward. The two resemble each other in the small inserted sketch portraits, which in the later work are to be accompanied by views of the homes of the more notable personages of the present day—what the prospectus calls "the future ancestral homes of America." The Cyclopædia will make six volumes.

Mr. W. J. Linton is now ready to issue to subscribers his 'Masters of Wood-Engraving'—"a history of the art by exhibition of the choicest works from the earliest times." His examples for reproduction have been sought in the Library and Print-Room of the British Museum, and are of great rarity and sifted excellence. There is nearly one inserted cut for every page of the 229 pages of text, besides "forty-eight unbacked page-subjects." The ordinary edition is limited to 500 copies, of which one-half are for this country. An edition of larger dimensions admits Harvey's "Dentatus" and Dürer's "Apocalypse" and "Greater Passion" and "Triumphal Car of Maximilian"; and this is limited to one hundred copies—one-half for America. Subscriptions are receivable by G. P. Putnam's Sons, No. 27 West Twenty-third Street, New York.

Mr. Linton's work is of the kind with which rich men can glorify a small public library, making it *pro tanto* the peer of the best endowed. Another opportunity is afforded by Mr. B. F. Stevens's 'Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives Relating to America,' a series of which we have duly rendered account as the several volumes or portfolios have appeared. Here the edition is only of 200 copies and cannot be extended. Five of the proposed hundred volumes have been already issued, giving historical material at first hand for the Revolutionary period, 1763–1783, and drawn from the archives of England, France, Holland, and Spain. The importance of the matter will grow as the series proceeds. To say that one set at least should be accessible in every State in the Union is to speak within bounds.

Prof. Cyril Ransome has extracted from Carlyle's 'Frederick the Great' the remarkable battle descriptions, and they will be published in one volume by Edward Arnold, London.

New editions of Dr. Döllinger's 'Die Papstfabeln des Mittelalters,' originally published in 1863, and of 'Janus,' which appeared during the session of the Vatican Council in 1870, have been prepared for the press by Prof. Friedrich of Munich. Prof. Friedrich is also engaged in writing a biography of Dr. Döllinger, which he expects to complete and print in the autumn of 1891. Among the posthumous papers of the deceased is an immense correspondence, which covers the greater part of the present century and contains exceedingly valuable biographical material, but which it is no slight task to examine and excerpt.

The third and last volume of Champlin & Apthorp's 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians' has been issued by the Messrs. Scribner in time for the holiday market. It is, perhaps, the most complete biographic musical dictionary in any language, as far as composers are concerned, and certainly the most sumptuous in its get-up. Besides a large number of smaller portraits, this volume contains admirable full-page portraits of Rameau, Rossini, Rubinstein, Saint-Saëns, Scarlatti, Schubert, Schumann, Spohr, Spontini, Verdi, Wagner, Weber, together with other interesting illustrations, autographs, etc. A special feature of this dictionary lies in the fact that operas and other works, and even certain famous numbers occurring in them, are fully described in their alphabetic place. To "Siegfried," for instance, two pages are devoted, together with costume pictures of Unger as *Siegfried* and Lilli Lehmann as *Brünnhilde*. Original casts are given, and at the end of each article is appended a list of books and periodicals in which the subject is treated at greater length. Add to these excellent qualities the trustworthiness of the information and the beauty of the print and binding, as commending the work to the amateur.

To the mass of Revolutionary memoirs Mr. Edward Bangs of Boston has added the 'Journal of Lieut. Isaac Bangs, April 1 to July 29, 1776.' This period covered service in Boston at the expulsion of the British, and in New York up to the eve of the battle of Long Island, and the diary is remarkably full. Its military data are valuable, and its picture of the social standards of the time extremely suggestive. Both New England and New York families of note appear in the diary, and the Schuylers of Hackensack are very fully characterized, with much admiration. Among the more curious observations are those relating to the employment of steam pumps at that early day. Lieut. Bangs was a great-uncle of the editor, and, like him, a Harvard graduate. Mr. Edward Bangs, in his preface, justly smiles at the patriotic allusions to George III. as "the man George," whereas "we, whose masters chastise us with scorpions, incline to look back upon his feeble whip with a sad sense of regret, and to be not a little amused at the way in which our ancestors worked themselves up into complaining so loudly and so bitterly of impositions, trifling indeed compared to those to which we submit in meek silence." It would, in fact, be highly instructive to compare the McKinley Bills with the pre-Revolutionary acts of Parliament directed against colonial industry and commerce, of which Sabine gives a hint in the Introduction to his 'American Loyalists.'

At a time when the elder abolitionists are passing pretty rapidly away, two memoirs come to our table from survivors who illustrated in their own persons the hardships of the moral agitation, and the tender mercies of the Slave Power. One is a thin but full volume of 'Reminiscences,' by Lucy N. Colman (Buffalo, N. Y.: H. L. Green). Mrs. Colman, after her second widowhood, became a lecturer in the anti-slavery and other reformatory causes, and her excellent narrative vividly depicts the discomforts, exposures, and mob-perils of such devotion. It is a fit pendent to Parker Pillsbury's 'Acts of the Anti-Slavery Apostles.' When slavery was practically done for by the war, Mrs. Colman naturally became a teacher of the freedmen at the capital. She had been a confidante of John Brown, and she gives us an account of interviews with Lincoln, as well as of her visit to Richmond after the surrender; in fact, in many ways her 'Reminiscences' possess a genuine historical value. They are defective chiefly as to dates, but there is a steady sequence in them. The phases of American civilization (not yet outgrown) which they uncover, cannot be retraced without a feeling of shame, nor also without moral profit, and a sense of high respect for the author's strength of mind and disinterested service to the outcast.

The other volume is entitled 'Rev. Calvin Fairbank during Anti-Slavery Times' (Chicago: Patriotic Publishing Co.). It is a condensed autobiography of a Northern clergyman who, like the Rev. Charles T. Torrey, engaged in the Christian work of helping fugitive slaves to escape from bondage. Like "the martyr Torrey," he was caught and imprisoned, but his superb constitution would not let him be a martyr—in the sense of succumbing to his deadly tasks and inhuman floggings. The scene of his operations was Kentucky, and he was twice sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment. The first time, he was pardoned out after five years (1845–1849); the second time (he had been kidnapped from Indiana) he was pardoned out towards the close of the war after nearly serving his term (1852–1864), and when he was all but sixty years old. The narrative is, for the brutality recorded, a very sickening one, and will not easily be credited by the present generation. Mr. Fairbank's experience shows an extraordinary state of things in the Kentucky prisons of his time; and if this has changed for the better since, we may be sure that emancipation has paved the way, so true is it that slavery smothered reform of all kinds. The members of the Constitutional Convention now sitting in Kentucky might well study Mr. Fairbank's prison notes. Even the convict-gang system seems in some respects less horrible than that he endured. The devotion of his betrothed, and the constancy of other friends, male and female, form the bright side of the picture, along with the freeing of upwards of forty slaves through Mr. Fairbank's instrumentality. In a literary point of view, and in sundry particulars where errors might be pointed out, this book leaves something to be desired. The wide sale of it will prove a much needed contribution towards the author's support; and we believe the same thing may be said of Mrs. Colman's 'Reminiscences.'

The *Century Magazine* now makes definitive announcement of the arrangement by which it is to print, in advance of each of the five volumes of Talleyrand's Memoirs, extracts from them, for which Mr. Whitelaw Reid, our Minister to France, will furnish an introduction.

The Oxford University branch of the Christian Social Union has decided to found a quarterly *Economic Review*, "for the consideration of social and economic questions," chiefly in their moral bearings; but the technical and the historical aspects of British industry will not be neglected. The editors are the Rev. W. J. H. Campion of Keble, the Rev. J. Carter of Exeter, and the Rev. L. R. Phelps of Oriel. The publishers are Percival & Co., 34 King Street, Covent Garden, London. "The Progress of Socialism in the United States" is one of the articles set down for the January number.

The commemorative proceedings of the Pennsylvania Historical Society on occasion of the death of one of its vice-presidents and benefactors, John Jordan, jr., lead the contents of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of Ameri-*

can History for October. To be remarked also is an admirable sketch (with a portrait) of Jared Ingersoll, one of the leaders of the old bar of Philadelphia, by the late Horace Binney, senior. Mr. Binney dwells upon the fact illustrated by Ingersoll, that Philadelphia has not habitually honored her distinguished men as other cities have done. Partly he thinks this may be accounted for by the Quaker origin of the city, but in recent years, he says, "the composition of the city gives the best explanation of the fact; for while there is something like a general temperament in the life and manners of the city, there is no city whose significant population is less homogeneous." Mr. William S. Baker continues his very valuable "Itinerary of Gen. Washington from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783."

Amherst College has just published the General Catalogue for 1821-1890, forming the second quinquennial issue, the last triennial having been published in 1878. The names and all appear in English, the antiquated Latin form having been given up nearly twenty years ago. Amherst has been remarkable for having had so few presidents during its period of existence, now nearly seventy years. These were the Rev. Drs. Moore, 1821; Humphrey, 1823; Hitchcock (the eminent geologist), 1845; Stearns, 1854, and Seelye, 1876. Dr. Gates, who enters upon his duties in this capacity November 1, is thus the sixth in order. The whole number of alumni is 3,319, of whom one-third have been ordained as clergymen, and only 111 have been foreign missionaries—a much smaller number than Amherst is commonly credited with graduating. Honorary graduates not alumni of the College average four to the year, which would indicate no great abuse of this power, at least in so far as numbers are concerned.

Certain students of Girgenti, Sicily, have formed a society to establish a local historical library—"Biblioteca Patria Agrigentina"—intended for a receptacle of every work or document pertaining to that classic ground. Contributions on this line are solicited.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a large panel portrait of George William Curtis—a fine example of the photographic art; together with a smaller portrait, a little more full-face, and, if not a better likeness, possessing the advantages of handy size and permanence—for it is a phototype in printer's ink, and one of the best of its kind.

—Among the works about to be issued by the Hakluyt Society is one on the Rio de la Plata. This will comprise a translation of the voyage of Ulrich Schmidt from the first German edition printed in Sebastian Franck's *Weltbuch* in 1567. Schmidt (or Schmidel, as he is sometimes called) sailed in the expedition of Don Pedro de Mendoza (1534). He relates as an eyewitness the foundation of Buenos Ayres and Asuncion, describing the expeditions and wars of the Spaniards against the various Guaraní tribes at that time inhabiting all the region now included in the Argentine, Paraguayan, and Brazilian republics. Schmidt's narrative, though blunt and uncultivated in style, bearing traces of having been written or dictated by him after his return to Germany, is nevertheless valuable and almost unique material for the early history of European settlements in that part of South America. Following Schmidt's voyage, in the same volume, will be the Commentaries of Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca, translated from the original Spanish edition published in Valladolid in 1555. Upon the death of Mendoza, Cabeza de Vaca was appointed Adelantado, or Governor, of the province of La Plata by the King of Spain, and undertook to equip and lead an expedition of relief to the weakened and disheartened Spaniards at Asuncion. He successfully accomplished his task, and during his Governorship showed a just and conciliatory spirit towards the native Indians. His conduct, however, gave but little satisfaction to the more turbulent and lawless among his own followers, who organized an insurrection against him. They arrested and kept him in a dungeon for a year, during which he suffered horrible treatment, and at length sent him in irons to Spain. Though acquitted of the crimes charged against him by his enemies, he was never allowed to return to his Governorship, and passed the remainder of his days in Spain, neglected and forgotten.

—The volume to which we have called attention will be edited for the Hakluyt Society by Don Luis L. Domínguez, Argentine Minister at the Court of St. James's, who is also, we understand, engaged upon a map to illustrate these early explorations. We will improve the opportunity to observe that the Hakluyt Society does not receive the support from Americans which it deserves and which it would welcome. A letter to the Secretary of the Society, Mr. E. Delmar Morgan, at 15 Roland Gardens, South Kensington, London, with a money order for one guinea, the annual subscription, is all that is required to secure membership.

—Many minds nowadays are turning towards high philosophy with expectations such as wide-awake men have not indulged during fifty years of Hamiltonianism, Millism, and Spencerianism; so that the establishment of a new philosophical quarterly which may prove a focus for all the agitation of thought that struggles to-day to illuminate the deepest problems with light from modern science, is an event worthy of particular notice. The first number of the *Monist* (*Open Court* Publishing Company) opens with good promise, in articles by two Americans, one Englishman, three Germans, two Frenchmen. Mr. A. Binet, student of infusorial psychology, treats of the alleged physical immortality of some of these organisms. In the opening paper, Dr. Romanes defends against Wallace his segregation supplement to the Darwinian theory, *i. e.*, that the divergence of forms is aided by varieties becoming incapable of crossing, as, for instance, by blossoming at different seasons. Prof. Cope, who, if he sometimes abandons the English language for the jargon of biology, is always distinguished by a clear style, ever at his command in impersonal matters, gives an analysis of marriage, not particularly original, and introduces a slight apology for his former recommendation of temporary unions. Prof. Ernst Mach has an "anti-metaphysical" article characteristic of the class of ingenious psychologists, if not perhaps quite accurate thinkers, to which he belongs. Mr. Max Dessoir recounts exceedingly interesting things about magic mirrors considered as hypnotizing apparatus. Mr. W. M. Salter and M. Lucien Arreat tell us something of the psychology of Höffding and of Fouillée. Among the book-notices, a certain salad of Hegel and mathematics excites our curiosity and provokes an appetite for more of this sort. The writer makes much ado to state Dr. F. E. Abbot's metaphysics, certainly as easily intelligible a theory as ever was.

—It remains to explain the name *Monist*. Dr. Carus, the putative editor, says: "The philosophy of the future will be a philosophy of facts, it will be *positivism*; and in so far as a unitary systematization of facts is the aim and ideal of all science, it will be *Monism*." But this is no definition of monism at all; in fact, the last clause conveys no idea. The search for a unitary conception of the world, or for a unitary systematization of science, would be a good definition of *philosophy*; and, with this good old word at hand, we want no other. To use the word *monism* in this sense would be in flagrant violation at once of usage and of the accepted principles of philosophical terminology. But this is not what is meant. Monism, as Dr. Carus himself explains it in his 'Fundamental Problems,' p. 256, is a metaphysical theory opposed to dualism or the theory of two kinds of substance—mind and matter—and also conceiving itself to be different both from idealism and materialism. But idealism and materialism are almost identical: the only difference is that idealism regards the psychical mode of activity as the fundamental and universal one, of which the physical mode is a specialization; while materialism regards the laws of physics as at the bottom of everything, and feeling as limited to special organizations. The metaphysicians who call themselves Monists are usually materialists *sans le savoir*. The true meaning attaching to the title of the magazine may be read in these words of the editor:

"We are driven to the conclusion that the world of feelings forms an inseparable whole together with a special combination of certain facts of the objective world, namely, our body. It originates with this combination, and disappears as soon as that combination breaks to pieces. . . . Subjectivity must be conceived as the product of a coöperation of certain elements which are present in the objective world. . . . Motions are not transformed into feelings, but certain motions, . . . when coöperating in a special form, are accompanied with feelings."

—The *Revue Bleue* of October 4 announces the retirement of M. Alfred Rambaud from his position as editor, and the succession to it of M. Henry Ferrari. M. Rambaud has been connected with the *Revue* for twenty-six years, almost from the very beginning. Upon the death of its founder, M. Ernest Yung, about three years ago, he undertook the direction of it, and in his hands it has in no wise fallen off from its original excellence. In politics it has been consistently liberal Republican; in literature, what one might call liberal-conservative. It has never run headlong into any of the new literary movements, but we do not remember that it has been harsh or unjust in its criticism of any of them, or even unsympathetic. It is always able and almost always interesting and clever. One sees in it constantly a quickness of mind, a readiness and lightness of touch, that one misses oftener than he finds in English reviews. M. Rambaud retires solely in order to obtain leisure for travel and research which a more extended work he has in hand requires. He will still contribute to the *Revue*, and has, indeed, just been elected President of its administrative board. There will be no change in the line of conduct of the *Revue*, nor departure from its traditions.

—Alphonse Karr, whose name has been familiar to most of the readers of this generation since their childhood, died at Saint Raphael, near Nice, on the first day of the present month. He belonged to a school of writers, the Romanticists of 1830, the survivors of which have been of late rapidly disappearing, and which now is almost extinct. His first

book, 'Sous les Tilleuls,' came out in 1832—a story of a poetic turn, and with a certain German tender sentimentality about it. After all, it is perhaps as good as most of his later work, and as well known as any, save his immensely popular 'Voyage autour de mon Jardin.' That Karr is to be one of the immortals, and his works an imperishable monument to preserve his name, is more than one would be safe in saying. M. Jean Aicard predicted it, or something very much like it, in his funeral address, but the funeral prophet often speaks with a license which is poetic. M. Aicard gave utterance to a much wiser and more truly prophetic thing, perhaps, in saying that even though all the great literary monuments of the present century should crumble and disappear, there was still something that never would be lost; that some of the wisdom and wit to which Alphonse Karr has given permanent form, in a tongue which is at once brilliant and solid, will be dug up again out of the ruins in time to come, as we dig up coins and medals in Greek or Roman soil. It is curious to note how closely this corresponds to a modest saying of Karr's about himself, "There will remain of me," he said, "only two phrases: 'Plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose,' and 'On veut abolir la peine de mort, soit; mais que messieurs les assassins commencent.'" Karr was of German descent, as his name indicates. His father was born in Munich, but came to Paris when he was very young. Alphonse was born in Paris, November 24, 1808, but the greater part of his life was spent in the country among his favorite animals and flowers.

—Symptoms are multiplying that German literature at present is passing through a new "Sturm und Drang." While the representatives of the old idealistic school are dying out; while the barren commonplaceness of the reigning society drama *à la* Lindau, and the hopeless dulness of the archæological novel *à la* Ebers, are beginning to be taken at their real value, the younger generation, drunk with Tolstoi and Ibsen, are calling for a new society, a new education, a new faith. One of the most curious manifestations of this reformatory spirit is the sensation created by an anonymous treatise, called 'Rembrandt als Erzieher, von einem Deutschen,' which appeared at the beginning of this year (Leipzig: Hirschfeld), and has since then run through seven editions. The author, whose visionary language reminds one of the first productions of the youthful Herder, entertains a very pessimistic view of the present state of German culture. "It has by this time," he says, "come to be an open secret that the intellectual life of the German people at present is in a state of slow, some even think of rapid, decadence. Science is losing itself in specializing; in belles-lettres there are no great individualities; art, in spite of a number of good artists, lacks monumentality; musicians there are many, of music there is little. Architecture is the heart of all the arts, philosophy is the heart of all scientific thinking; but at present there exists neither a German architecture nor a German philosophy. There are no leaders anywhere: *les rois s'en vont.*" Out of this lethargy the author wants to rouse his people by pointing to the hidden treasures of the German, especially the North German, character: its chastity, its inwardness, its spirituality, its strong individualism. Rembrandt appears to the author to be the prototype of all these virtues, and in him, consequently, he finds the educator of his nation towards a culture which would sweep away the present rule of dead formulas. The book has all the faults of exaggeration and of vagueness which seem inseparable from new departures; and yet its strong appeal to the national conscience, as well as the loud echo which it has found on the part of the public, cannot but be welcomed as a sign of a new awakening of the German mind.

THIRTY YEARS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY.—I.

A History of Modern Europe. By C. A. Fyffe, M.A., etc. Vol. III. (1848-1878). Henry Holt & Co.

FYFFE'S 'History of Modern Europe' is a piece of clever literary workmanship. The writer has known what he intended to do and done it. He has produced an interesting bird's-eye view of European history during a hundred years marked by events of extraordinary magnitude. He meant his book to be readable, and it undoubtedly will be read, and, what is more, it is worth reading. All attempt at depth or thoroughness has been sacrificed to the main object with which the book is written. Mr. Fyffe's omissions are, from his own point of view, judicious; but they are startling. The history of Europe during the thirty years covered by our author's last volume is not really intelligible without some knowledge of the Sepoy revolt and the War of Secession. But a reader of Mr. Fyffe's pages would never, as far as we can see, learn that the Indian Empire of England was, in 1857 and 1858, saved from destruction, and that years of desperate warfare were necessary to preserve the existence of the United States. The Indian Mutiny and the War of Secession took place, it will be said, outside Europe. This is a good reason why our historian should not narrate the tale of the taking of Delhi or of the siege of Richmond, but it is no defence whatever for the omission of all reference to events which alone make intelligible not only the annals of France and of England, but the whole course of European opinion.

Mr. Fyffe, unless we are mistaken, belongs to a generation of Oxonians who were carefully trained in the arts necessary for producing effective essays at examinations, and who firmly believed in the maxim current at Oxford some thirty years ago, "You had always better be flippant than dull." He is rarely dull, he is often flippant. His narrative, though sketchy and imperfect, is good; his reflections are the commonplaces of writers who aim at epigram and attain to smartness. Still, we repeat, the 'History of Modern Europe' is well worth reading; it enables us to glance at the movement of European society as a whole. It suggests and in part answers the question which every thoughtful man must at times ask himself: What has been the real outcome of that marvellous period extending between 1848 and 1878? What, to express the matter a little differently, has been the main result of the struggles which will for ever be connected with the revolutions of 1848, just as all the various phases of the great French Revolution will always receive a name from 1789?

The existence of a generation, as of individuals, has always two aspects; the outward life, with its events, its visible successes and its visible failures, stands in contrast with the inward life, marked not by acts and deeds, but by thoughts and sentiments, and filled with triumphs or defeats not to be seen by the eye, but known only to self-consciousness. Whoever would understand an age must regard it in both these aspects. Let us look first at the visible events which will always be recorded as the salient features of the thirty years with which we are concerned.

If we regard that age as a whole, and take, with Mr. Fyffe, a bird's-eye view of its development, we shall see that it was marked by four characteristics. The first (and the least noticed) was the attainment of one object at which the inhabitants of continental Europe had aimed with more or less distinctness ever since the opening of the Great Revolution. This was the putting an end to the kind of inequality and despotism which before 1789 prevailed throughout the Continent. The years which followed 1848 were, it is true, years of reaction; but Mommsen's dictum that "restoration is always also revolution" holds good in more senses than one, and unconsciously the reactionists and the revolutionists of 1849 worked together for the accomplishment of the aim proposed to themselves by the Liberals of 1789. The sort of despotism which existed throughout Europe before the outbreak of the Revolution, and which still flourished in many European countries, notably in the smaller Italian States, up to the revolutions of 1848, has now, in all the civilized countries of Europe (among which no one counts Turkey or Russia), become a matter of the past. Ordinary individual freedom and some system of parliamentary government exist, except under the Sultan and the Czar, in every part of Europe. To this state of things we are all so used that we note not its significance; yet to any man whose memories carry him back over a period of thirty or forty years, there is visible one unmistakable sign of a revolutionized world. The political refugee, with all the glory and romance which attach to him, has ceased to exist. Youths who are now growing up hardly understand the interest kindled in the minds of their fathers by Kossuth or Mazzini. The picture given by Carlyle of the Spanish exiles whose calamities, heroism, and dignity stirred the enthusiasm of John Stirling, is already a picture of a past age. It represents a transitory state of things which would have been incomprehensible to our great-grandfathers, and will be incomprehensible to our grandchildren.

The second characteristic—the feature by which the thirty years which followed the fall of Louis Philippe is most generally known—is the development of the doctrine or sentiment of nationality, and the consequent unification of nations. The creation of a united Italy, the renovation of the German Empire, the re-establishment of the Hungarian Constitution, are just the kind of large facts which arrest attention, and are apt to be estimated at even more than their real and undoubted importance. What is equally true, but has not been equally noted, is, that between 1848 and 1870 two ideas, which had hitherto been blended in popular imagination so as almost to be identified, were practically separated. The realization of national unity was shown, first by Cavour, and still more distinctly by Bismarck, to have no necessary affinity with republicanism, or even with popular government. To the present generation this is so obvious as hardly to seem worth mentioning. What is worth insisting upon is, that within the memory of thousands of men now living, popular sentiment, not to say public opinion, universally identified the assertion of national independence with a desire for liberal or democratic institutions. The reasons for this identification are, of course, purely historical; but it would be impossible for any one to appreciate the condition of Europe in 1848, and the ten years which immediately followed it, who did not take into account the fact that subjects and rulers alike, for the most part, identified the cry for national unity with the demand for

more or less democratic freedom. Mazzini was never able fully to realize that Italy might be united and independent and yet not be a republic.

The blunder, on which Mr. Fyffe dwells, committed by Kossuth when he tried to turn Hungary into a democratic commonwealth, is to be explained mainly by the close alliance which, according to the belief of the time, bound together democracy and nationality. It was probably due, also, to an idea, assuredly entertained by many of the leaders of '48, that a democratic government could derive a strength from popular enthusiasm which would suffice to rout trained armies. Of this belief, which, strange as the fact now appears, was held by men of extraordinary capacity, the annals of modern Europe give the fullest evidence. Mazzini believed that in a war waged by the people the defeat of Custozza would have been an impossibility. Garibaldi, who, if not a born general, was certainly a born soldier, felt, it may be suspected, no less surprise than indignation when he found that the "miracles" worked by the *chassepots* were more potent than the miracles to be achieved by faith in Italy. Gambetta, and the crowds who heroically followed Gambetta, expected that the proclamation of the Republic would be a charm to rally together all the warlike spirit of France and scatter the victorious hosts of Germany. No man assailed more bitterly the truths no less than the fallacies of current liberalism than Carlyle; but it is impossible to read Carlyle's 'French Revolution' without seeing that he, no less than Mazzini, ascribed almost superhuman power to popular passion. Our war of secession, which, though not mentioned by Mr. Fyffe, vitally affected the whole current of European thought, proved, by a kind of demonstration far more impressive than any syllogism, that a claim for national independence, and a claim supported by enthusiasm and self-sacrifice, may be a claim not to found but to destroy democratic institutions. The triumph of the German armies proved with equal force that the proclamation of a republic may fail to insure the safety of a nation. That nationality is something different from liberalism and democracy is a conclusion taught before 1878 to the whole world by lessons which no man, however dull, could refuse to learn. But the years during which the unity of Italy was achieved will always remain noteworthy as the time when the doctrine of nationality, just because it was fused with other ideas really foreign to it, exerted a supreme and a noble and inspiring influence.

The third fact or feature which obviously marks the era with which we are concerned is the growth of huge armies. Some thirty years ago a thoughtful writer computed that the armies of the world, if brought together, would equal the then population of London. This was dwelt upon, and deserved to be dwelt upon, as an alarming, not to say portentous, fact. But a thinker who, in 1860 or 1862, was already alarmed at the waste of human resources and human labor on preparation for war, knew little of the weight of the armaments which within twenty years were destined to burden the people of Europe. At that date the idea of turning the nation into a great army was unknown. The standing forces of even military States were insignificant in comparison with the hosts which France, Italy, Germany, Austria, and Russia keep constantly on foot. Their number and their equipment receive each year gigantic additions. It was assumed, moreover, that to arm a nation was equivalent to turning soldiers into citizens. Our modern experience suggests that it may mean transforming citizens into soldiers. An armed State may mean a State where the spirit of civil life and civil freedom has yielded to the spirit of military courage and military discipline.

The increase of military power is in part a result of the fourth characteristic of the age. It has been the era of scientific discovery and scientific invention. The political, the ecclesiastical, and even the social movements of the last forty years may, it is likely enough, be forgotten. In dramatic impressiveness, and it may be in permanent importance, they fall far behind the moral and social changes which marked the era of the Reformation and the opening years of the French Revolution. It is hardly conceivable that the scientific progress of the time should not be permanently recorded in the annals of mankind. Darwin, to mention one name only, will be remembered as long as Newton. Darwinism means much more than the speculative results attained by the genius of one man. It means little less than a new way of looking at existence. It is to the nineteenth century what the discovery of the New World was to the sixteenth. To those, further, who hold material progress to be of supreme importance, the generation which has extended railways and telegraphs throughout the civilized world, which has pierced the Isthmus of Suez, which has performed miracles by means of electricity, will always, we may anticipate, be deemed worthy of remembrance. One belief, indeed, whereof the prevalence adds at the present moment factitious glory to the scientific progress of humanity, will in the long run be recognized in its true character as a delusion. The world will sooner or later learn that scientific discovery is not, as we now are apt to imagine, the same thing as the general diffusion of knowledge. It may be asserted with some truth that, as science advances, the relative ignorance of the mass of mankind increases. Ordinary men and women live in a world which to them becomes more and more mysterious. The comfort of their life, their very existence, depends on machinery of which they understand not the mechanism, and the machines which every one of us uses employ forces which few of us understand at all, and none of us can fully analyze their nature. The man who travelled ninety years ago from London to New York understood, roughly speaking, the mechanism of the coach in which he was conveyed across England and of the ship in which he was carried across the Atlantic. Comparatively few are the passengers who could give a rational account of the construction of the engine which whirls them from London to Liverpool, or of the steamer which in a week hurries them from Liverpool to New York. The man who sends a letter by post knows in a rough sort of way how the words he has written in London are conveyed to America. The educated Englishman or American who telegraphs a message from London to New York would find it more difficult than he supposes to explain, with anything like lucidity, how a message handed in to a young woman in an office in Lombard Street is within a short time given out for delivery to his correspondent by another young woman in an office on Broadway. The plain truth is, that most of us understand the life around us as little as we understand the feats of a juggler.

Nor is it only because scientific progress outstrips the advance of ordinary education that an age of science may also be an age of ignorance. Every day makes apparent the fact that, as the field of human knowledge is widened, every man's capacity to take full possession of that field is diminished. The age becomes, and must become, more and more an age of specialists. But special knowledge almost of necessity means general ignorance of most, or of many, things outside the sphere of the specialist's study. Still, when every deduction is made, the fact remains that the thirty years of which the main events are sketched by Mr. Fyffe were thirty years of progressive science. Within this period civilized Europe abolished despotism, gave a new development to the sentiment of nationality, produced something like a new military system, and gave a new impulse to the scientific progress of mankind. These are the patent, obvious, so to speak, external facts of European life between 1848 and 1878.

MARTYN'S LIFE OF PHILLIPS.

Wendell Phillips, the Agitator. By Carlos Martyn. [American Reformers, edited by Carlos Martyn.] New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

It is rather dangerous for the editor of a new series of biographies to be also the author of the first volume; and safer, on the whole, for him to let the trial trip be made by some one else. If we were to judge of the series of "American Reformers" by the example of this first issue, we should say that it is to be a piece of journalism or pamphleteering, put up in volumes; that it will be fervent, exuberant, crude, hasty, disorderly, and inaccurate. In this first issue, at least, the turgid and somewhat school-boyish style is singularly out of keeping with the well-bred ease of Phillips's own language; and the setting of the gems, industriously collected from many sources, is so poor that the book leaves the real memoirs of Wendell Phillips still to be written. It is, on the whole, an improvement on Austin's memoir; but when we consider that Austin's was avowedly an off-hand production, intended for immediate use, while this is deliberate and laborious, and largely based upon works or manuscripts unavailable to his predecessor, the later biographer is not really entitled to much more credit than the earlier. In fact, without the family Life of Garrison and the private Memorial of Mrs. Phillips, the present work would have been almost devoid of excuse or of individuality.

It is too early, doubtless, for a candid and unbiassed biography of Wendell Phillips, and we can hardly complain if his striking and fascinating personality has made this book an undiscriminating eulogium. Yet some of the praises here heaped on the subject of the biography are bestowed on the very merits which Phillips always and justly disclaimed, as, for instance, that of scholarship. To tell us that he retained through life the habits of scholarship and studied chemistry for amusement (pp. 507-8), is like the assertion in earlier pages that he was a celebrated oarsman—the fact being that neither scholarship nor chemistry nor oarsmanship (in the present sense) existed during Phillips's college days, and that he had no later opportunity to acquire them. For a man who lectures every night during the winter, pausing occasionally at home to attend a committee meeting or nurse an invalid wife, scholarship is impossible; even Theodore Parker ceased to be a scholar under such circumstances, although he had far more of the studious temperament than his friend. Phillips's was the literary or rhetorical temperament, not the scholar's. He had an admirable memory for odds and ends, for available scraps or telling incidents, and he spent his

life in training his resources in this direction; but there is no reason to suppose that he had ever in his life studied anything with scholarly thoroughness, except possibly, as he claimed, the English Revolution. This is no reproach to him—he had a great admiration for even the semblance of scholarship in others; but no man can combine everything, and it is a wrong to our young people when we assume that such a thing as universal genius is now practicable.

And as Mr. Martyn errs in classing Wendell Phillips among the scholars, he also errs in ignoring his weakest point, the lack of judicial estimate of men. He had not even that "feminine intuition" which Mr. Martyn attributes to him (p. 506); although his invalid wife, who eminently possessed it, used sometimes to invoke its aid for his benefit, often unavailingly—as in the case of Gen. Butler, whom she always distrusted, although Phillips himself yielded to that malign influence with a blindness which his present biographer emulates. The latter can see nothing but "kid gloves and cologne water" when Garrison and Emerson refused to follow Phillips in his infatuation for that utterly untruthful demagogue (pp. 386–7); and his tone on this point gives the keynote to the book. Mr. Phillips had not enough of intuition to divine the character of Lincoln or of Grant, and did but tardy justice to either; his judgments of men were prompt, fearless, independent, but the judicial quality rarely belonged to them. It belongs in a far less degree to his biographer, as one may see in the treatment of the controversy with Horace Mann. Mr. Martyn rarely admits any explanation but a degrading one for any serious difference of opinion from that of his hero. In the unfortunate dissension which arose among life-long friends over the will of Francis Jackson, he can attribute only to "pique and grudge" the course of the minority of the trustees (Messrs. Garrison, Quincy, and May) in advocating the use of a certain fund in a certain manner (p. 358).

The case was one that is now easy to comprehend. Francis Jackson, a leading abolitionist, left a will bequeathing $10,000 to the anti-slavery cause; but the Thirteenth Amendment was adopted before the money was obtainable. The majority of the trustees wished to apply the money to the support of the *Anti-Slavery Standard* in the subsequent contest for negro enfranchisement; the minority thought that it should rather be employed for the education of the freedmen. It was a perfectly legitimate difference of opinion, unfortunately intensified, not by "pique and grudge" on either side, but by the trained and inexorable sternness of the anti-slavery conscience, rendered somewhat inelastic by long toil, and not easily accepting variation of opinion among those who had so long seen, in their own favorite phrase, "eye to eye." The Supreme Court ultimately devoted the money to the use suggested by the minority, and much good was unquestionably done by it. The case was eminently one of those in which a posthumous biographer should exercise whatever of comprehensiveness of vision may have been wanting among the parties at issue.

In many respects the memoir shows inaccuracies of detail, proceeding less from carelessness than from an habitual tone of inflation. To imply that Mr. Phillips's regular price for lecturing was, for any considerable period, "$100 or $200," is a serious exaggeration (p. 360); nor can we place any credence in the estimate on p. 115 that his "Lost Arts" lecture netted him $150,000. This would, on the data given, have required an average delivery of more than once a week for forty-five half years—at the rate of $100, which could not possibly have prevailed in the earlier period, when he was more likely to have received $25. Dr. Chapin was thought to have made the most out of little when he reckoned up $20,000 from his "Orders of Nobility." It was not, again, Phillips, but his friend Daniel Wells Alvord, who was "substantially the author" of the Massachusetts Personal Liberty Bill (p. 278). The Harvard "Hasty-Pudding Club" was not in Phillips's time, and is not now, "a circle which admitted only the *jeunesse dorée*" (p. 47), though this was and is largely true of the "Porcellian Club." Mr. Phillips was never President of the Hasty-Pudding. To say of Mr. Garrison, "as an organizer he was unexcelled" (p. 106), is to be only a little more accurate than to speak of Mr. Phillips's "skill as an organizer" (p. 170). He had none; and Mr. Garrison, though the father of the anti-slavery organizations, had only the gift of moral propulsion. In the common acceptation of the term "organizer," their eminent and indispensable associate, Mrs. Maria Weston Chapman, far surpassed both. The Rev. Nehemiah Adams did not earn the name of "Southside Adams" merely "by his truckling to the slave power" (p. 120), but by the fact, which Mr. Martyn does not mention, that he wrote a book called 'A Southside View of Slavery.' Miss Greene (afterwards Mrs. Phillips) was not present at the meeting of the Boston Female Anti-Slavery Society mobbed on October 21, 1835; Mr. Martyn has confounded her with Miss Ann Greene Chapman. Of minor inaccuracies the name is legion. Mr. Martyn quotes the well-known lines by Mrs. Ellen Sturgis Hooper—

"I slept and dreamed that life was duty"—

attributing them to an inexplicable "Ellen Hooper Drake," and misquoting the second line (p. 446). Mr. B. A. Gould, the veteran Boston teacher of the last generation, whose initials still remain familiar as being those of his son, the eminent astronomer, here becomes "A. B. Gould" (p. 34); the Rev. Dr. Morison becomes "Morrison" (p. 46), Judge Durell, another classmate, "Darrell"; George W. Smalley, the *Tribune* correspondent, is disguised as "George H. Smalley" (p. 218), Joshua R. Giddings as "Geddings" (p. 284), John R. Manley as "Manley" (p. 345); Edmonia Lewis appears as "Lewes" (p. 417), Dr. Samuel A. Green as "Samuel G. Green" (pp. 428, 471), the Granary Burying-Ground as "Granery" (p. 487); Samuel E. Sewall is printed both correctly (p. 108) and as "Samuel S. Sewall" (p. 228), and is naturally duplicated in the index. After these perversions of familiar American names, we can hardly be surprised at finding *réconteur* for *raconteur* (pp. 29, 128); *en règle* for *en règle* (p. 117); *Val'darno* for *Val d'Arno* (p. 141); *Santa Cruce* for *Santa Croce* (p. 142), and the like. On p. 35 the classics are said to recommend "that golden mean—*in medias res*."

The general appearance of the series resembles that of the "American Statesmen" series, but is inferior to that, and the indexing far inferior. It is possible, of course, that, with a little timely admonition, the future volumes of "American Reformers" may show improvement and be more worthy of the importance of their theme.

MARSHALL'S PRINCIPLES OF ECONOMICS.

Principles of Economics. By Alfred Marshall, Professor of Political Economy in the University of Cambridge. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

PROF. MARSHALL'S book is altogether too big. When the first volume of a series of undefined extent contains 750 pages octavo, the general reader thinks twice before he opens it, and even specialists will groan at the prospective demand upon their time. Nowadays the surplus satisfaction, or "consumer's rent," derived from books tends to vary inversely as their length, and diminishes with increasing rapidity when the "normal" size is exceeded. This inconvenience must of course be tolerated where the author really requires all his space for the proper treatment of his subject; but this defence is not available to Prof. Marshall. His book is full of repetitions—careless and unnecessary repetitions. The same similes are repeated at length in almost the same words; the same instances are quoted again and again. We hear more than once of the reprehensible conduct of the mother who goes out to work when she might be more profitably minding her household, and of the sea which is never smooth, although always tending to be so. Space is wasted in supplying illustrations of commonplace propositions, and in giving several illustrations where one would suffice. Books of this character are not meant for babes, and adult readers may be trusted to work out many conclusions for themselves if the premises are supplied them. After we are instructed that a given income will require a larger principal to produce it when the rate of interest is low than when it is high, it is hardly necessary to furnish us with arithmetical assurances to the effect that while £8,000 at 5 per cent. will bring in £400, £10,000 will be needed when the rate of interest is 4 per cent. to produce the same income.

A much more serious matter than diffuseness of style is the practice of beginning discussions and leaving them uncompleted. It becomes exasperating to the last degree to be told, not once and again, but scores of times, after a subject has been taken up, that further consideration of it must be postponed to a later period in the investigation; and few readers have the patience to go back and gather up these loose ends when the time comes to weave them in. While we recognize fully the enormous difficulties of the subject, especially when treated upon the principles adopted by Prof. Marshall, we cannot regard this practice otherwise than as indicating a feebleness of grasp, an inability to bring unity out of diversity, that seriously impairs the value of the work. We miss the clear statement and logical sequence of principles by which all great scientific work is marked, and almost suspect that he has merely strung together the contents of his lecture cases, so that his book has not been created like a work of art, or developed like an organism of high order, but has simply grown by addition of cells of like structure. It is doubtless owing to this failure to look at his subject as a whole that so much repetition is necessary, and becomes so tedious; for it seems to be introduced not for the convenience of the reader, but to supplement the defects in the author's plan.

As to another ground of criticism, it must be said that Prof. Marshall at least sins in good company. Whether political economy is a science or an art, it is notorious that scarcely any writer upon it has refrained from treating it as an art, and from emphasizing such precepts as were most to his taste. Yet it is surprising to read that "the Laws of Economics are statements of tendencies expressed in the indicative mood, and not ethical precepts in the imperative," and at the same time that the economic man is regarded as influenced by all altruistic motives "the action of which is so far uniform in any class at any time and place that it can be reduced to general rule." Does

not this necessarily imply the existence of an accepted system of ethics, and tend to embarrass the investigation by introducing a number of variable causes, the effects of which can scarcely be determined? For it comes to this, that we must deal with man as governed by *all* motives which are regularly operative, whether altruistic or not. Now, as a rule, men do not make pig-iron because they are in a passion, or boil soap from sentiment. They do these things to make money. They do business upon business principles, and the whole fabric of industry is based upon the assumption that men are actuated by self-interest. It is true that the motives of which this is the resultant are varied. One man wishes by his gains to support foreign missionaries, another to support his children, a third to get drunk; but they all desire to get gain. It must be admitted, however, that if economics is to include the science and the art of the consumption of wealth, it must include psychology, ethics, and politics. Without these it will necessarily be to a great extent dogmatic.

So broad a basis is not laid by Prof. Marshall, and in consequence he does not confine himself to "statements in the indicative mood." In short, he occasionally preaches, but not in an offensively censorious manner, we are bound to say, for his tone is invariably restrained. Thus, he lays down the proposition that "a moderate income earned by moderate work offers the best opportunity for the growth of those habits of body, mind, and spirit in which alone there is true happiness." This might be described as the ideal of a valetudinarian, or perhaps as the professorial ideal. But it would not satisfy every one. There are men, not content with moderate work, whose achievements are worth more than a moderate income. There is an exaltation, a romance, in great feats of boldness and strength that the world could ill spare. The "one crowded hour of glorious life" is to some its own exceeding great reward; happiness is not to be found by them in a prolonged succession of tranquil states of consciousness. The world may see a general prevalence of the "piping times of peace," but the militant and adventurous spirit will burst forth in new outlets. Many persons would maintain that the widest diversity, whether in work or income, is not only favorable to progress, but is desirable as an end in itself. Prof. Marshall is of course entitled to have his ideal, and to preach it; but as we observe indications that he would enforce it upon other people by governmental compulsion, we think that he ought to demonstrate its truth.

We notice, too, a metaphysical assumption that seems to us to be of far-reaching consequence. "As a cathedral is something more than the stones of which it is made, as a person is something more than a series of thoughts and feelings, so the life of society is something more than the sum of the lives of its individual members." Is there, then, a certain substance, Society—or, peradventure, a Platonic idea that moulds human material to its form? Or what is the additional element? We do not deny that it is there, but it requires definition or explanation. If there is a consciousness, or life, of society, in the same sense that there is a consciousness of a man, we ought to know it, and if in another sense, we should know what it is.

We are unable, within our present limits, to consider the logical method adopted by Prof. Marshall, and perhaps it is better not to attempt it until his work is completed. He has been much influenced by Jevons, although his studies have been so wide that he brings before us contributions from every quarter. We shall here refer only to a single proposition, which, however, we understand to be one of the corner-stones of Prof. Marshall's edifice. It is this:

"We have already seen that the price which a person pays for a thing can never exceed, and seldom comes up to, that which he would be willing to pay rather than go without it; so that the gratification which he gets from its purchase generally exceeds that which he gives up in paying away its price; and he thus derives from the purchase a surplus of pleasure. The excess of the price which he would be willing to pay rather than go without it over that which he actually does pay, is the economic measure of this surplus pleasure, and, for reasons which will appear later on, may be called *consumer's rent*."

We are suspicious of a fallacy of division here. The proposition appears to be a universal one, and we will restate it in that form. All the prices that all persons pay for all the things they buy can never exceed, and seldom equal, what they would be willing to pay rather than go without these things. Now it is not credible that Prof. Marshall would say that we should insert a clause, so that this should read, "what they would be willing to pay—if they had no end of money—rather than go without," etc. If we all had more purchasing power, we should unquestionably be willing to pay more rather than deny ourselves anything that we had previously enjoyed. But if this is not the meaning of the proposition, what is? It can only be that persons as a rule do not live up to their income; that they always have a supply of money on hand beyond the amount which they expend for the satisfaction of their wants, and that they would expend this reserve rather than leave these wants unsatisfied. We are unable to reconcile this law with experience. We may have failed to understand Prof. Marshall's position, but it seems to us to be untenable if our criticism is valid; and if so, his whole system would need to be reconstituted.

For the reasons above stated, we do not consider this treatise, regarded as a whole—so far as one can take a part for the whole—to possess great scientific value. It is gratifying to be able to speak of portions of it with hearty commendation. There is, perhaps, not an instance in history where a great reasoner has been more persistently misunderstood and misrepresented than has been the case with Ricardo; the misrepresentation being generally due, we believe, to inexcusable ignorance. Prof. Marshall rights this ancient injustice, and scatters the followers of Marx with a few well-directed strokes. It is much to be wished that he could command the time to prepare an annotated edition of Ricardo, a work for which he seems to be exceptionally well prepared. Of great interest, too, is his examination of the law of rent with a view to its subsumption under a more general statement. Every chapter bears evidence of the extent of his familiarity with practical business and of the breadth of his scholarship. It is impressive to note that the important disclosures of the vital statistics of Massachusetts, to which attention was recently called in these columns, have not escaped his notice, and American writers on economic subjects may well feel flattered by the appreciative mention which they receive—although we must say that the phrase, "American economists from Carey to Henry George," is not of the most discriminatingly appreciative character. For the general reader, if he grapples with the work, the historical accounts of different industries, the explanations of the great movements of trade in modern times, and the details of the operation of great business establishments, will have a particular fascination. We have not hesitated to point out what seemed to us serious imperfections in this volume; but we think it not improbable that the obscurity of which we have complained will be dispelled as the work advances, and that the final statement of the author's theories will be more lucid than the preliminary adumbrations.

McCONNELL'S AMERICAN EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

History of the American Episcopal Church, from the planting of the Colonies to the end of the Civil War. By S. D. McConnell, D.D., Rector of St. Stephen's Church, Philadelphia. Thomas Whittaker. 1890.

One whose ideas of ecclesiastical history have been formed upon the histories of Mosheim and Neander would hardly think of going to any such history for entertainment; nevertheless, those who read Dr. McConnell's 'History of the American Episcopal Church' will find it one of the most entertaining books they have read for many a day. To say that it is as interesting as a novel would be too flattering to the average production of the novelist. One class must be excepted from those likely to enjoy the book—churchmen who take their church too seriously, and who imagine that its history throughout has had all the dignity and beauty of its solemn ritual. For such the book will abound in startling revelations. Aggrieved and sad, they will say to one another, in secret colloquies, "An enemy hath done this." But no; Dr. McConnell is a churchman of the most pronounced and stalwart character. And this fact, for some, will give to their reflection its utmost bitterness. They could have borne it from an enemy, but, for the wounds of a friend—if these are faithful, they are very deep and wide. How could his loyalty permit him such disclosures even if their truth is incontrovertible? In and between the lines of Bishop Ferry's more voluminous and careful 'History,' to which Dr. McConnell refers on almost every page, all that we have here was perhaps to be read. But how different the impression! More flattering certainly, but much less vivid and unique.

There is balm in Dr. McConnell's book for the wounded sensibilities of his co-religionists: it is his confidence in a church whose history has had so little in it of which he can be justly proud. A church which can afford this railing accusation is a church worth living for. And then, too, it must be remembered that this 'History' ends with the close of the war, when the Church had just emerged from the least honorable period of her career, when she was just entering on her period of most rapid growth; disfigured, indeed, by the trivialities of the ritualistic controversy, but bringing the Church into ever closer coöperation with the better forces of the secular world, and into livelier sympathy with other sects. Moreover, it is since 1865 that Phillips Brooks has lent the splendor of his talent to a church often suspicious of his liberal inclinations, and that Bishop Potter has "meddled with politics," not without sympathy and following in his own body of believers, but in a manner wholly strange to their tradition of political indifference, the outcome largely of their Church's sad experience in the Revolutionary war.

There is an engaging frankness in Dr. McConnell's dedication of his book: "To the congregation of St. Stephen's Church, Philadelphia, who were sadly neglected while it was being written"; and it is a fit prelusive note to

all that follows. He has no glozings nor suppressions. Generous, in the main, with other sects, he deals critically and sternly with his own, and exhibits, in a style that is always vigorous and alert, the defective morality of its colonial period, its aloofness from the popular mind, its chronic weakness, its unseemly quarrels, the frequent failure of its chosen leaders to appreciate their opportunity. The book is divided into two parts, the first ending with the Revolutionary, the second with the civil war. The first is introduced by a general account of the Church's condition in the mother country and the circumstances attending the various emigrations to America. These are then taken up in turn, and the relation of the colonial Church of England to each is set forth with admirable clearness. Dr. McConnell's antithetic style is dangerous, and here and there he sacrifices truth to the antithesis. Thus of the Puritans he says: "They had come to found a State. Their ill-regulated enthusiasm changed their purpose, and they set about to found a Church." But they did found a State, and, however pragmatic its theocratic spirit, it was the norm of all our larger constitutional life. Again, "The Puritan's temper has been his bane, while the Churchman's has been his strong deliverer. The former is now only a character in history, while the latter is a present force, chiefly because, in the long run, moral qualities win over intellectual ones." To this it might be objected that the Puritan's most distinctive qualities were moral, and this Dr. McConnell seems to admit a little further on, when, after setting forth the character of the Virginian churchmen in terms of undisguised contempt, he says: "A debt which the Church owes to Puritanism on both sides of the water is the restored reputation of the ministry." As for the Puritan's being merely "a character in history," while the churchman is a "present force," it was certainly the moral temper of the Puritans and not the complacency of the churchmen which served us in the anti-slavery conflict and the civil war; and, albeit those things are historical, they are of such recent date that it is unsafe to consider the Puritan entirely obsolete. The Puritan's dogma is departing, but there are fresh examples of his spirit every day, though not so many as our business and our politics require.

The chapter on the Roman Catholic settlement of Maryland is mainly notable for its qualification of the general allowance of all the virtues of religious liberty to that settlement. So far as they went, they were personal and special, and a necessity of the immediate situation. Chap. viii. is "a general survey," and brings out with special clearness the character of the Southern clergy:

"Most of them were planters, and did priestly duty now and then to eke out their income. They hunted, played cards, drank punch and canary, turned marriages, christenings, and funerals alike into revels. One bawled out to his church-warden at the Holy Communion: 'Here, George, this bread is not fit for a dog.' One fought a duel in his graveyard. Another, a powerful fellow, thrashed his vestrymen one by one, and the following Sunday preached before them from the text: 'And I contended with them, and cursed them, and smote certain of them, and plucked off their hair.' Another dined every Sunday with his chief parishioner, and was sent home in the evening drunk, tied in his chaise." (P. 90.)

The same aspects are still further developed in the instructions to the preachers sent out by the Society (p. 90), and in the chapters on the work of the commissaries sent out by the Bishop of London to superintend the Colonial Church. Swearing, drunkenness, and fighting seem to have been the order of the day. Coming northward, things were much improved. There is an interesting chapter on President Cutler of Yale and the other New England converts. Immediately after the unvarnished tale of clerical drunkards and brawlers in Virginia and Maryland, as we read of the "deep sense of the very reality of priestly acts," it is difficult to resist a smile, and we wonder a little at Dr. McConnell's own confidence in the "power as an apostolic church to confer a valid commission upon men to preach the divine word and administer the awful sacraments." This confidence, the best possession (to our author's thinking) of the modern Church, he credits to the New England converts. The chapter on the "Great Awakening" suffers from the necessity for condensation. Quite an erroneous impression is given of the causes which led to Jonathan Edwards's separation from his Northampton congregation. In this connection Dr. McConnell brings out in bold relief his own idea of the true function of the Church as a school of morals, in contradistinction to the Edwardsian ideal, which, in spite of his immediate failure, has dominated Congregationalism from his time to ours, viz., a congregation of self-conscious saints.

In the chapter on the Scotch-Irish, Dr. McConnell increases our wonder at his confidence in the divine authority of his Church, for he quotes with approval and amplification Hallam's terrible indictment of the Church of the later Stuarts. The ritualism of the Oxford Methodists is insisted on, but due credit is given to the Moravian impulse to Wesley's thought. There is no sufficient indication of the makeshift character of Wesley's organization. Dr. McConnell is not confident that any amount of wisdom and discretion could have held the American Methodists to the Episcopal Church. If it had, their increase would not have been as now, or the Church would have been profoundly modified. We cannot follow Dr. McConnell into his recitation of the Church's trouble in search of a bishop before or after the War of Independence, though it is full of interest. After the war we have the interesting spectacle of Bishop Seabury of Connecticut, who had got a left-handed Scotch ordination, exercising his office for the remainder of his life while still in receipt of half-pay as a Tory chaplain in the British Army. In the struggle for a new organization, Seabury and his New England friends represented the High Church tendency. Personally, he is more attractive than either Provoost or White, the patriot bishops. But, all around, a modern political party zealous for unity might sit at the feet of these men and learn of them lessons in opportunism.

The colonial clergy of the Church nowhere make a better appearance than in the Revolutionary war. This was their martyr age, and they bore their disabilities and sufferings often in a manly fashion. Dr. McConnell extracts a partial list of these from Sabine's 'Loyalists.' At the same time he makes large claims for the Church in the patriot army and Congress. We read that "Franklin was a churchman, so far as he had any religion at all." This is ingenious and absurd. The chapter "Structural Development" ends with the following free-and-easy estimate of the Thirty-nine Articles:

"They were ordered to be bound up with the Prayer-Book in all future editions. No formal subscription to them was prescribed. There they have stood since. What binding force upon belief they may carry, each decides for himself. They are a section of sixteenth-century thought transferred to the nineteenth. They have never exercised any appreciable influence upon the life or belief of this Church. Like all contemporary confessions, they have largely ceased to be intelligible. They are a water-mark of a previous tide. The current of the Church has flowed on unmindful of them. The last revision of the Prayer-Book provides for their being bound up next its cover; the next will probably bind them outside."

In the concluding chapters there is much interesting matter. The climax of the comical is reached in Bishop Provoost's resumption of the episcopate after ten years' neglect of church-going and the Holy Communion. A very dreary period followed the democratic triumph at the beginning of the century. The Oxford movement is treated in a brilliant chapter, with critical and judicious admiration; and its influence and that of Newman's "perversion" to Rome on the American Church are measured carefully. The treatment of Dr. Muhlenberg and his "Memorial" for an emancipated bishopric, a discretionary liturgy, and a lay diaconate, is wholly sympathetic. The remaining chapters treat of the Church in the civil war in a manner somewhat more timid and apologetic than the author's wont. Much is made of the Church's formal adhesion to the Union in certain resolutions, but the absence from these of any reference to slavery prepares us for the overwhelming defeat, in the first General Convention after the war, of Horace Binney's amendment expressing gratitude "for the removal of the great occasion of national dissension and estrangement, to which our late troubles were due." No action could have been more fit.

Could Dr. McConnell have continued his history for a quarter of a century, he might have told a more inspiriting and gladdening tale. As it is, he seems to say, "If you would be proud of your future, you must be better than your past." His own position as a churchman is interesting and significant. It reminds us of the Irishman who was "for the law, but ag'in' its enforcement." His Church theory is very high—the Church is not of man, but of God; her preachers speak His voice. Practically, he is for the most liberal construction of the Church's offices, and for breaking down the partitions that divide the sects. The theory and practice do not seem to be in full accord.

Through Abyssinia: An Envoy's Ride to the King of Zion. By F. Harrison Smith, R. N. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1890. 8vo, pp. 271. Illustrated.

THE author of this work was sent by the British Government to Abyssinia in 1886 to present a sword to King John, as a reward for his services in rescuing several of the Egyptian garrisons confined in the Sudan. He has apparently taken his official journal and added to it some introductory chapters giving an account of his journey to Massowah, his point of departure from the coast. These are pleasantly written, though containing too many trivial details and unsuccessful attempts at humor. The most interesting part is naturally that which relates to his interviews with King John, whose tragic death a year ago had such an important effect upon the fortunes of his country. The envoy was received in a hut constructed of light poles, interlaced with twigs in basket-work fashion and covered with thatch. "An inner circle of poles, in open order, supported the roof." The King, a man of about fifty, though "his lithe frame, keen eye, and quick, intelligent expression are more those of a man twenty years younger," received him graciously. This was shown as much by the manner in which he wore his shawl as by what he said.

"This garment is made the medium for the expression of many grades and degrees of sentiment. Frigid reserve, antagonistic feelings or intentions, an overwhelming superiority, are

manifested by the shawl being drawn tight across the face just below the eyes, and so hiding nose, mouth, and chin. As these feelings are lessened, or supplanted by opposite ones, so the shawl is lowered, more or less; complete cordiality, confidence, and 'hail fellow, well met,' being expressed by the shawl lying in folds around the waist, as the dignitary sits Turkish fashion on his divan. In this way did the King receive me, and I knew at once that however difficult might be questions which he had determined to discuss with me, they would be free from any personal animosity, so far as I was concerned."

The courage and determination of the author were well displayed in the following incident: On the eve of his departure from the royal camp he discovered a mistake in the King's letter acknowledging the sword, to correct which his personal sanction was necessary. Admittance to the King's enclosure being refused,

"I endeavored, unsuccessfully, to throw back the wooden bolt by putting my arm through the openings in the gate. Tae chiefs who were assembled in the outer courtyard said that the King was asleep, that he was ill, having fallen from his horse, that it was Sunday, etc. Finding that they would not admit me, and feeling certain of a welcome from the King, I unbuckled my sword, and, tossing it to my weeping interpreter, I scaled the gate and sat on the top. At this the crowd of some two hundred people whom my appearance had attracted, took fright for themselves and fled down the hillside, fully expecting the King to come out and issue orders for a general massacre. Young Kassa, of all my own people, alone stood firm and calm. Looking down from the top of the gate upon the chiefs inside the stockade, I informed them that it was my intention to remain where I was, if I remained all night, till they told the King that I had important things to say to him."

Mr. Smith's persistence finally conquered, and the King, being informed of his presence, immediately ordered him to be admitted, and the matter was satisfactorily settled.

On the return journey Mr. Smith visited a new palace, in the style of an old English church with castellated turrets at either end, which the King had ordered to be built "to perpetuate his name." Although the author hopes "that this fine building will induce the Abyssinians to improve their architecture and style of living generally," one cannot help feeling that the home of a native in the same village was far more attractive. It was "a fine large hut, with a lofty dome-shaped roof beautifully thatched, and ornamented with ropes covered in red, white, and blue material."

It is to be regretted, considering the present interest in Abyssinia with relation to the Italian protectorate, that Mr. Smith has given so little information about the condition and prospects of the country. It is very evident, however, that, if a market could be found for grain and other agricultural products, the prosperity of the country would be greatly increased, since the quality of the soil and the varying altitudes permit of every conceivable vegetable growth. To the people our author gives a favorable character, especially for cheerful behavior under trying circumstances, and also for honesty, which is not generally regarded as a prominent Abyssinian virtue. But, says Mr. Smith, "out of about £300 worth of camp and transport gear, I only really lost about seven shillings' worth during the whole of my march." The only coin which is current is the Maria Theresa dollar of 1780, still coined annually by the thousands for use in Abyssinia. As in other parts of northern Africa, the natives are careful only to take those bearing certain marks, as, "the letters S F. under the head," and "eight dots or mustard seeds on the coronet."

In the appendices are given the author's routes, together with a sketch-map and a short glossary.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. Wednesday the Tenth. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Aurand, C. M. Rays of Light. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.
Buchheim, C. A. Schiller's Jungfrau von Orleans. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Cambridge, Ada. A Marked Man. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Carey, Rosa Nouchette. Lover or Friend? John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Chopin Kate. At Fault: A Novel. St. Louis: Nixon-Jones Printing Co.
Coolidge, Susan. The Day's Message. Roberts Bros. $1.
Colman, Mrs. Lucy N. Reminiscences. Buffalo: H. L. Green. $1.
Connelly, J. H. Nella Sen. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Crawford, F. M. A Cigarette-Maker's Romance. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Davis, Harriet Riddle. Gilbert Edgar's Son. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Dawson, W. J. The Makers of Modern English. T. Whittaker. $1.75.
De'and, Mrs. Margaret. Sidney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Dos Passos, B. F. The Law of Collateral Inheritance, Legacy and Succession Taxes. L. K. Strouse & Co.
Earle, Anne Richardson. Her Great Ambition. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
French, H. W. Out of the Night. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Frederick, H. In the Valley. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Hawthorne, N. Our Old Home. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Heyse, P. The Children of the World. Worthington Co.
Hosmer, J. K. A Short History of Anglo-Saxon Freedom. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Inglelow, Jean. Quite Another Story. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Literary Gems: Sonnets from the Portuguese—Nibelungen Lied—School for Scandal—Science of History—King of the Golden River—Nothing to Wear. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
Lockwood, H. C. Constitutional History of France. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $2.50.
Lowe, C. M., and Butler, N., jr. Bellum Helvetium. Chicago: Albert & Scott. $1.
Macy, J. Our Government. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Manual of Religious Instruction. Doctrinal Series III. The New-Church Board of Publication. 50 cents.
Mason, E. C. The Veto Power. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Meyer, C. F. The Tempting of Pescara. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.
Modern Ghosts. Harper & Bros.
More, P. E. Helena. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Morton, S. S. At the Dawning. Philadelphia: Keystone Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Nelson, H. L. Bird-Songs about Worcester. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Newton, T. The Complete Poetical Works of Milton. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co. $15.
Oliphant, M. O. W. Kirsteen. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Our New England. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Parkes, K. The Painter Poets. London: Walter Scott.
Parr, Louisa. Dumps. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Peck, H. T. Latin Pronunciation. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Peet, S. D. Prehistoric America. Vol. II. Chicago: American Antiquarian Office.
Perry, Nora. Another Flock of Girls. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Pelzler, J. Life in Utopia. London: Authors' Co-operative Publishing Co.
Pratt, Mara S. Drills, Pantomimes, and Motion Songs. Boston: Educational Publishing Co.
Tolstoi, L. Labor. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Tolstoi, L. Labor: the Divine Command. The Pollard Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Tolstoi, L. Toil. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. 50 cents.
Van Dyke, T. S. Millionaires of a Day. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Vincent, M. R. Word Studies in the New Testament. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.
Vinton, A. D. Looking Further Backward. Albany: Albany Book Co. $1.
Warden, Florence. City and Suburban. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Wentworth, W. The Drifting Island. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Werner, E. His Word of Honor. Street & Smith. 50 cents.
Wiechmann, F. G. Sugar Analysis. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Williams, R. O. Our Dictionaries, and Other English-Language Topics. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Wolff, J. The Robber Count. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Woodberry, G. E. Studies in Letters and Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wood, H. F. The Night of the 3d ult. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Woodhull, A. A. Notes on Military Hygiene. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Woodward, B. W. Old Wine in New Bottles. Lawrence, Kan.: *Journal* Publishing Co.
Wright, W. Lectures on the Comparative Grammar of the Semitic Languages. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.

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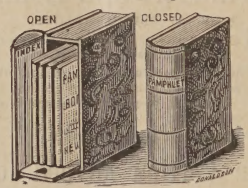

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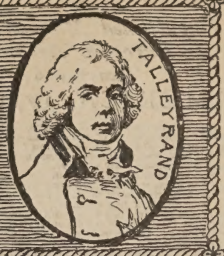

The Century Magazine in 1891.

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The November Number,

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 30, 1890.

The Week.

THE difference of opinion among the Republican chiefs concerning the comparative merits of cheapness and dearness still continues. Mr. Cabot Lodge denounced cheapness again on October 22 at Medford (Mass.), and repeated that it made "cheap men and women," and "this was not a cheap country"; but he also credited the McKinley Bill with having made "reductions in articles of general consumption," and had the audacity to say that "the duty on hides from which boots and shoes are made had been reduced," the fact being that there has been no duty on hides for many years. It may be well to pass lightly over the Scholar's unscrupulousness of statement of which this is an example, but why does not some one in his audiences ask him to explain his contradictions and incoherences? Why does it make cheap men and women to wear cheap clothing, and not make them cheap to eat cheap food? Why does he boast of the cheapness of "articles of general consumption" and boast of the dearness of woollen coats and trousers? Is it possible that wearing a cheap coat for a year cheapens a man as much as eating cheap bread and potatoes and sugar? The Democrats in Massachusetts make a great mistake in not getting some competent man to follow the Scholar around the State, and "heckle" him, as the Scotch say—that is, get up when his speech is ended and "corner" or expose him by questions. He might in this way be reduced to a very gelatinous moral and mental condition after every one of his discourses until he became more cautious. He inserted, also, in his Medford speech a piece of cheap demagogy, which revealed fully his own cheapness of character, in the shape of a fling at the people who "drink French champagne, and smoke imported cigars, and wear English clothes" (he is one of them himself), and suggested that the gentlemen "who talk about the increase of prices" oppose the bill simply because it increases the cost of their own luxuries. "If a man," said he, "isn't able to look over his own selfish interests, he isn't going to sympathize with the masses." What an unselfish, single-minded Scholar he is himself! And how fond of "the masses"!

On the other hand, Speaker Reed, in his speech at Bloomington (Ind.) the day before, denounced the shopkeepers for "raising prices," or pretending to raise them, and said:

> "Don't be scared. The shopkeepers can't take your money from you. An effort is being made to make you buy to-day instead of to-morrow. You will notice that prices have not gone up, but are always going to go up. They ask you to come in out of a wet that will never happen. [Cheers.] The people are showing a good Yankee spirit—or rather, I should say, United States spirit, for I feel that the people in the West are as sharp as the Yankees are—by using the entire Democratic press for advertising purposes."

Now, why should his audience be "scared" if dearness is a good thing? According to Lodge and McKinley, the shopkeepers in raising prices are doing the best thing possible for the character of the American people, and the Democrats in putting them up to it deserve well of their country. But it plainly appears here that Reed does not believe in dearness as a moral agent, and assures people that things will not be any dearer than they are now in consequence of his wise and judicious legislation of last winter. But here again comes another puzzle. If the McKinley Bill does not raise prices, what is the use of it? How does a bill protect if it does not push prices up? How will the manufacturer pay higher wages if he does not make the consumer pay more for his goods? Then, again, Dingley of Maine, in a recent speech of his, asserted that the McKinley Bill put more articles on the free list—that is, made a closer approximation to free trade—than the Mills Bill, and was loudly applauded by his audience; showing that he too believes in cheapness. In fact, to follow the speeches of these worthies makes one's brain reel, and makes one long to knock all their heads together, and then see if some coherent and concordant statement about the matter could be extracted from them.

Mr. Lodge is one of the discoverers of the new and remarkably *fresh* idea that New England ought to sink her own preferences regarding the duties on iron ore, pig-iron, and coal, "for the good of the whole," which means for the good of the iron-masters of Pennsylvania. You can't make a tariff for one particular section, he says; you must take in the whole country. But when he wrote his 'Life of Daniel Webster,' two or three years ago, he said that you could and ought to vote for your own section every time, and let other people look out for their own sections. He was writing about Webster's course on the "tariff of abominations," the tariff of 1828, which was not nearly so abominable as the McKinley tariff, and this is what he said:

> "It is true that his course was a sectional one, but everybody else's on this question was the same, and it could not be, it never has been, *and never will be otherwise.*" (Lodge's 'Webster,' p. 171.)

This shows how unsafe it is to indulge the spirit of prophecy. In this respect Mr. Lodge has been more unfortunate than his compeers. Historians have often fallen into error when predicting what other people would do. Mr. Lodge has blundered in predicting what he himself would do.

It is hard to keep pace with the McKinley prices. In fact, it is only now and then that we catch one of them, as it were, on the wing. A merchant sends us the circular of the American Linoleum Manufacturing Company, announcing new prices "owing to the increased cost of raw material." The old and new prices are these:

	Old price.	McKinley price.
A quality per square yard.....	$0.80	$0.85
B quality per square yard.....	.70	.75
C quality per square yard.....	.55	.62½

The old duty on linoleum was 40 per cent. The new duty is 15 cents per square yard, and 30 per cent.; *i. e.*, the advance in the cheaper grades is *intended* to be greater than in the dearer, and *is so*. Without doubt this is a part of McKinley's benevolence to the poor. It should be added that linseed oil is one of the raw materials of linoleum, perhaps the most important of all the materials, and that this was McKinleyed up seven cents per gallon after it had been "Trusted" up a great deal higher.

It would have been an outrage on religion if McKinley had overlooked the clergy in his distribution of the benefits arising from higher prices of goods. That the clergy are not exposed to the degrading consequences of cheapness is made plain by a letter which has been sent to us by a clergyman, and which was addressed to him by E. O. Thompson, Clerical Outfitter and Vestment Maker, Ecclesiastical Warerooms, 908 Walnut Street, Philadelphia. The letter was written in reply to an inquiry respecting certain goods in Mr. Thompson's line, and it begins with these words:

> "The cost of cloths and clothing *has been raised at least 25 per cent. by the passage of the McKinley Tariff Bill.*"

To speak more particularly, the duty on those cloths, which was formerly 45 cents per pound and 40 per cent. ad valorem, is now 49½ cents per pound and 60 per cent. ad valorem. In order to do full justice to religion and make a neat job of it, McKinley raised the duties on church organs and on chimes of bells from 25 per cent. to 45 per cent. All this on the theory that cheap vestments make a cheap minister, and cheap organs a cheap church, etc., etc.

When the Mills Bill was under discussion two years or more ago, Congressman Fitch of this city, in the course of his speech on that measure, read a letter from a physician attached to one of our asylums complaining of the absurd and barbarous duty (45 per cent.) on microscopes. This gentleman was engaged in the study of diseases and disease germs, the microscope being a necessary tool for that work. He had sent to Jena, Germany, for an instrument costing $94 at the manufactory. On this he was required to pay duties to the amount of $42.30. Later he had occasion to order an "oil immersion lens," or microscopic objective, costing $80 at the factory, and on this he had to pay $36 to the Custom-house. This was the price charged by an enlightened Government to a man who was giving his services to an asylum gratis, and contributing as much as possible to the alleviation of pain and suffering among all his fellow-citizens by his investigations of the causes of disease.

The letter made some stir at the time, but was speedily forgotten. Now, what does the precious McKinley Bill do for microscopes? A letter from Jas. W. Queen & Co., dealers in "instruments of precision," No. 924 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, to a professor of a college in this State, tells the story:

DEAR SIR: Replying to your favor of the 13th inst., which came to hand during the absence of the writer, of a few days, we are glad to quote you a net price on the one-twelfth oil immersion [microscopic objective] that you mention, of $42. *The cost is considerably higher under the new tariff.* [This costs in Germany $25.] We think that we could let you have one of these instruments within two months. We shall be much pleased if we can give you any further information that you may desire, and hope to be favored with your order. Very truly yours,

JAS. W. QUEEN & CO.

Referring to the McKinley tariff, we find, after a good deal of searching, that the new duty on microscopes is 60 per cent., and that, like many other contemptible swindles in the bill, it is hidden under the "similitude clause." Microscopes are not mentioned in the bill at all, but they are included in a paragraph which says that non-enumerated articles shall pay the same rate of duty as the enumerated articles that they most resemble—*i. e.*, the same duty as spectacle and eye-glass lenses, which have been advanced from 45 per cent. to 60 per cent. McKinley would probably say that this was done for the benefit of people having weak eyes, in order that they might share in the advantage of high prices, as set out in his Kalamazoo speech.

Silver seems to be going down by the run. The editor of the *Silver Dollar* ought to come to New York again and look into this. In the last issue of his paper he said he had visited this city, and had discovered a conspiracy among bankers and trust companies to depress silver. He proposed as a remedy and counter-irritant that the bankers and brokers of the West and South should "withdraw their accounts from every institution in New York that has thus conspired against silver, and place their money and their business with banks and brokers friendly to silver." As he did not give the names of the conspirators, he left the bankers and brokers of the West and South in a state of mental paralysis and indecision. More singular still, he said that "the names of these trust companies, bankers, and brokers who are engaged in this conspiracy should be printed under the head of TRAITORS in every newspaper in the land." And yet he did not print them himself. Is not he guilty of misprision of treason in withholding the names of the traitors?

The Maine newspapers are naturally much interested in the recent decision by the United States District Court for Kansas that the State Prohibitory Law of Kansas is null and void as regards liquor imported in "original packages," notwithstanding the passage by Congress of the Wilson Act. The Lewiston *Journal* tries to argue that the Prohibitory Law of Maine is valid in this respect, but the Portland *Press* confesses that it cannot see why the reasoning of the decision of the Federal court in Kansas is not fatal to the Maine statute. The Supreme Court of the latter State has already decided that the Maine law could not at the time of its enactment have applied to liquors in original packages, because it was beyond the power of the State to prohibit the sale of such liquors. Congress having since that decision given permission to the States to pass laws that shall prohibit the sale of liquor in the original packages, the question, in the view of the *Press*, is, "Has this permission of itself served to convert a law which the Supreme Court of Maine has decided not to apply to imported liquors in the original packages, into a law that does apply to this class of liquors? In other words, can the mere permission of Congress to the States to pass a broader law than they had the power to pass before it was given, broaden an existing law passed before that permission was given?" The *Press* cannot detect any flaw in the logic by which Judges Foster and Phillips in their recent decision held that it cannot, and, therefore, concludes that "the only way under the sun by which our Prohibitory Law can be made to apply to imported liquors in the original package is by its re-enactment by the Legislature."

Senator Edmunds so seldom expresses a public opinion upon current issues outside the Capitol that his emphatic remarks regarding the "original-package" question at Montpelier last week are of especial significance. The occasion was the annual meeting of the Vermont Bar Association, and the President of that body had requested the Senator to give his views on national legislation as affecting the rights of the States. Mr. Edmunds spoke briefly, but forcibly. After expressing his satisfaction that the subject had been brought up, he said: "It has been a hundred years since the National Government was formed out of the States and by the States, and for the first time in that one hundred years has risen a question as to the extent and scope of the functions that the States have hitherto exercised, and without the preservation of which the Union could not have been formed, for not a single State would have gone into it. We are told now that if the principle is carried out, it is not possible for a State without the consent of Congress (and how Congress ever got the power, except in the several instances named in the Constitution, I am unable to say)—that a State cannot without the consent of Congress regulate its own internal affairs. I don't believe that sort of doctrine is going to stand review in the courts." He proceeded to declare his conviction that "the people of the States should have the charge of the preservation of their own autonomy, whether it relates to traffic in drugs, dynamite, or intoxicating liquors. Whatever restraints and regulations each State chooses to exercise, it is as indispensable, I think, for the safety of the nation as it is for the safety of each State, that each State regulate for itself in relation to such matters; each State must govern itself, and must have its own different policies and social institutions; each should have the inherent right to take care of itself in respect of such regulations. But, after all," he added, "we need not give ourselves any great uneasiness. Though the Supreme Court has, in this respect, in my opinion, invaded the rights of the States, they are liable to review and revise their action, as they have often done before, and very wisely too."

The recent controversy over the color-line in Texas is of interest throughout the country. The Houston and Texas Central Railroad began to employ black men in various departments of its service. Some of the white employees struck, and S. E. Wilkinson, Grand Master of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, in their behalf, applied to Mr. Dillingham, the receiver of the road, for the discharge of the blacks. Mr. Dillingham flatly refused to comply with the demand. "The colored men," he said, "have rendered faithful and efficient service, and I feel it would be unjust to them, as it would to any other person, to turn them out simply to put others in their places." The question was finally carried before the Supreme Council of the Federation, and that body decided that Mr. Dillingham was right. A noteworthy feature of the incident is the fact that Mr. Wilkinson is a Republican and a Grand Army man, while Mr. Dillingham was a Confederate and is a Democrat.

The outbreak of the Mafia in New Orleans lends interest to the statement as to immigration just published by the Bureau of Statistics. During the month of September, 1890, the arrivals of Italians in this country numbered 3,205, against only 1,776 in September, 1889; and during the nine months ending with September 30 the immigrants from that land aggregated no fewer than 46,748, against but 20,118 in the corresponding period of last year. Hardly less desirable than the Italians are the Poles, who are now coming very rapidly, the arrivals from January 1 to September 30 being 14,821, against only 3,887 in the same months of 1889; the Hungarians, 17,777 this year, against 10,111 during the same months of last year; the Bohemians, for whom the figures are 5,424 and 2,070; and the Russians, 32,360 in the first nine months of 1890, against 27,240 in the same months of 1889. Here is a total in three-quarters of a year of 117,130 immigrants from the most backward nations of Europe, by far the larger part of whom represent the most ignorant, if not also the most depraved, class of their populations. How much such stuff as this can the national stomach digest without permanent harm?

No tributes to the character of the late Justice Miller of the United States Supreme Court are more significant or gratifying than those which come from the Democratic press of the South. He was an earnest Republican from the origin of that party until the day of his death, and is re-

ported to have said two or three years ago that he was praying that he might live until a Republican President could appoint his successor. Yet he never hesitated to take issue with a fundamental feature of Republican policy, and more than once, as in the case of the decision annulling the Civil-Rights Act for unconstitutionality, threw the whole weight of his great influence against measures carried through Congress by his party. His arguments in such cases were so unanswerable that the Republican leaders, whose policy he had helped to overthrow, could not gainsay them, while the impartiality which his course evinced commanded the hearty endorsement of the Democrats. Happily, during his last years he received abundant evidence of the high esteem in which he was held by his fellow-citizens of both parties in all parts of the country.

The eminence of Justice Miller emphasizes the importance of the duty laid upon the President by his death. The appointment of a Judge of the highest Court is always a great responsibility, but it seems the more serious when the place to which he succeeds has been filled for nearly a generation by one of the greatest ornaments of our judicial system. The story is current that President Harrison wishes to give the office to his old law partner, Attorney-General Miller. He was credited with the same disposition at the time of Justice Matthews's death last year, but the protests of Republican newspapers were so numerous and earnest that he was dissuaded from the plan of putting so commonplace a person on the bench. We are glad to see that protests of the same sort are again made. The Philadelphia *Bulletin*, for example, says: "Harrison's judgment in such matters is entitled to a good deal of respect; but in view of the fact that the Attorney General's reputation as a lawyer was limited at the time of his entrance into the Cabinet, and that he has had no opportunity whatever for performing any service that would enable his countrymen to form an estimate of his capacity, it is certain that his nomination at this time would not command popular approval, and might encounter serious opposition in the Senate."

The loss of the Eccles election in England by the Tories, who have held the constituency firmly since Mr. Gladstone took up the Irish Home Rule, after four years' observation of the Balfour experiment in Ireland, and in particular with the Tipperary trials fresh in the minds of the voters, is a crushing blow for the Ministry, and may hasten a dissolution. Nothing has more clearly brought out the nature of their experiment than these Tipperary trials. The men who constitute the court which was to try Dillon and O'Brien are removable magistrates chosen from one class of the community, and generally ill-educated men who have failed in life. They are not simply committing magistrates either, who conduct preliminary examinations. They are judge and jury all in one, who try and condemn to ignominious punishments public men for words spoken on the platform. Moreover, before conducting these trials they head the police who disperse the meetings at which the words are spoken. One of them, named Shannon, who sits in the Tipperary case, not only is a violent partisan, but has had a personal row with Dillon, and led the police in an attack on a meeting at which Dillon spoke. His presence on the bench under these circumstances was naturally objected to by the defendants, but he refused to withdraw, and is sustained in his refusal by the Government and the English Tory press. It is very much—but much worse—as if Inspector Byrnes, after dispersing a labor meeting, and having a hand-to-hand fight with the orators, were then to open court and try them himself for language inciting to violence, and sentence them to the penitentiary. As an illustration of the way in which this sort of thing weakens all over the country the traditional respect for the principles of free government, the *Saturday Review*, endorsing Shannon, says the reason the defendants objected to being tried by him was "that he knew too much about their guilt."

The grand manœuvres of the troops in the North of France this fall have raised some very curious and important questions in military science. The use of the smokeless powder deprives strategists in a great measure of one of the chief means of determining an enemy's position. In this respect it carries back the art of war towards the primitive times when men fought with arrows. Many things that lately were comparatively of but little importance in attracting the enemy's attention must now be looked after and avoided. Some discussion is now going on about uniforms: for example, Does the color red more than others catch the eye at a considerable distance, as has been believed? Late experience seems to show that either very light or very dark colors are more easily seen than red in such a case. In the French manœuvres often the battalions of chasseurs could be made out when infantry could not; and the busts of the men clad in their dark jackets were discernible when their heads and legs could not be seen. This, of course, was at great distances; below 1,000 or 1,500 metres it made little difference. Still, since battles are likely more and more to be fought at long range, red uniforms may be found to possess some advantages. In our civil war the red trousers of the Zouaves were, we believe, looked on with disfavor as offering too good a target for the enemy, and also as inducing him to aim lower, and so avoid overshooting. But this was at rather close quarters. More than of anything else soldiers are likely to learn to rid themselves of everything white and of everything that glitters. Often in the Nord a sparkling line could be made out in the distance where nothing else could be distinguished. This was caused by the flashing of officers' sabres; and from their number and disposition a very good guess could be made as to the importance of the opposing force. Sabres and bayonets will have to be bronzed in future, as well as camp utensils; tents, also, must be no longer white, nor the men's havelocks, nor officers' pugarees. Apropos of these questions, which the *Temps* has been discussing, a correspondent writes to it to point out that it was precisely because its color attracted less attention, even under the shining skies of Italy, that Garibaldi chose the red shirt for a uniform for himself and his men.

It is no secret that, ever since 1864, the chief desire of all good Danes has been to regain possession of the northern portion of Schleswig, which, in spite of Germany's determined efforts, has remained true to the mother country. Southern Jutland, as the Danes persist in calling it, is as dissatisfied under German rule as Alsace and Lorraine. During his visit to Fredensborg this summer, it is reported that the Kaiser referred with regret in a conversation with the King to his unpopularity in Denmark, whereupon the King frankly stated its chief cause, and said that the Kaiser would win the gratitude of a whole people by returning the Danish portion of Schleswig. The Kaiser replied that the annexation had occurred during his childhood, and that besides nothing could be done without the consent of the Reichstag. That Germany would voluntarily surrender one of her richest provinces is, of course, out of the question, and therefore a year ago the Danish Government formed a plan for its recovery by barter. The Danish Minister at St. James was instructed to treat with England for the exchange of the Danish West Indies for Heligoland, which in turn was to be made the price for Southern Jutland. The negotiations fell through, in consequence, it is said, of the Minister's procrastination, and, as is known, Germany received the coveted little island directly from England.

The truth of this rumor rests upon the sudden recall of the Minister for no apparent cause, after a service extending over many years, and upon the fact that it emanated from the *Berlingske Tidende*, the Government organ, whose statements are almost invariably to be depended upon. The nature of the islands, too, and the advantage to England of their acquisition, lend it additional color. The islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, forming the Danish possessions in the West Indies, have a total area of 118 square miles, and a population, according to the census of 1880, of 33,763. Their exports to Denmark in 1887 amounted to 317,000 kr. (say $85,600), and to the United Kingdom £24,660 (say $135,000), while their imports in the same year from the latter amounted to more than $500,000. The exports consist of unrefined sugar and the imports of coal and cotton goods. The islands are admirably governed, and in point of order and prosperity are in marked contrast to many of their neighbors. Their situation with respect to the English islands of Antigua, St. Kitts, and Jamaica would make them of special value to England, and that country would no doubt regard their acquisition as a decided advantage both commercially and politically, for which Heligoland would seem but a very small price.

THE NORTH IN THE CENSUS.

THE population of each of the Northern States and Territories has been given out by the Census Office. The figures announced are subject to revision, but unless some extensive recounts are ordered it is not likely that they will be substantially changed. The following table gives the population in 1890 and 1880 of each of the Northern States and Territories, with the increase and decrease and the percentage of increase or decrease:

State or Territory.	Population, 1890.	Population, 1880.	Increase.	Percentage of inc.
Arizona.....	59,691	40,440	19,251	47.60
California....	1,204,002	864,694	339,308	39.24
Colorado.....	410,975	194,327	216,648	111.48
Connecticut..	745,861	622,700	123,161	19.78
Idaho.....	84,229	32,610	51,619	158.29
Illinois.....	3,818,536	3,077,871	740,665	24.06
Indiana.....	2,189,030	1,978,301	210,729	10.65
Iowa.....	1,906,729	1,624,615	282,114	17.36
Kansas.....	1,423,485	996,096	427,389	42.91
Maine.....	660,261	648,936	11,325	1.75
Massachusetts	2,238,407	1,783,085	450,322	25.26
Michigan.....	2,089,792	1,636,937	452,855	27.66
Minnesota ...	1,300,017	780,773	519,244	66.50
Montana.....	131,769	39,159	92,610	236.50
Nebraska....	1,056,793	452,402	604,391	133.59
Nevada.....	44,327	62,266	*17,939	*28.81
N. Hampshire	375,827	346,991	28,836	8.31
New Jersey..	1,441,017	1,131,116	309,901	27.40
New Mexico.	144,862	119,565	25,297	21.16
New York...	5,981,934	5,082,871	899,063	17.69
North Dakota	182,425	36,909	145,516	394.26
Ohio.....	3,666,719	3,198,062	468,657	14.65
Oklahoma ...	61,701			
Oregon.....	312,490	174,768	137,722	78.80
Pennsylvania	5,248,574	4,282,891	965,683	22.55
Rhode Island	345,343	276,531	68,812	24.89
South Dakota	327,848	98,268	229,580	233.63
Utah.....	206,492	143,963	62,529	45.44
Vermont.....	332,205	332,286	*81	*0.02
Washington..	349,516	75,116	274,400	365.30
Wisconsin ...	1,683,467	1,315,497	367,970	27.97
Wyoming....	60,589	20,789	39,800	191.45

It appears that there has been an increase in every Northern State and Territory except Vermont and Nevada. In the former the decrease is almost inappreciable, but in the latter it amounted to 28.81 per cent. of the whole population. Nevada, which has been a State more than a quarter of a century, has to-day fewer inhabitants than any other State or Territory in the Union. It has one United States Senator for every 22,164 persons, and New York one for every 2,990,967. The absolute increase has been greatest in Pennsylvania, which, during the last decade, as well as during the two which preceded it, has grown more rapidly than New York. After Pennsylvania come New York, Illinois, and Nebraska in the order named. The largest percentage of increase is shown by North Dakota, which is followed by Washington, Montana, and South Dakota.

While the absolute increase in the North as a whole has been greater than during any previous decade, its percentage of increase has been less, falling below even that of the war decade of 1860 to 1870. The following table will show the population of the North at each census, the increase during the decade, the percentage of increase in the North, and the percentage of increase in the country as a whole:

Census.	Population of North.	Inc. during decade.	Percent. of inc. of North.	Percent. of inc. of country.
1890....	40,079,913	8,609,078	27.36	*24.94
1880....	31,470,835	6,921,777	28.19	30.07
1870....	24,549,056	5,421,108	28.34	22.63
1860....	19,127,948	5,600,728	41.41	35.58
1850....	13,527,220	3,798,298	39.04	35.87
1840....	9,728,922	2,716,523	38.74	32.67
1830....	7,012,399	1,863,376	36.19	33.55
1820....	5,149,023	1,390,024	36.98	33.07
1810....	3,758,999	1,072,417	39.92	36.38
1800....	2,686,582	718,542	36.52	35.10
1790....	1,968,040			

"North" in the above table is, of course, used in a political and social rather than in a strictly geographical sense, and includes all the country except the sixteen former slave States and the District of Columbia.

During the past decade the foreign immigration has amounted to 5,245,530. The census of 1880 showed that more than nine-tenths of the entire foreign-born population then in the country resided in the Northern States and Territories. There has probably been little, if any, change in this respect in the last decade. It may therefore be assumed that the North between 1880 and 1890 gained from immigration about 4,700,000 inhabitants, or 15 per cent. of its population in 1880. If such be the case, the gain from natural causes cannot have exceeded 12½ per cent., and the ratio of natural increase throughout the North as a whole has now fallen below that of Great Britain, in which the statistics of births and deaths show that the rate of natural increase is about 14¼ per cent. per decade.

With the single apparent exception of the decade from 1870 to 1880, the North has increased at a more rapid rate than the country as a whole. We say apparent exception, because there is little doubt that much of the increase in the population of the South revealed by the tenth census was due to the defective enumeration of the population of that section in 1870.

For the purpose of studying in detail the growth of the North at different periods of our national life, it will be found convenient to divide the States and Territories making up that section into five groups. The first of these includes the New England States; the second the Middle States of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; the third the five States, viz., Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, which have been formed out of the old Territory northwest of the Ohio River. This third group of States we may call the Northern Central. The fourth group is composed of the States, and the Territory of Oklahoma, lying west of the Mississippi and east of the Rocky Mountains. These States, viz., Iowa, Minnesota, the Dakotas, Nebraska, and Kansas, and the Territory of Oklahoma, are all predominantly agricultural. We may call them the Northwestern States. The fifth and last group includes all the States and Territories of the Rocky Mountains, the Great Basin, and the Pacific Coast. The following table will show the percentage of the entire population of the North residing at the date of each census in each one of these five groups as above defined:

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION OF THE NORTH RESIDING AT EACH CENSUS IN EACH SECTION OF THE NORTH.

Census.	New England States.	Middle States.	Northern Central States.	Northwestern States.	Pacific and Mountain States.
1890.....	11.71	31.61	33.55	15.62	7.51
1880.....	12.74	33.36	35.61	12.67	5.62
1870.....	14.21	35.89	37.17	8.70	4.03
1860.....	16.39	39.00	36.21	5.16	3.24
1850.....	20.17	43.61	33.44	1.47	1.32
1840.....	22.93	46.52	30.06	.44	
1830.....	27.88	51.16	20.96		
1820.....	32.23	52.38	15.39		
1810.....	39.16	53.60	7.24		
1800.....	45.89	52.21	1.90		
1790.....	51.29	48.71			

At the first census the New England States, the first of the Northern States settled by Englishmen, still contained more than half of the entire population of the North. There were already some few settlers on the right bank of the Ohio and clustered around the old French forts and trading posts in the Illinois country, but they do not figure in the census of 1790. At that time the New England and the Middle States together with the South made up the United States. The rapid settlement of the back country of Pennsylvania and New York (the latter largely peopled by New Englanders) by the time the second census was taken, deprived the older group of States of their supremacy in point of numbers, the plurality passing to the Middle States and remaining with them for seventy years, when it followed the course of empire westward, and has since been held by the States of the Northern Central group. For four decades, from 1800 to 1840, the Middle States had within their borders more than half the population of the entire North. By 1840 the growth of the trans-Allegheny States had been so great that their population, together with that of the New England States, outnumbered the inhabitants of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. It does not seem at all likely that any one of the groups will ever again contain more people than all the others combined. The New England States had their maximum percentage of the total population of the North in 1790, the Middle States in 1810, and the Northern Central States in 1870. Since these respective dates these groups have steadily lost ground in percentage of the entire population. For the last twenty years it has been the two

*Decrease.

*Percentage of increase in 169 supervisors' districts. Six districts estimated.

groups west of the Mississippi which have been gaining at the expense of the other three. Almost a quarter of the entire population of the North now live west of that river, beyond which as late as half-a-century ago not one-half of one per cent. of the inhabitants could be found.

WOMEN IN MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS.

THE refusal of the audience at the County Democracy meeting held to ratify the municipal nominations, to listen to a speech on the tariff, was one of the good signs of the times. Another and better one is the open published participation in the canvass of a considerable number of women known for their activity in the field of good works. These signs are good because they indicate the gradual disappearance of the notion that municipal administration must necessarily be party administration, and that no one can make himself heard on municipal questions without being justly accused of "mixing himself up in politics." We cannot have a good city government until this notion is destroyed. It is the great buttress of our local corruption. It will be observed that all corruptionists studiously keep it alive as an essential to the permanence and success of their business. They want to keep the city revenues as stakes to be played for exclusively by professionals, and therefore treat all comments on the game by outsiders as a gross impertinence, especially if the outsiders should happen, as in the case of clergymen or women, to be persons who usually are occupied mainly with the moral aspect of affairs.

As a matter of fact, the interest of women in municipal reform is much greater than that of the men. They may be truly said to be the only portion of our population who have not lost that sound tradition of municipal government which makes the condition of the city the first and great concern of the inhabitants as voters. To women far more than to most men, the objects of municipal administration, the condition of the streets, of the sewers, of the school-houses, of the hospitals and almshouses, and of the police, are of daily and absorbing interest. Whatever improvement has taken place in the condition of Bellevue Hospital, for example, and of the hospitals on Blackwell's and Hart's Islands during the past twenty years—and it is very great—has, as a rule, been due to women's initiative and labors. No more destructive attacks on municipal abuses, in one particular neighborhood, have been made during the past four or five years, than those of an association of ladies, mainly Jewish, up town, known as the "East Side Association." Everything that concerns health and concerns education occupies the minds of women ten times more than it occupies the minds of their husbands and fathers. Their standards of administrative efficiency, too, are 50 per cent. higher than those of men. That remarkable case of municipal maladministration—the appointment of "Fatty" Walsh to be Warden of the Tombs—could not possibly have been perpetrated by women; it *was* perpetrated by highly respectable men. There is, we are sure, no woman of respectable character or fair intelligence in this city who would not have been shocked by it had it been proposed to her. She would have felt it in the very marrow of her bones as a discredit to American civilization, and have felt even still more its gross inhumanity. Women really bring to the consideration of municipal questions a loftiness of ideal and a readiness to take some action about abuses, which is only found in an occasional business man.

This is mainly due to the absorbing influence on men of professional and business pursuits. Ninety-nine men out of a hundred in this city to-day start in life with the idea that unless they make a good deal of money, the world will consider their lives a failure, and in order to achieve this sort of success, therefore, it is human and natural that they should be ready to put aside all other concerns. On this fact Tammany builds most of its arrangements, and has always done so. And these arrangements are so perfect that after "the Organization" has secured one term of power, the difficulty of arousing the male portion of the community against it is very great, as we have seen during the past two years in the present case. One of the first things Tammany sets about when it gets into office—after settling the division of the spoils of office—is the deadening of the public conscience. The lawyers—not, with some distinguished exceptions, by any means a public-spirited body in these days, we are sorry to say—it subdues through a corrupt judge or two, through the Sheriff's and Register's and County Clerk's offices. The leaders of the profession it soothes or blinds by all sorts of civilities; the juniors it terrifies by threatening to make their nascent practice tedious or costly. Some of the younger simpletons it seduces by small offices which appear to be the opening of a glorious political career. The rich of the business world, whom its scandals would otherwise disgust, it placates through low assessments and great obsequiousness. It secures the silence or condonation or incredulity of a portion of the press through business favors, or a personal acquaintance with the publishers, or the judicious distribution of little spoils among the reporters and contributors.

In one way or another, in short, Tammany is always, by a year's tenure of office, able to create and diffuse as many strong presumptions in its favor as will give an air of expert knowledge to the poor devils whom it picks up for office among the liquor-dealers, and pugilists, and loafers, so that any small political adventurer, however ignorant or corrupt, may rise up before the astonished community as an authority on paving, or draining, or sanitary matters, or general municipal administration. We have at this moment a Commissioner of Public Works whose sole preparation for the place was service as a clerk in a justice's court and in the County Clerk's office; a Mayor who got ready for his place in "road-houses" and on race-courses; a Deputy Commissioner of Public Works who got ready for his duties by keeping a "dive," and so on nearly through the whole list. *Men* get reconciled to these things very easily, as we know through actual experience; women do not; and let us add that, in our belief, if women's attention were directed to municipal matters, if they made a study of municipal administration, as part and parcel of the means of home comfort and safety, men could not get reconciled so easily. The indifferent, or despondent, or mocking view of attempts at municipal reform would soon cease. Young men of intelligence would not, as many do now, fail to register, and make a holiday of election day, to be spent in the country. The women may not know much about the tariff, or about foreign policy, or transportation, or State rights, and (let us make this concession, for argument's sake, to the opponents of women suffrage) may, owing to the distance of these subjects in their field of mental vision, be incapable of learning; but in the field of municipal government they are as competent as they are in their own kitchens or drawing-rooms. They know a "Jake" or "Mike" when they see him far better than a man does, and hate his works and ways with a sacred virulence of which most men are incapable.

At all events, nothing is to-day so important as to extend as far as possible, among all classes of the population, interest in municipal matters as really household matters. There is no mystery about them whatever, though the practical politicians try to surround them with a good deal. What the city needs is something within the meanest comprehension. Why the city cannot have what it needs is the problem with which we are now struggling. In capacity for dealing with this the educated women of the community are really as competent as the great bulk of the men. In fact, they are only surpassed in this point by the few lawyers like Mr. Scott who have made a special study of the legislation affecting the city, and have carefully watched its operation. But, more than all, they bring to the work of trying to make things better an enthusiasm and hopefulness at which New York men are disposed to sneer, but without which our Augean stables will never be cleaned out.

MUTATIS MUTANDIS.

ONE of the tales of the ingenious and inimitable Bastiat had for its moral: What we see and what we do not see. The son of Jacques Bonhomme carelessly smashes a pane of glass. The father is angry, but the sympathetic neighbors finally comfort him and themselves with the reflection that it at least gives a job to the glazier and makes trade good. The glazier mends the pane and pockets his six francs, blessing the scapegrace son. That is what we see. What we do not see is that the citizen, having spent his six francs, cannot employ the shoemaker or the carpenter, as otherwise he very likely would have done. What we see is the immediate employment of one person; what we do not see is the possible employment of other persons and the saving in wealth. This tale has long done good service in the hands

of the opponents of protectionism. What we see is the protected factory, with its hundreds of workingmen; what we do not see is the tax on every consumer in the shape of an increased price, and the waste of capital in unproductive industries.

The suddenness with which the McKinley Bill was put into operation has, for the time being, reversed the position of the story-tellers. The free-trader can now say: What we see is the increased price of many articles of consumption; what we do not see is the increase in the wages of the American laborer. What we see is the embarrassment of the importer of foreign commodities; what we do not see is the expansion of American manufactures on the basis of dear raw materials. What we see is Trusts and combinations to keep up prices; what we do not see is competition among home producers which will lower prices. What we see is the farmer paying higher prices for what he uses; what we do not see is how he is going to dispose of his surplus abroad when we refuse to take foreign commodities in exchange.

Another tale was the "Petition from the manufacturers of candles, lamps, chandeliers, reflectors, snuffers, extinguishers; and from the producers of tallow, oil, resin, alcohol, and generally of everything used for lights," that the Legislature would take measures to exclude the competition of sunlight in order that there might be an increased demand for home products. We have reversed that tale also. McKinley and his colleagues in the Legislature have excluded competition (the gifts that were more or less gratuitous), but they are greatly surprised that it has resulted in increased prices. They complain bitterly that the petitioners, after having obtained their petition, should benefit by it. But what did they expect? Did they not know that raising the duties on commodities and putting the law in operation with one week's notice placed a monopoly value on the supply of such commodities in the hands of the merchant? Can we blame the seller that he immediately raised the price of a commodity which he could not replace except at an increased price? Can the people who exclude the light of the sun complain when the price of tallow goes up?

But, leaving Bastiat, there are some more serious tales of political economy which do not need to be reversed in the telling, but which will repeat themselves with the certainty of natural law. One teaches that when you are increasing taxation, you should go slowly. An old tax to which people have adjusted themselves is often easier to bear than a new one arranged on a more scientific basis. Steps towards reforming taxes should be slow and tentative, lest existing economic arrangements be disturbed, just expectations be disappointed, and uncertainty be introduced into business affairs where certainty above all is desirable. What shall we say, then, of legislation which suddenly raises the import duties on a great variety of articles, often arbitrarily, and in many cases obscurely and indirectly, so that no one can make calculation for the future? There is a flavor of brutality about the statesmanship which will recklessly disarrange the existing order of things, and answer complaints by assuring the people that cheapness is a bad thing.

Finally, there is one tale which political economy has been repeating ever since the time of Tooke, and of which we are certainly about to have an illustration. That is, that when prices rise, the price which rises slowest and latest of all is the price of labor, viz., wages. This has been proved over and over again. To increase the prices of commodities, all the dealer has to do is to mark them up or revise his list. Of this we have had abundant examples during the past three weeks. It has not come to our ears, however, that any employer has put up the wages of his employees. Neither have we heard of any general revision of the salaries of clerks, book-keepers, and school-teachers, nor of the fees of physicians and professional men. It always requires a struggle to force up wages or to readjust fixed salaries. But every wage-earner and every salaried man is a consumer, and, while his income account remains the same, his expense account is inevitably growing larger. Neither does the dealer seem to profit. While his present stock lasts he gains, but as soon as he replenishes it, he is simply doing the same business on a scale of increased prices, that is, with an extra amount of capital needed. All these things are truisms in political economy and have been well known for many years. But it is seldom that a community has had them brought so vividly before its eyes. Every man who keeps a cash account, and every wife who keeps a careful eye on the household expenses, can see the effect of the tariff in the increased expense account on the one side and the stationary income account on the other.

THE MORMON MUDDLE IN UTAH.

SALT LAKE CITY, October 13, 1890.

THE expected has happened: the Mormon leaders have outwitted the Gentiles, and the politicians are in a quandary. The Idaho test-oath excluded from the polls the members of all organizations which enjoin polygamy as a duty and set up their own edicts as higher than the laws of the land. But it is difficult to see why the mass of the Mormons cannot now take the Idaho test-oath without fear of conviction for perjury.

After the favorite method of ecclesiastical casuists, the Mormon leaders have proved from the writings of their prophet that, under the circumstances now existing, it is profitable for the Saints to yield obedience to the powers that be, and lawful to abstain from polygamy until the truth shall have made further headway in convincing the nations. Under the present stress, President Woodruff counsels the faithful to abstain from the practice of polygamy, and the General Conference of Latter-Day Saints sustains him in his action by unanimous vote.

The reasoning is ingenious. The Lord, speaking through Joseph Smith fifty years ago, said:

"Verily, verily, I say unto you, that when I give a commandment to any of the sons of men to do a work unto my name, and those sons of men go with all their might, and with all they have, to perform that work, and cease not their diligence, and their enemies come upon them, and hinder them from performing that work; behold it behoveth me to require that work no more at the hands of those sons of men, but to accept of their offerings."

It is on this basis, according to George Q. Cannon, that "President Woodruff has felt himself justified in issuing this manifesto." And Woodruff himself justifies his conduct by numerous precedents:

"The Lord required us to build a temple in Jackson County. We were prevented by violence from doing it. . . . A great many things have been required of us, and we have not been able to do them, because of those that surrounded us in the world. . . . The Lord does not require at our hands that we cannot do."

Such were the specious arguments by which the Conference of Latter-Day Saints were convinced on the 6th of October.

Of course the Gentiles doubt the sincerity of the Mormon leaders, but the politicians are puzzled to know what to do about it. It certainly would be a questionable proceeding to require even a Mormon to swear that he never would do a certain thing, even though he should in time convince the majority of his fellow-citizens that it was a right and laudable thing to do. And so, according to last reports, Judge Zane even is accepting their oaths and allowing Mormons to become naturalized. The result can scarcely be different in respect to the Idaho test-oath.

It is evident that the general public is too oblivious of the fact that Mormonism is deeply rooted in religious sentiment, mistaken though it be. A few months ago a lady in whose judgment I have great confidence, attended one of their typical "female prayer-meetings." There were present many of the elderly women who had endured at the outset the hardships formerly connected with crossing the plains. Their exhortations to faithfulness were earnest and their reminiscences touching. As the meeting drew to a close, the stranger was asked to add any remarks she chose. This opened the way for asking them questions as to their inner feeling with reference to polygamy. To a woman they all defended it most vigorously, and were profuse in rendering reasons in justification of it. As to their relations to the Government, they said that of course they must submit for the present to the law of the land, but they were confident that eventually the world would be convinced of the truth of their arguments. We may pity them as much as we please, and regret that they have read so poorly the lesson of the world's experience with polygamy, but of the religious sincerity of the mass of the Mormons there can be no reasonable doubt. In attending a Sabbath-school, the infant class was found to be under the care of a granddaughter of the late President Taylor. After the familiar methods now in vogue in such schools, she was catechising them as to the work of the faithful members of their sect. "Where is such a one?" (mentioning his name). "A missionary in California," was the prompt reply. And so with the round of their missionaries in all the world. Every child knew the answers. "And where is such a one?" (mentioning the name of one in their neighborhood who had been arrested for polygamy). "In the *pen*," was the prompt reply. Something more than drastic political methods is necessary for the correction of an evil thus rooted in the consent of all practising it.

It is with regret, therefore, that we have seen a recent religious opponent of Mormonism urge that the only cure is to come from action of the United States Government. Already

the Government has confiscated $750,000 worth of Mormon property, and this is to be sold for the benefit of the school fund of Utah. But all this is of little avail so long as Mormons control the schools. He would, therefore, have the schools all turned over to the general Government, and Mormon teachers entirely excluded from them. To encourage Gentile immigration, he would have the general Government inaugurate vast irrigation schemes, and would have the missionary societies prepare to close their schools and devote their strength to petitioning Congress to do all the educational work of the Territory.

A greater mistake could not be made. It is not so that this kind of unclean spirits is cast out. In view of the deep-seated nature of the delusion, the Christian public is not to expect so easy a cure or such ready relief from its own heavy responsibility in the matter. As illustrating the situation, it is instructive to remark that the female singers furnishing music for the Protestant church which I attended yesterday were both of them Mormons.

It is a mistake to suppose that the Mormons are utterly impervious to the ordinary influences affecting the beliefs and practices of men. In attending the services yesterday at the Tabernacle, I was of course impressed by the great audience of well-dressed and intelligent people, the grand music, the real ability of the addresses, and the manifest religious fervor of the congregation. But for the respectful references to the "Prophet Joseph Smith," one could well have believed himself in a Campbellite or Methodist meeting. For the most part the arguments and exhortations were based on the Bible, and the people responded to the sentiments of which they approved with a universal but subdued "Amen."

Nevertheless, the audience, estimated at 4 000, was scarcely more than half what it used to be when the city was much smaller than now. Salt Lake City is having a "boom." Real estate has, in three years, increased twenty-fold in nominal va ue. Other Mormons besides the bishops and elders are becoming wealthy. The same influences which are so rapidly ameliorating the rigors of the traditional theology among the Christian sects are dispelling the illusions of Mormonism. Mining interests are rapidly drawing the attention of outside capitalists, and the exclusiveness of past years is now effectually broken up. If there were a general United States law regulating marriages and making polygamy a crime, it would seem better to admit Utah as a State, and throw upon the Gentile residents the political and other responsibilities which it is wholesome for such a large and intelligent body to bear. The evils of polygamy are becoming so manifest in the second and third generations that the Mormon women cannot long remain in the present state of delusion, and the Gentile element is already present in the large centres in sufficient force to afford protection to such as revolt against the tyranny of the Mormon hierarchy and, what is even more powerful, the Mormon public sentiment.

G. Frederick Wright.

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

Princeton, October 23.

The fall meeting of this Society was held in the Murray Hall of the Philadelphian Society, Princeton, on Wednesday afternoon and Thursday morning. The President, the Rev. Dr. Hayes Ward, was in the chair.

President William A. P. Martin of Peking, China, read a paper on "Chinese Ideas of Inspiration." Dr. Martin emphasized the necessity of clearly distinguishing between the materialism of the Taoist, the idealism of the Buddhist, and the ethical Saduceeism of the Confucianist. The Taoist believes that those who attain immortality form a pantheon which rules over the destinies of man. From this belief a system was evolved very similar to our spiritualism. Only the spirits of a favored few are able to resist the inroads of decay and to defy destruction. Of these the bodies become spirit-bodies and take on new powers. They have the possibility of spirit manifestation and of renewing their intercourse with human beings, especially when in an hypnotic state. One of the chief sources through which spirits manifest themselves is the magic pen, a precursor of the planchette. A large literature, supposed to have been communicated in this way, has grown up which claims to be a revelation.

The Buddhists in China have adopted this practice of procuring spiritual manifestations, notwithstanding the many protests against the great forgeries committed in its name. For the faithful, however, there is no form of existence higher than that of Buddha, no authority beyond his. For the Buddhist the only question that remains is the authenticity of the writings ascribed to the founder of his religion.

Confucianism is really *the* religion of China. Its canon consists of nine books, pre-Confucian and post-Confucian. To the former belong the four books edited by the great master, and the 'Ti-Ki,' the book of rites, which preserves the traditions of earlier ages. Only two sketches therein are claimed to be of supernatural origin. The one is the table of mystic symbols, said to have been brought from the waters of the Yellow River on the back of a dragon-shaped horse. These are the figures on the shell of the tortoise, which ceased to be consulted only when the book was accepted as divine. The other sketch is the outline of a political philosophy, called the *Hung-fan*, the "Great Plan," which was brought to the Emperor Zu from the waters of the river Loh by a similar monster. Both stories are endorsed by Confucius. The 'Book of Odes' (1000 B. C.) goes further, and says that God reveals his will through *man*, and raises up teachers. These are the *Sheng-jin*, the "wise men," whom posterity honored as divine messengers. Confucius is the highest of them all. He himself is confident that his teaching comes from heaven, but not by supernatural means. To the Chinese, Confucius is not a god but a perfect man; not a prophet, but a constant manifestation of ideal excellence. As such his writings are sacred, and not to be altered.

Prof H. Collitz (Bryn Mawr) presented an able contribution to the phonology of the European and Indo-Iranian languages in a paper entitled "On the Existence of a Primitive Aryan *sh*." Dr. A. V. W. Jackson (Columbia), in his paper "On Avestan *ayôkhshusta* (molten metal) in the Gathas," showed by a reference to Bundahish xxx, 17-32, that by this word Zoroaster meant not the sword, but a fiery flood of molten metal. He taught that, at the Judgment, this metal would cleanse the world. In this way we can explain why in later times Khshathra Vairya presided over metals. In another paper, "Avestan Notes," Dr. Jackson suggested a parallel from the Gathas to the thought "weighed in the balance and found wanting." Dr. W. R. Martin (Trinity), in a paper on the "Position of the Fahlavi Question," traced the development of the study of this important question, dwelling particularly upon the method to be pursued.

Prof. W. D. Whitney (Yale) sent a critique of Boehtlingk's edition of the Upanishads, in which he showed the importance and the trustworthiness of this edition of the Sanskrit classic. Prof. M. Bloomfield (Johns Hopkins) explained an obscure passage in the funeral hymn Rig Veda x.16,13—14, by copious allusions taken from the later literature. In a paper "On Mourning Women in the Atharva Veda," Prof. Bloomfield showed that there were good grounds for assuming that professional mourners existed as early as Vedic times. The Rev. Joseph K. Wight (New Hamburgh, N. Y.) sketched the views of Brahmanism and Confucianism in regard to the origin of the universe, in a paper "On Early Cosmogonies of India and China."

Prof. M. Jastrow (University of Pennsylvania) spoke "On the Founding of Carthage." He dwelt on the important part played by Cyprus in the founding of this city, and endeavored to fix the date at which it occurred. Prof. Jastrow also submitted some advanced sheets of an Assyrian glossary prepared by the Semitic Seminary of Johns Hopkins University. Prof. G. K. Moore (Andover) explained that the usual translation of *Canaan*, 'lowland,' rested simply upon an old error. Rosenmüller had been misled by the Latin word "demissus" in Golius's lexicon. In 1833 Gesenius adopted the explanation of Rosenmüller, and it has in this way become a fixed tradition in our dictionaries. Prof. Moore likewise explained that the place in old Judea called *Qiryath Sepher* (Josh. xv, 15, etc.) and translated 'Book-city' should be read *Qiryath Sephar*, *i. e.*, 'Border-town.' Prof. W. R. Harper (Yale), in "Notes on the Syntax of the Tiglath Pileser Inscriptions," gave a study of the syntax of these inscriptions, as compared with the syntax of the Sennacherib (Taylor) inscription. Prof. Harper dwelt specially on the accusative and the attributive adjective. The accusative ending he finds used almost with the rigidity of the Arabic. The use of the adjective is also very rigid. There is little or no disagreement between adjective and substantive. The number of cases of a noun in the accusative followed by an adjective in the accusative is strikingly large. Rev. W. Muss-Arnolt (Johns Hopkins) sent some "Notes on Assyrian Etymologies"; Prof. J. D. Davis (Princeton) a paper "On the Moabite Stone and the Hebrew Records." Dr. Robert F. Harper (Yale) presented a criticism on Abel and Winckler's 'Keilschrifttexte zum Gebrauch bei Vorlesungen.'

After a lengthy discussion it was decided that it would be more advantageous for the Society to meet but once in the year, and for a longer period of time; and, if possible, to have the business meeting held at other cities in addition to Boston. The question of applying for a national charter was left undecided, as the members of the Society were divided as to the advisability of such action.

At the evening social gathering at Prof. Marquand's house, Dr. Cyrus Adler spoke on the proposed exhibit of Oriental life and history at the coming Fair in Chicago. On the motion of Prof. R. Gottheil the following minute was unanimously adopted: "The American Oriental Society has heard with pleasure that the Committee of the World's Columbian Exposition intends to make an exhibit of Oriental life and history, and cordially offers any scientific assistance in its power."

The Society will meet again in May next at Boston.

R. J. H. G.

ITALY IN THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

Rome, October 15, 1890.

Your Paris correspondent, in a letter which is now a month old, but is as true to-day as it

was then, says, "The triple alliance professes to be purely defensive"; and the refrain occurs so often in French journalism in one shape or another, and alternates so continually with distinct intimations that the alliance is regarded in France with the opposite conviction, viz., that it is intended as an instrument for the suppression of that country, that it is evident that the French really believe it and hope to make the rest of the world, out of the alliance, take their view of it. Probably no worse case of deliberate and persistent self-deception has ever been witnessed by journalism or politics. Living in the circle of the alliance as I do, and continually in intercourse with a certain number of Italian publicists who certainly know the intentions and scope of the league with the central Powers, I am competent to put the Italian case, if not with authority, yet with so much *connaissance de cause* that I am sure that if Crispi were asked to do it, he would follow the same line of demonstration if he cared to notice it.

The peace of Europe is in danger from two probable aggressive movements, and no more. The first and most menacing of these is the attempt of the Russians to regain their control of Bulgaria, Servia, and the South Slavic tribes generally, and the other is the determination of France to recover the lost provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. I defy the worst alarmist in France to point out any other tendency which can be considered as a present danger for Europe. The former threatens the destruction of Austria, for nothing is clearer than that if Russia once gets established in the Balkan, it is only a question of time how she shall undermine and destroy the polyglot empire. This, *per se*, would not cause so great grief in the Western world were it to stop there; but when the general character of Russian propaganda is considered, and that it has already to a very large extent undermined not merely Herzegovina and Bosnia, but the original Serb provinces of Austria-Hungary, so that it is a boast of the Russian agents that the Serb regiments in the army will go over to the Russians if it comes to a war between the empires—and that this game, once played successfully, is certain to go on till the German and Slav elements are face to face—we come in sight of a conflict which is fraught with greater dangers to European peace than any which is now above the horizon of actual politics. Russia is in effect to-day an Asiatic country; but with her entry into European politics at Constantinople, or as the mistress of Bulgaria (which amounts in the end to the same thing), she will become an aggressive Power, with elements of invasive strength which no other nation now in Europe possesses. The slow and certain destruction of Austria would be only the prelude to a secular struggle between the German and Slavic races, the issue of which can be only conjectured. It was the perception of this which made Austria persist in the Germanizing policy of the past half century, and the incapacity to realize it which led the Hungarians under Kossuth to play into the hands of Russia by opposing, in their blind egoism, the unification of Austria. It is the same foresight which makes Germany and Austria-Hungary allies against any advance of Russia westward, and which will always prevent any pact between Germany and Russia to the injury of Austria. This is the necessity of the situation. The sound and traditional policy of England which seconds this policy, has no direct relation to the triple alliance, and I need only allude to it as an element in the position which rather confirms the idea that the alliance is really defensive. The Austro-German alliance is a permanent institution.

The French *revanche* is a menace which is serious only as it can ally with it some other element of conflict, *e. g.*, Russia. The nation was foolish enough to provoke a war unprepared, and paid for it by the loss of two provinces, the recovery of which justifies it, in its own eyes, in keeping Europe in a state of perpetual alarm and financial depletion, and, if it is attempted by force of arms, will cost France more lives than there are inhabitants in the two provinces. Every schoolboy in America must know by this time that France will declare war on the first convenient opportunity, and attack Germany with a fury such as she has never shown in any previous war. Frenchmen are rather proud of this determination. But for this the Eastern danger might be met with comparative ease, and perhaps kept back till the Balkan States were organized for their self-defence, and effectively. It is the fact that the two dangers will break on Central Europe at the same moment, that constitutes the peculiar nature of the present impending crisis. The only hope of averting the conflict lies in the possibility of drawing into the central alliance enough of the Powers interested in peace more than in any possible gains by war, to make the confederation clearly master of the situation. This is the interest which the central Powers have in drawing Italy into the alliance, and this addition has no doubt made France less confident of victory, and retarded the outbreak of hostilities for which the French believe they were ready last year; but there is still another weight in the scale of peace in the well-founded conviction that the power of England would be thrown in against the party that began hostilities.

It is, however, against Italy that the French journals launch their deadliest shafts, because Italy is the make-weight which gives a preponderant force to the central alliance, and prevents France from attacking Germany. It is a fact well known in official circles, though denied with derision by the French journals, that two years ago France had planned an attack on Italy, hoping to cripple her effectually and compel her to capitulate before Germany could force the line of frontier defence and bring her full strength to bear on France, when it was believed that the French army would be more than a match for the German. The project was blocked by the English naval demonstration at Genoa. Nevertheless, the book, 'Rome et Berlin,' which was no doubt intended to cheer the hearts of the French with its hopeful prophecies of victory all along the line, and which was so arranged as to appear a few days after the declaration of war, was still brought out, and showed from its elaborate and official studies of the field of operations, especially the Italian coast and defences, how completely the plans had been studied out, and how great the danger to Italy would have been had no *deus ex machina* come in with his *quos ego*. I have no doubt that, so far as this part of the field of operations was concerned, the campaign would have succeeded. The conception of the plan was masterly, and the knowledge of the condition of the defences of Spezzia and the communications between the capital and the decisive field of operations in the North as well as of the defences of Rome, showed that the elements of the book were drawn from official sources, while the author was known to be a retired officer of rank. Of course, having failed, the project is denied, but I have sufficient information from the highest official sources to leave no doubt of its reality.

But this was the effect, not the cause, of the triple alliance, *i. e.*, of the entry of Italy into the league of the central Powers. The cause lies further back, and began in the occupation of Tunis. The struggle for influence in that beylik had been going on for some time, and the apprehensions of the consequences to Italy of the establishment of the naval power of France at a point so near to Sicily that it turned all the defences of the kingdom on the south, had so pressed on the minds of the Italian statesmen that there is no doubt that the Italian occupation would have preceded that of France if the latter had been anticipated. Cairoli, the Prime Minister of the day, was a Francophile, and the Italian Government was content to leave the Tunisian question in abeyance to avoid all difficulties with France. Cairoli asked and received assurances that the French Government had no intention of occupying, and definite promises that it would not occupy, Tunis; and only the day before the occupation was ordered, the Marquis de Noailles and Gambetta both declared that the French Government had no such intention, though the preparations must then have been far advanced. Cairoli resigned and Noailles was recalled, but the bold defiance of good faith and the distinct menace to the security of Italy led the Ministry succeeding that of Cairoli to look about for friends elsewhere than in France. But even before this, Italy had had very good evidence that France, under the Empire, was no friend of Italian unity. When France in her conflict with Germany cast about for help, she naturally applied to Austria and Italy. A very different triple alliance was then possible, but only on the condition that France abandoned the Pope and consented to the occupation of Rome, and this the Emperor refused. When the Empress, become Regent, called on the King of Italy to come to the help of the falling dynasty, Victor Emmanuel replied that he would move only on the same terms, which again was refused. But this was under the Empire, and the public opinion of Italy, generally highly friendly to France, as in fact it would be now if permitted, hoped from the republic better things.

The occupation of Tunis convinced the statesmen of Italy that France was unchanged, and there came a general apprehension that she would on a convenient opportunity insist on the observance of a treaty of old date by which Victor Emmanuel bound himself to respect the position of the Pope, and so maintain what was always known to be a point in the policy of France, the practical protectorate of the temporal power by France. Tunis gone and Rome and Tripoli threatened, all faith in French engagements and good-will lost, Italy turned to Germany and made the overtures which led to her admission to the triple alliance. Whose the fault? The tirades of the French press and the hostility of the French tariffs have one object—that of inducing Italy to withdraw from the triple alliance; and why? Every Frenchman, when he has a moment of frankness, admits that it is because it would leave France free to attack Germany. It is difficult for us who are in the midst of the rancor and wrangle growing out of the position to believe that there is a Frenchman who does not in his serious moments recognize the absolutely defensive character of the triple alliance.

I am a large reader of the daily press of Italy and in an exceptionally good position to know the official feeling. I have known the last three ministers of foreign affairs, and no foreign correspondent has better opportunities than mine to know the mind of Signor Crispi, and I have not the slightest hesitation in say-

ing that in no part of the kingdom and in no class of Italians is there any hostility to France, even after the intolerable insults of the French press and the official animosities of the French Government. I see continually Frenchmen in Rome and other parts of the country, and I do not believe one can be found who can complain of rudeness on the part of individual or official. On the contrary, they are invariably treated with a consideration they do not always deserve, and which probably surprises them, so that they put it down to Italian servility and the desire to placate Gallic indignation, while it is in fact only the Italian innate courtesy, that habitual politeness in which the average Italian surpasses the people of every other race. Reading the French papers, one would think that a furious polemic was going on between the two nations, but, excepting occasional replies to unusually abusive articles, one never sees any notice taken of it here. Certainly nobody here is much disturbed by it.

So far from contemplating any attack on France, Italy is very far yet from being prepared for a purely defensive campaign, and the fixed belief that the triple alliance is sufficient to avert war is so potent that all the pressure of Germany to get the army into condition for entering into one has not yet produced the desired result. Italy is far from ready for war, and, but for the English determination that she should not be the victim of an unprovoked aggression by sea, hostilities would probably have long ago begun. The consciousness that as long as the Conservatives in England are in power, and, perhaps, even if the Liberals come in, England will take part in the fray against the Power that disturbs the peace, makes it morally certain that neither Germany nor Italy can afford to take the initiative. If, indeed, England were frankly to accede to the triple alliance, and then to induce, as she alone could, the minor Powers, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, and Scandinavia, to enter it, a partial disarmament would probably at once take place, because the attack on such a combination would be hopeless.

The present policy of France is to exhaust the finances of the triple alliance by the necessity of constantly increasing its armaments to keep pace with hers; and, trusting to her greater wealth to hold out longest, she goes on increasing her army and spending for new guns. The consequences of her success in the game which she is playing would be such that the contemplation of them ought to deprive her of the sympathy of the entire civilized world, for they mean the extension of Siberia over eastern Europe, and the loss of all its independence by western ; interminable wars till Russia and France meet, and then, perhaps, a mortal struggle between the Republic and the Cossack. Meanwhile it becomes doubtful if the Powers who favor peace will not be driven to finish with the ruinous condition of affairs by compelling France to disarm or fight. This probably would have taken place the autumn that the Emperor of Germany was here had Italy been prepared; but as Italy had never taken the danger of war seriously to heart, and was most unprepared for it, nothing came of it. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

GOV. CAMPBELL AND THE OHIO LEGISLATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers outside of Ohio have doubtless not forgotten the revolution against Gov. Foraker which resulted, a year ago, in the election of a Democratic Governor and Legislature. It will be remembered, also, that home rule for Ohio cities was the most strongly emphasized plank of the Democratic platform, and that the Legislature elected upon that plank entered at once upon a crusade of the most vicious prostitution of city government to partisan and personal ends which the State has ever seen. In all the so-called "Ripper Bills" passed or proposed, it is putting it mildly to say that the welfare of the cities affected was left absolutely out of the calculations. A few Democratic members had the manliness to protest, but the caucus decree was sufficient to carry the point of the spoilsmen. It was well known that this brazen violation of official trust was not sanctioned by the Governor, but the unfortunate absence of the veto power stood in the way of effectual resistance.

Among the many "Bills for Turning Public Office to Private Advantage" was that creating the Board of Public Improvements of Cincinnati, throwing upon the Governor the responsibility of appointment and denying him the protection of the power of removal. There is no reason to doubt that the men chosen for this Board were appointed with a sincere belief in their honesty and ability; but it was soon evident that this confidence was sadly misplaced, and not less evident to Gov. Campbell than to any one else. The complete loss of public confidence in the Board, even though the general suspicion of moral obliquity might be wrong, was an all-sufficient reason for its immediate removal; but its creators had fortified against such a contingency in advance by providing a method of removal too tedious and uncertain to offer any encouragement. After unsuccessful efforts to induce certain members to resign, Gov. Campbell had the courage, right in the face of an election, to summon the Legislature in extra session, and ask for the abolition of the Board and the substitution of another constituted more in accordance with the demands of honest government and common sense.

That the demand to condemn and undo the work of a few months previous was unpleasant to the majority goes without saying; and especially so to the Cincinnati members, some of whom were holding lucrative offices under the very Board which they had created. This fact in itself is a sufficient answer to those who professed to have conscientious scruples against "condemning the Board without a hearing." Another, no less sufficient, is the character of the man who rushed to the Board's defence. If any acknowledged representatives of honesty in politics were in the lobby which sought to thwart the Governor's desires, their names have not found their way into the press reports.

For a time it seemed that the efforts of the lobby would succeed, but a second message from the Governor — aided by a reaction against the insult of an adjournment taken while the Governor's secretary was standing before the Speaker with the message in his hand—clarified the atmosphere sufficiently to bring the schemes of the ringsters out in their true light and insure their defeat. This message, while it secured the triumph of the Governor's recommendations, has made him not a few enemies. The advice that the new Board should not be elected in November because the shortness of time would compel nomination by party committees, which "do not enjoy the respect of the people of Cincinnati to a degree sufficient to give public confidence to their nominations," was somewhat unpalatable to the said committees and their friends. The lobby did not relish the statement that nobody in Cincinnati could be brought to the Board's defence "other than those having a direct personal interest in said Board." The Cincinnati members did not like to hear their alleged desire for harmony truthfully characterized as "mere duplicity." Members of the minority party who at one time contemplated opposition to any legislation whatever, were somewhat nettled to be publicly told that they "must, on reflection, feel that their action was unwise and unpatriotic." The advice to "let the handful of schemers who are scuffling in the dirt before you, hoping for some petty personal gain, be overlooked," was rather chafing to the refined sensibilities of certain professional politicians; and the exhortation to "wipe out the Board" has been objected to in some quarters on the ground that it is wanting in elegance of diction, but the vast majority of those fully acquainted with the circumstances will agree that a Shakspere or a Milton could not have adapted the words to the occasion more fitly than did Gov. Campbell.

That the Governor will follow up his advantage in his message to the adjourned session is altogether probable, and if he does so, the prospects for respectable municipal government in Ohio will be brighter than for many years. The people who "love him for the enemies he has made" in this fight are numbered by the thousands, among the best classes of all parties, and an honored leadership in a popular movement to rescue local government from the clutches of the spoilsmen is undoubtedly his if he chooses to go forward. That any other course, unless he shall drop out of public life altogether, will bring certain humiliation, is too evident to need argument. Fair-minded people are willing to believe that he does not desire any other course, and the friends of good government all over the Union should be ready with open approval and assistance as long as his present attitude is maintained.

W. H. Johnson.

MONEY IN ELECTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has been a matter of surprise to many of your readers that you have not yet taken the pains to define accurately the present attitude of the Republican party towards Mr. Quay. The assumption of *Puck* that Quay stands for the spirit and ambition of that party, and is its fittest representative, is incorrect. On the contrary, it may safely be said that the Senator from Pennsylvania is regarded with the most cordial detestation by the leaders of his party; and as for the rank and file, those who still believe him to be a calumniated patriot are but few: the majority avoid all reference to him, and would be glad to know that the party had severed its connection with him.

I am inclined to think—and this opinion is based rather on a general knowledge of human nature than upon mere imagination—that many orthodox Republicans, including President Harrison and Speaker Reed, were heartily glad that Mr. Kennedy made his attack on Quay. They rejoiced that the attack was made, and that it was made directly and openly. What the Ohio member said they desired to say, but they dared not. In the recesses of their thoughts, and in the silence of their chambers, they curse Quay as a disgrace to his party. They know, as well as Mr. Kennedy does, that he is a Judas, but they do not say so, because—and this is the key to the

whole situation—*he carries the bag!* Somewhat more than a year ago Mr. Quay began the collection of a "reserve fund" for the use of the National Committee. This was to be made up by the contribution of $10 annually from each Republican voter able and willing to aid the party to that extent. No secret was made of the plan of this fund, and its collection has been carried on during the past year by agencies directly under Mr. Quay's control—quietly, however, lest questions should be asked concerning its amount and purpose. The usefulness of this fund is shown in the fact, pleasantly noted by Republican journals, that while the Democratic National Committee is greatly hampered by lack of funds, the other Committee is experiencing no such difficulty. Money is the "sinews of war," we are told, and we know it to be the very life-blood of "practical politics." The sources of this life-giving current are with Mr. Quay; is it likely that his favor will be forfeited before election? And after election? Wait and see what the friendship of the Pharisees is worth then. That the Republicans will win the coming election is highly probable, for the plan so successful in 1888 of sending funds to doubtful districts is again at work. A careful canvass of every State has been made, and maps, showing by shading every district, county, and township where the Congressional vote is doubtful, have been drawn for the guidance of the National Committee. The reserve fund, therefore, is being placed where it will do the most good. The result may not be pleasing to honest patriots, but it can hardly be a matter of surprise. But even though the party secure success, and through Mr. Quay's skilful generalship alone, we are convinced that the first move of his fellow-leaders afterwards will be to remove this officer. And they will do this in such a way as to reflect the highest credit upon themselves and upon the party of "high moral ideas," and thus rivet to the party with bands of steel the support of doctors of divinity and Sunday-school leaders.

Mr. Godkin says, in his late article in the *Forum*, that the existence of a large class of people ready to purchase votes is the most significant political fact of the time. It is a fact to whose perilous meaning no honest patriot can close his eyes. It will not do to palliate the present situation by saying that money always has been and always will be used by evil men in elections. While bribery is only a secret and disgraceful resource of the scurvy politician it can do harm, but when it becomes the open and avowed practice of party leaders who, at the same time, claim the name and the affiliations of respectability and piety, then, indeed, is our patriotism rotten to the very core. He who cannot see how this evil has grown in this country during the last ten—yes, even the last four—years must be afflicted with the hopeless blindness of those who *will* not see.

The evil effect of the use of money in elections can never be confined within bounds. It debauches not only those who actually sell and buy the votes, but all otherwise honest citizens who see and condone the crime. It is an offence that can never be confined to one party, for the other party is certain to take it up also, on the plea that the devil can only be fought with fire. It is a burning disgrace to the American name, that the shameless purchase of votes in Indiana and New York in the Presidential election of 1888 was not investigated and condemned by Congress. Why was this not done? Simply because both parties had taken part in the offence, and there were not in either any men honest enough to stand up for righteousness in defiance of party denunciation.

A. C. C.

Chicago, Ill.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Doubtless many of your readers, like some of my personal friends, turn away from my letters with a pitying smile, saying: "Our friend works himself into a good deal of excitement, unfortunately to no purpose. He seems unable to see that the real difficulty is not in the mere surface matter of the organization of government, but in universal suffrage. Democracy is proving itself to be, as it always has been, a failure. If you give votes to the mass of the ignorant poor and foreigners, you must expect and will have bad results."

As this goes to the root of the matter, a word on that subject may not be out of season.

(1.) Whether universal suffrage is good or bad, it is upon us, and we cannot help it. Though it is only a hundred years old, the world is marching towards it with rapid strides. In this country there may be imposed some restrictions as to education and length of residence, but no property qualification will ever be enforced unless by military despotism as the result of fierce civil wars. How can the majority be induced to vote away their power? Not one of those who are most bitter as to universal suffrage ever suggests any expedient by which it can be done away with. Their philosophy is and must be to shut their eyes and say, "After us the deluge." Is this the manly view to take of it? It is the way in which their kind regarded the civil war, but the mass of the people refused to see it in that light.

(2.) Is the charge against universal suffrage true? I ask any man to go back to the period thirty years ago, when the black cloud of slavery was about to burst upon us, and when the whole outside world and half of that inside believed that the dissolution of the Union was an accomplished fact. Who was it that refused to accept any such conclusion, that insisted upon the prosecution of the war, raised the men and the money, abolished slavery, and then dismissed the vast army to the arts of peace, leaving the Union stronger than ever? It was the people of the United States, trained by universal suffrage to act together in time of war. No man enjoying the blessings of life in this country to-day has a right to say a word against such a power. Again, if the Government of Great Britain had been, as it was a century ago, in the hands of the upper classes, it would certainly have interfered on behalf of the South. London society and the military and naval services, not to say the aristocracy in general, were eager for it. What saved us from such a disaster? It was the workmen of Lancashire and other parts of the kingdom, who had become a power through, if not a universal, at least a widely extended suffrage, and who, suffering as they were from the privation of cotton, sent up a cry which warned the Government that the nation would not support such action. It would be easy to multiply instances of the beneficent action of a collective public will.

(3.) It is beyond question a fact that in the United States of to-day we do not get the effect of universal suffrage. Does anybody suppose that the things which are done at Washington or in the capitols and the city halls of the different States are really in accordance with the wishes of the people? More and more the management of politics is falling into the hands of unscrupulous rings, the choice of the people being limited to two sets of politicians between whom there is perhaps little to choose. Go through the country, into the abodes of peaceful industry and into the family life of the people, and ask yourself whether the men who swarm in the lobbies are really such as the people would of their own choice select to govern them. Before we condemn the people so unsparingly, is it not worth while to consider whether it is their fault, and whether it is possible for them to do any better with the machinery with which they have to work? And this brings us to the other alternative.

(4.) Organization. For those who sneer at expecting so much from it I have one reply. The most miserable and apparently hopeless period in the history of this country was that of the Confederation which succeeded our war of Independence. To understand that, one needs only to read the accounts of the prostration of business and the utter depression which threatened to make all the sacrifices of the Revolution of no avail. To that state of things came the Federal Constitution, as purely an à priori and conscious piece of organization as ever took place in the world. The effect was like magic. The revival of business and the restoration of credit began that career of prosperity which has made us what we are to-day. No product of machinery was ever more directly the effect of a cause.

Fortunately no such radical changes are now needed as were made then; but what work does need to be done is precisely of the same kind. My theories may be defective or erroneous in character, but of one thing I am certain, that they are in the right direction.

G. B.

Boston, October 25, 1890.

INVERSIONS OF TEMPERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your remarks and inquiry concerning nocturnal inversions of temperature in the *Nation* of September 25, escaped my attention until to-day. A striking example of this inversion came under my observation in September, 1878. While engaged in survey work in the Sierras of northern California (Plumas County), for the purpose of being early at the top of a mountain I spent the night far up the side, about two thousand feet above my party in the valley, though within sight. A short time before sunrise the next morning, the difference of temperature between the two stations was 7°F., the higher being the warmer. With smaller differences of altitude in those regions I have frequently noted similar inversions. Along the sides of a cultivated valley in Sierra County I saw flourishing gardens, while nearer the axis line of the valley, not over five miles away and 200 feet lower, the gardens were in many respects failures. A similar difference in orchards located at different points along the same stream was noticed.

This difference of vegetation is not, however, due solely to difference of atmospheric temperature. A difference of a few feet in altitude there frequently made the difference between a dry camp and one mantled in dew or frost. I have noticed in many localities that sheep and other animals learn to avoid these conditions, and at night generally occupy higher ground, as the smaller knolls in a valley.

I have never known a case of inversion that could not, I think, be satisfactorily explained by considering the motion and lack of moisture of the upper atmosphere in connection with the moisture and lack of motion in the lower.

A statement from you as to where the essay

of Mr. Elliot, referred to in No. 1317 of the *Nation*, was printed would be appreciated.

S. E. TILLMAN.

WEST POINT, N. Y., October 21, 1890.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT Co.'s holiday announcements include 'A Mosaic,' a set of photogravures from pictures never before published, furnished by the Artists' Fund Society of Philadelphia, with text; an illustrated edition of Buchanan Read's poem, "Sheridan's Ride"; and 'Tisáyac of the Yosemite,' an illustrated poem by M. B. M. Toland.

The Dunlap Society will issue at once to its members Mr. William Winter's biography of the late John Gilbert, illustrated with a portrait of the comedian as *Sir Peter Teazle*. The final publication of the Dunlap Society for this year will be a volume of 'Occasional Addresses,' edited by Mr. Laurence Hutton and Mr. William Carey, and to contain the chief of the many American poems written to be spoken at benefits and anniversaries.

Mr. J. R. Tuten, the compiler of 'The Bibliography of Wordsworth,' has prepared 'The Wordsworth Dictionary of Persons and Places,' which will be published in December by Frank Murray, Moray House, Derby, England. The large-paper copies will be uniform with Knight's library edition of Wordsworth. The work is to contain first an index of all the persons named or described in Wordsworth's poems; second, an index of all the places mentioned or described; thirdly, a collection of the familiar quotations from Wordsworth; and fourthly, a chronological list of the best of Wordsworth's poems.

'Newburgh,' historical and descriptive, is the title of a work about to be undertaken by Messrs. Ritchie & Hull, proprietors of the *Journal* in that city on the Hudson. It will be copiously illustrated, and will make a quarto volume.

The *Forest and Stream* Publishing Company of New York will issue at once the first number of a quarterly publication entitled *The Book of the Game Laws*, compiled by the editor of *Forest and Stream*, and containing all the laws of the United States and Canada relating to game and fish.

What Houghton, Mifflin & Co. attempted in the case of the 'Marble Faun'—to emphasize the local color by means of photographic views of places, buildings, statuary, etc., in a sumptuous edition—has been imitated by another Boston firm in the case of 'Romola' (Estes & Lauriat). Its two volumes are less remarkable for typographical beauty—at least, we cannot praise the press-work—than for the numerous and well-chosen illustrations drawn from the historic and artistic wealth of Florence. There are sixty of these in various tints, and they undeniably enhance the value of this edition for the untravelled, or, for that matter, for the travelled also. Two modern etchings, by William Unger, of Macchiavelli and Savonarola, are among the reproductions. The delicate binding of white and gold, relieved with color on the sides, is shielded by a scarlet cover, and a scarlet box encases the whole.

A certain external parallel to the foregoing is afforded by the two-volume edition of 'Jane Eyre' got up by T. Y. Crowell & Co. Here the text is more open and legible, but the illustrations are designs on wood by artists not named, and seemingly of transatlantic origin. They are somewhat heterogeneous, and would not of themselves justify the publishers' prediction that their edition is "as perfect as will ever be produced."

Better founded is the same publishers' assertion that their reissue of 'Tom Brown's School Days,' in one volume, is "the best that has ever been offered to the American public." Typographically it resembles the 'Jane Eyre,' and the illustrations, clearly of English origin, are superior. The binding is in a sober green cloth.

We have spoken very recently of the substance of Camille Flammarion's astronomic fantasy, 'Urania,' and need only speak now to the externals of the handsome edition just put forth by Estes & Lauriat. Large type, generously spaced, produces a volume of some 300 pages, interspersed with vignettes from tone-drawings in the French fashion. Some of these are excellent, and the major part are decorative at least. The binding is a wine-colored cloth, freely gilt.

A gulf indeed separates Darley's illustrations to Cooper from Frederic Remington's sepia drawings which give distinction to Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s new setting of 'The Song of Hiawatha.' Mr. Remington has notoriously made close studies from nature of our Western Indians, and can depict their physiognomy with an almost scientific exactitude. He has also gone into their costumes, implements, and the like, and has amassed a small museum of pen-drawings of pipes, snowshoes, targets, jars, hammers, quivers, spears, belts, arrows, head-ornaments, etc., which are scattered up and down the margin of the text in a novel way. The full-page plates are realistic, but beauty and sentiment not seldom assert themselves, and the general effect is undeniably pleasing. The other appointments of this edition are of the first order; the cover a russet leather or leatherette, in revival of an older style. Taken altogether, the holiday ideal has been skilfully met by the publishers.

They have not stopped here, for they launch anew Lowell's 'Vision of Sir Launfal,' with photogravures from designs by E. H. Garrett, and a precious copy of a crayon portrait of the poet by William Page, made in 1842. Mr. Garrett's pencil we like best when employed in landscape, but his figure pieces are passable, and he has helped to beautify the little volume.

Another of Page's portraits, dated 1843, and in oil, has been etched for the first volume of the Poems of James Russell Lowell, in the complete Writings now in course of publication by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The face has an Elizabethan aspect, in keeping with the tastes and powers of the author of 'Conversations on Some of the Old Poets.' The second volume is wholly given up to the 'Biglow Papers.' The first ends with the rhymed anti-slavery "Letter from Boston," which Mr. Lowell has hitherto refrained from adopting in his own anthology, but which all his admirers must agree in thinking worthy of its present place. It is not only an honorable chapter in Mr. Lowell's historic development, but an inimitable portrait gallery, in which his Hudibrastic humor jostles high poetic imagery and the acutest characterization. Mr. Lowell has added a few explanatory notes to this Letter, and he might have quoted apologetically from the MS., which has been preserved, that it was written "in steamboat haste." If there is any living poet capable of such a *tour de force*, we do not know his name.

The promised popular reprint of the late Eugene Schuyler's 'Peter the Great' (Charles Scribner's Sons) is, luxury apart, in all respects as desirable as the original. The paper has been cheapened; but that the buyer (in these days of the apotheosis of Dearness) may not feel cheapened himself by the lowered price, the binding has a look of costly elegance, without being a sham either. In a word, the new edition would adorn any library. One defect we may fairly point out: the not long list of errata should have been abolished by means of alterations in the plates. Most of them could easily have been thus disposed of.

'Our Great Actors: Portraits of Celebrated Actors in their Most Celebrated Rôles' is the title of a portfolio of sketches in water-color by Mr. Charles S. Abbé, reproduced by the Armstrong Company and published by Estes & Lauriat. The great actors chosen by the artist are Messrs. Booth, Irving, Jefferson, Lawrence Barrett, Coquelin, and Salvini. The picture of Mr. Booth as *Richelieu* and that of Mr. Irving as *Mephistopheles* are disappointing. The latter, indeed, is ludicrously inadequate. But the four other drawings are of better quality, that of Mr. Jefferson as *Bob Acres* fair only, while the portrait of M. Coquelin as *Mascarille* is excellent—emphatically the best of the half-dozen. As likenesses, the pictures of Sig. Salvini as *Macbeth* (certainly not his "most celebrated rôle") and of Mr. Lawrence Barrett as *Lanciotto* (in "Francesca da Rimini") are satisfactory.

The eighth and concluding volume of the 'Henry Irving Shakespeare' (Scribner, Welford & Co.) contains in the Introduction to "Hamlet" the last work of its late editor, Mr. Frank A. Marshall, who unfortunately did not live to complete the undertaking to which he had given so much labor. Mr. Arthur Symons furnishes the notes to this play, and also the entire commentary on "King Henry VIII.," no part of which seems to him to be by Shakspere. "Pericles" is cared for by Mr. Round, and the poems and sonnets by Mr. Verity. An excellent Index to the notes of the entire edition is at the end. Prof. Dowden contributes the Life of Shakspere, which is here introduced, somewhat out of place, in the last volume, and is a compact and reasonable summary of the facts of his biography, the order and general character of the plays so far as they illustrate the dramatist's career, and the history of his fame. Mr. Henry Irving also writes a short preface, in which he pays a tribute to the memory of his associate. The edition in its successive issues has well sustained the promise of interest and value made by its early volumes, and must take good rank as a popular edition distinguished by careful scholarship, and especially rich in its notes on the history of the plays upon the stage. The cuts have been of various degrees of excellence, but the design in them has been always markedly dramatic in feeling. The Chandos portrait has been chosen for the frontispiece in the last volume. Altogether, the plan of the edition was well conceived and has been admirably executed.

A useful aid to the correct dates of English literature has been compiled by Mr. Frederick Ryland in his 'Chronological Outlines of English Literature' (Macmillan). It consists of two parts. The first is a continuous chronological table in parallel columns, the first containing the date, the others in order the works published, biographical, foreign-literary and historical events of the same year—and last stands a column of annotations and remarks. The second part is an alphabetical list of authors, with their works and the dates of publication under each name. The author remarks upon the inaccuracy of Allibone and other leading works of reference, and has endeavored to correct their errors by consulting the British Museum Catalogue and special bibliographies. The volume makes 350 pages, is well bound

and printed, and does not attempt to give too much.

Mr. H. S. Salt has collected and edited the 'Anti-Slavery and Reform Papers' of Thoreau (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.), and prefixed to them an appreciative notice of their author, apparently with the design of showing that he was less disconnected with the social interests of his fellow-men than is commonly represented. He asserts that Thoreau was an anarchist in principle, but the name can hardly be applied to him with fairness now, although it is easy to quote passages to show that the hermit of Walden believed in "no government" as an ideal state. It is of much more use to bring forward the papers upon John Brown which Thoreau wrote and made public at the time of Brown's execution, since they prove the vigor of his hatred of slavery and his own moral courage and readiness to do what he could to effect reform by the expression of his opinions. The two papers upon this subject are excellent in style and matter, well pointed with epigram, and contain some of Thoreau's most characteristic sayings. The other three papers in the volume, upon "Civil Disobedience," "Paradise (to be) Regained," and "Life without Principle," are much less striking, though the first is a remarkable illustration of the mood of mind and reasoning of those who, in the anti-slavery agitation, threw off their civil allegiance, and contains besides the graphic account of Thoreau's night in prison when arrested for refusing to pay his tax. The little book well fulfils its aim of setting Thoreau forth, apart from nature, in his social or anti-social relations, and is also valuable for its illustration of the effect of John Brown's death at the time upon a certain class at the North.

The educational discussions and experiments in London occasionally bring us a volume of much interest to teachers, but we remember none more fresh or stimulating than a thin book entitled 'Elementary Schools, How to Increase their Utility,' which we have received from Percival & Co., London. It consists of six lectures delivered to the managers of the London Board Schools in 1889–1890. The titles are Science-Teaching, Music, Physical Culture and Recreation, Hand-and-Eye Training, Evenings of Amusement and Mechanics; and the lecturers were all persons of special culture in the particular subjects treated. The last lecture contains a scheme, with experiments, for a whole course in mechanics, conceived in a most intelligent way, and the lectures upon physique and music are both particularly noticeable. The whole course exhibits a tendency towards development in the direction of manual training (but not technical trade-instruction for a particular practical end), and also in the direction of gymnastics and easy sports rather than athletics. In the lecture upon evening amusements we have a good account of how these evenings were started as an experiment a short time ago, of their success, and of the methods to be employed. The experience is of value for all who are engaged in providing evening amusement for the young in our cities, in friendly clubs and like organizations. Mr. Bonsfield, who holds the leading official position among the managers of the London Board Schools, furnishes an excellent general preface. The volume deserves to be consulted by progressive teachers and school boards.

Yet another 'Popular Handbook' of literature, under the inapt title, 'Makers of Modern English' (Whittaker), is put forth by W. J. Dawson, upon the poets of this century. The earlier chapters cover a well-worked field without anything specially new or striking in their survey, but the greater part of the volume is devoted to Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Browning. The essay upon Tennyson is noticeable for its breadth and system, and is an excellent study of the obvious faults and virtues of the Laureate; that upon Browning is less satisfactory. Rossetti, Swinburne, and William Morris are treated of at the end—a sign of the progress of the century and of the unsettled conclusion of criticism upon these writers, who, though later than Tennyson, who still lives, have nevertheless done that part of their work by which they are almost certain to be judged. Mr. Dawson writes with full information, and has a firm grasp, but his criticism falls below its subject. It is book-reviewing on an extended scale.

'Tales and Legends from the Land of the Tsar,' translated from the Russian by Edith M. S. Hodgetts (New York: Charles E. Merrill & Co.), is a spirited translation of thirty-eight Russian fairy tales, and it will be welcomed by people who are in search of a new holiday book for children as well as by the students of folk-lore. An occasional lapse in grammar and use of slang mars the style, without adding to the force or naturalness of the rendering, as they were obviously intended to do. Some of the tales will be recognized as having already made their appearance in other volumes. "Vaselesa, the Beautiful" is an old acquaintance, while "Elie Muromitch" and "The Last of the Russian Warriors" are both to be found in Miss Hapgood's 'Epic Songs of Russia,' where the English version preserves the spirit of the original more closely than in the present translation.

Count Tolstoi's 'Gospel Stories' is a book to be avoided by all persons who possess the volume issued in 1887 by the same publishers (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), under the title of 'Ivan Ilyitch, and Other Stories.' The translator's Introductory Note implies that these stories are now issued in book form for the first time. As a matter of fact, they form the "other stories" in the volume above referred to. We gave them due notice at the time. Of this new issue there is nothing to be said, except that the publisher has not taken advantage of the opportunity to correct a single one of the numerous blemishes which we then pointed out, and that the pseudo-English is religiously preserved. The publishing of old books as new, with a fresh title and no hint of the antiquity of the contents, is not to be commended. The stories are to be found in the twelfth volume of Count Tolstoi's 'Collected Works.'

We read in an English paper of the auction sale at Sotheby's in London, next month, of a complete collection of Dickens's works, made by Mr. J. Hampden English, of Walton. The first editions it contains, with the serials in their original wrappers, are likely to excite a keen competition.

Students of the development of jurisprudence should possess themselves of Dr. Camillo Henner's 'Beiträge zur Organisation und Competenz der päpstlichen Ketzergerichte,' just issued by Duncker & Humblot of Leipzig. Dr. Henner is a teacher of law in the Karl-Ferdinands University of Prague, who treats the subject of the Inquisition in a purely scientific spirit, as a matter of passionless investigation. With unwearied assiduity he has assembled all accessible information, from old as well as new sources, has analyzed it, and presents the result in a condensed and methodical shape, with ample citation of authorities. So much of late years has been added to our store of documentary evidence respecting the procedure of the Holy Office in the Middle Ages, that a clear and well-arranged summary of existing knowledge, in which widely scattered facts are brought together and arranged for mutual elucidation, is a service of no little value. The work is not, of course, intended for the general reader, but the special student will prize highly its valuable assistance.

A fourth edition of Flügel's English-German and German-English Dictionary is in the press of Georg Westermann, Brunswick (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). It is sixty years since J. G. Flügel founded this work to which so many other rival enterprises have been indebted—as English lexicographers to Johnson, and as the new editor, Dr. Felix Flügel, to Todd, by his own account in the prospectus. Etymology is disregarded for the English portion, and pronunciation suggested only by a few diacritical marks, referring to a running key, as in our English dictionaries. The great feature of the work is the literary examples, with exact reference to volume and page of the work cited; and there is a special index to the authors, with titles of their works and date of issue. The dictionary will be published in twelve parts, appearing every two months. The typography will be condensed but clear.

The path of the independent critic has just been proved to be a thorny one in Spain in the person of Leopoldo Alas. That member of the group of distinguished collaborators who have given the new magazine, *España Moderna*, such deserved fame, had prepared two articles for its columns, one on the poetry of Campoamor, the other on the novels of Emilia Pardo Bazán. The editor insisted that the latter should be first published, and also that it be revised so as to make it more acceptable to the authoress than it promised to be. The critic resented both these demands, withdrew his contributions, and has now printed them in one of his series of 'Literary Tracts.' Naturally his fearless and vigorous writing can be looked for no more in the pages subject to such an editorial dictatorship.

We have received the ninth edition of the Boston Public Library's 'Handbook for Readers,' edited by Mr. James L. Whitney. While calculated for the institution which puts it forth, it is, of course, scarcely less useful for smaller libraries, for if many of the "literary guides" here enumerated at such length on a vast variety of topics are wanting in these humbler collections, it is of no little service to have the deficiencies pointed out, while the student can note the guide and perhaps consult it elsewhere. In fact, part of the bibliographical references for the Boston Library's own readers are to the British Museum's catalogue of printed books, so far as published. Of universal interest, again, is the list of indexes of periodicals, filling nearly forty-seven pages, and it was a happy thought to reprint the names of the periodicals indexed in Poole's Index. There is also a select list of encyclopædias. The regulations of the Library are prefixed to the bibliographical contents, and these are followed by an account of the special libraries included in the Boston Public, and of its works of art, a chronology of the Library from Vattemare's time down, and statistics of growth up to the present half million volumes. This Handbook has been most scrupulously prepared and printed.

We are glad to hear that the success of the Slater Memorial Museum in attracting and interesting the people of Norwich and vicinity continues to an extent far beyond the most sanguine expectations of those who were interested in its foundation. Last spring Mr.

Slater placed on exhibition there his collection of pictures, principally of the Barbizon school, and in the three weeks that the exhibition remained open it was visited by more than 3,000 people. Word now comes that a school of drawing has been established in connection with the Museum, which opens with twenty-two in the day classes and seventy-five in the evening classes. Surely no greater proof of the need of such institutions in our smaller communities could be asked for.

—Another proof, if proof be needed, of the rapid way in which our country is coming to the front in intellectual matters, is the *International Journal of Ethics*, of which the first number has just been published in Philadelphia. The *Ethical Record*, of which it is a development, was published by the Societies for Ethical Culture, and suffered consequently from the appearance of being a sectarian organ. The present periodical is to be a review of the most catholic sort; and since there exists nowhere to-day, we believe, a review especially devoted to ethical questions, it is to be hoped that it may prove as indispensable to students of morals everywhere as *Mind*, for example, is to students of philosophy. Mr. S. Burns Weston, as chief editor, is backed by a strong international committee, in which Profs. Felix Adler and Josiah Royce represent the United States. The list of future contributors is imposing, embracing some of the first names in England, Germany, and America, and the present number contains articles by Messrs. Henry Sidgwick, Adler, Höffding, J. B. Clark, B. Bosanquet, Royce, and Salter, with half-a-dozen reviews by the indefatigable G. von Gizycki. The *Journal* will appear quarterly. Taking this first number as a good expression of the contemporary spirit in ethics, what strikes one most in it is the extraordinary absence from it of the old-fashioned rigidity and formalism. The intuitionist of to-day when it comes to saying what should be done in the concrete, becomes as pliant as a utilitarian, and refers as much as he to experiment. The objective notion of "the Good of the Whole," with the individual as its organ, working in the light of his own best talent, whenever that may be, has, in fact, with contemporary intuitionists, well-nigh come to supersede the subjective one of a cut-and-dried bundle of fixed duties, to God, to our fellows, and to ourselves, respectively, imposed from above on the individual, and having the possible sinuosities of his behavior under them as the reason for their being. Mr. Bosanquet would be classed among "intuitionists," yet he says as hard things as any one we can remember, in his article upon the "Communication of Moral Ideas," against the notion that there are any fixed duties binding on individuals irrespective of condition and circumstance. Prof. Höffding, although not an intuitionist, says the same thing in a much less telling way. And Prof. Adler, in his fine address on the "Freedom of Ethical Fellowship," shows how small is the importance of systematic ethical theory even for systematically organized practical work of an ethical kind. The chaotic vagueness of all this would make an old-fashioned moral philosopher rub his eyes. And it must be confessed that *something* is gone, in the loss of all the old clean-cut abstract formulas, even though we may have gained in place of them a more concrete, rich, and living way of looking at the truth. Prof. Sidgwick, in his article on "The Ethics of Strife," shows that the only great hope for society is in the increase in the individual citizen's sense of *justice*, even in questions where his own class and country may be arrayed on one side. Prof. Clark, in "The Ethics of Land Tenure," argues against nationalization; Prof. Royce cuts up remorselessly Dr. Abbot's book on the 'Way Out of Agnosticism'; and Mr. Salter insists on the irreducible distinction in kind between ethical and scientific propositions. Altogether this first number of the *International Journal* is of first-rate quality, and the magazine will be an assured success if it does not fall below the standard thus set.

—*Harper's* for November devotes a large portion of its space to articles of travel. Southern California, Chili, Japan, and Switzerland are the subjects, and of these the first two are more than usually full in description and information. Mr. Warner always sees the best phases of the countries through which he travels; and in this case of "Our Italy," as he calls the lower Pacific counties, he has a topic which arouses all his enthusiasm, whether for beauty of landscape, salubrity of climate, or future material prosperity. The more valuable part of his article consists of its meteorological and fruit-culture sections. Mr. Theodore Child makes an exhaustive study of the outward aspects of the streets of Santiago and Valparaiso, which are portrayed with evident truth, and none of that flattery of local pride which commonly distorts such accounts as this; and he touches rapidly, but with instruction, upon the character of the people, the personality of the President, and the nature of the political struggle between him and the legislative branch, the school provision, the rising vogue of the English language, and the omnipresent influence of English capital, besides many other minor matters. The article is well conceived, is many-sided, and gives a very excellent sketch of the whole range of things Chilian. Another paper, interesting from its picturesqueness, is upon the local festival of the "Meistertrunk" celebrated at Rothenburg, in which the reader finds a curious instance of the mediæval popular-play occurring in our own times. The only other considerable article is Prof. Sloan's account of Princeton, which he describes as occupying a middle place, in its ideal of education, between Harvard and Yale. He dwells particularly on the large scientific requirements in the curriculum, on the benefits of the literary societies, on the nature of the athletic exercises, the advantages of the neighborhood of the School of Science, the prospects of the Law School in contemplation, the theological department, and the fertility of the college in public men. There is a lack of detail and definition, however, as to the character of the education actually acquired.

—The *Century* opens with the first instalment of a journey through Tibet, which must be of great and increasing interest as an account of an unknown land, but in the present number the traveller, Mr. Rockhill, arrives only at its border. The remainder of the number is rich in attractive articles, of which we can only name those upon Lincoln's personal habits, the first California emigrant-train, Andersonville, and the printing of the *Century*, while calling special attention to Mr. Shaw's description of the history and present state of the municipal government of London, and to Mr. Brownell's exceptional criticism of the French sculptors, Rodin and Dalou. The experience of London in working out its still incomplete municipal system affords perhaps the most valuable and certainly the most interesting study in the government of modern cities, and the author has dealt with his difficult subject with remarkable clearness and comprehension. He reviews the history of the guilds of the city, shows in what way they have yielded to reform sentiment, and prophesies the speedy extinction of this venerable and powerful governing body and the transference of its great wealth to the use of the people as public trusts. He states that the principle of supreme control by a directly elected body is admitted, and he forecasts the lines on which it will be developed through the County Council, and takes occasion to contrast this system with the idea of American reformers who would concentrate power in the Mayor, much to our disadvantage. He directs attention to the suffrage scheme, which admits women to the franchise, and which does not require the nominee to be a resident of the ward. He touches also upon the great question of leaseholds, taxes on rental-values, the housing of the poor, the public schools, etc.; in fact, the paper is full of the modern movement of society, and has many practical bearings upon our own problems. Mr. Brownell's paper, which deals more particularly with Rodin, is remarkable for the clearness of its critical perceptions and the justice of its temperate decisions on the ever-vexed questions, continually arising, between academic canons and original genius, between art and nature, formal style and vital expression; and in its allusions to the art of the Renaissance and of Greece it is as felicitous as in its direct criticism. In method and manner, as well as in intelligence, it takes the first critical rank.

—*Scribner's* makes interesting announcements of its prospective articles, of which the most important are papers on Japan by Sir Edwin Arnold, on India by Prof. Bryce, on the Great Streets of the World, and on Ocean Steamships, to which Mr. Stevenson's new romance, 'The Wreckers,' is to be added. In the present issue, only Prof. Shaler's concluding paper on the physical prospects of the nation need be noted. He surveys briefly the trans-Mississippi country, and gives the first place in progress to the Oregonian district, and then proceeds to general conclusions, to the effect that there has been no deterioration of the race due to its settlement in America, but rather a slight improvement, especially in recuperative power, as shown by the records of wounds in the civil war, and in longevity as shown by the life-insurance reports. The backwardness of the French Canadian element in intellectual life he is inclined to ascribe to the difference in language and to the lack of education, and he regards it as transitory. The great problem of the future of the African race is touched upon only to bring out its import to the Southern States, to which he thinks the negroes will be confined, except as there may be sufficient northward emigration to repair losses in the black population of the cities, which would otherwise, he thinks, tend to extinction. He prophesies, also, the increase of the mine-workers until in the West they will equal or exceed the surface-tillers, and in general the growth of heredity of occupation everywhere, resulting in ancestral types in the population. The three articles, taken together, are an extremely suggestive series; and after allowance is made for the singleness of the point of view, they offer valuable results for reflection.

—The *Atlantic* has a long list of topics well distributed. Mr. John Jay Chapman's trial translation of the fourth canto of the 'Inferno' is the most novel. He has attempted to render it in *terza rima*, and has made a notable *tour de force* in a measure not much employed in English. The question whether English *terza*

rima represents the same measure in Italian still remains; and when everything has been conceded to the patience, ingenuity, and good taste of the translator, there is much room for doubt. English *terza rima* tends to a very rapid flow, and has the character of a chant. Shelley's use of it exhibits these traits very markedly, and he has employed it with the strongest touch. In Mr. Chapman's hands one cannot help noticing the presence of the great defect to which it is exposed, namely, the tendency to light endings, which weaken the verse often to the point of debilitation. This slight final accentuation reacts on the body of the line also, and in this way the translator gives an impression of affectation, since his line recalls too directly the peculiar movement of the Rossetti type of verse which is due to this cause. Finally, such a forced rhyme as *Julia* with *saw* and *awe*, though cleverly veiled, is intolerable, and when single fine lines are literally and simply rendered, the neighboring lines are forced to bend and yield to the necessities of the metre almost constantly. There is, too, not a little amplification of the original. The effect, therefore, so far as it is to be taken as an illustration of the powers of English *terza rima* to reproduce Dante's measure, cannot be regarded as settling the point favorably, but in itself the translation is an interesting technical experiment in English verse and highly creditable to the writer. In the remainder of the number we find an account of the demolition of the legend of William Tell, a scholarly notice of Robert Morris's services to the Revolution, an account of the state of affairs in the Federal courts which occasions the increasing delay of justice, and several other papers, principally of an historical nature.

—The Paris *Figaro* revives the memory of an incident, now twenty-four years old, which is not to be called History by those who spell that word with the majuscule, but which is entertaining gossip at least. It concerns a falling-out that took place between Marshal MacMahon and Cardinal Lavigerie, then Bishop of Algiers. The Marshal was Governor of Algiers, and, when the see became vacant, had influence enough to secure the appointment to it of M. Lavigerie, whom he had known at Nancy. Hardly had the prelate taken possession of his see when he attacked violently and publicly the administration of the Arab bureaus, which then existed "in all their beauty." He complained of the separation, the *parquage*, of the natives, whom he hoped, rather, to unite closely with the French colonists. MacMahon took the other side. After awhile a famine came, and the Bishop appealed to the Christians of Europe for aid. The Marshal found in this appeal an implied accusation of himself as being indifferent to the people's distress, and denounced Mgr. Lavigerie to the Emperor as one who was setting the colony by the ears through the ardor of his proselyting. The Emperor thereupon wrote to the Bishop: "You have a great task to perform in preaching good morals to the two hundred thousand Catholic colonists in Algeria. As to the Arabs, leave to the Governor-General the care of disciplining them and accustoming them to our rule." Lavigerie protested at once, in a public letter addressed to MacMahon, complaining of his lack of courtesy, and maintaining his own right to work for the overthrow of all barriers between the two peoples. Then he set off for Saint Cloud, where he had a long interview with the Emperor, the result of which was a promise on his part of a proper deference towards the Governor-General, and, on the other, a letter published in the *Officiel* recognizing his right to continue and extend his conciliatory labors. The Marshal was furious, and declared that he would oppose the return of Lavigerie to Algiers, on the ground that his coming back would provoke disturbances. M. Baroche then intervened, and offered the Bishop another position, but he refused it. He went back to Algiers, and took possession of his see again. MacMahon never forgave him this defeat, and long after, when he was President of the republic, did his best to prevent his elevation to the cardinalate. It is to M. Jules Grévy that Mgr. Lavigerie owes his red hat.

— During the more than thirty years which have elapsed since the publication of Alberi's edition of Galileo's works in sixteen volumes (Florence, 1842–'56), the researches of Italian and German scholars have brought to light a considerable number of minor treatises from the pen of the great Pisan physicist, which contribute in no small degree to complete our knowledge of what he was and what he achieved as a pioneer in natural science. In view of these discoveries, and stimulated by the completion of Frisch's critical edition of Kepler's *opera omnia* (Frankfort, 1858–'70), the Italian Government resolved to publish a "national edition" of the works of Galileo which should be worthy of his illustrious name. The Minister of Public Instruction laid the subject before the Italian Parliament, which voted the neces ary funds without hesitation, and the King did honor to himself by becoming patron of the enterprise. The editorship in chief was confided to Prof. Antonio Favaro of Padua, who, in 1888, issued a pamphlet entitled, 'Per la Edizione Nationale delle Opere di Galileo Galilei,' in which he stated the critical and diplomatic principles which should guide him in the execution of his task. Associated with him is a corps of three eminent savants as counsellors, and two younger scholars as assistants. The first volume of this work has recently appeared (Florence: Barbèra), and forms a stately quarto of 430 pages. In accordance with the chronological, and therefore logical, arrangement of the dissertations and discourses adopted by the editor, we have here to do exclusively with comparatively youthful productions of Galileo, the results of studies made before he was twenty-eight years of age, while he was yet under the instruction of Ostilio Ricci, or was lecturing on mathematics in the University of Pisa. Many of the earlier papers, now printed for the first time from original manuscripts in the National Library at Florence, are mutilated beyond hope of restoration, and all of them reveal to us a young scientist who, however superior to his compeers in mental vigor and activity and in the elegance and fluency of his Latinity, is still in bondage to scholastic methods and to the supreme authority of the Stagirite. The most extended as well as the most mature treatise in the present volume is the concluding one, entitled "De Motu," in which Galileo takes the first step in the direction that led him to the discovery of the laws of motion and to the dungeons of the Inquisition. Perhaps there is no subject on which mediæval philosophers uttered such arrant and voluminous nonsense as on that of motion, of which they really knew nothing. Galileo now began to perceive the utter fruitlessness of such speculations, and to recognize the importance of experiment and observation as means of detecting the secrets of nature. It was the radical and revolutionary change of view and of method of investigation, which we see clearly indicated in this treatise, that roused the anger of the Aristotelians, and compelled the young mathematician to resign his professorship in 1591 and quit his native city. It is evident from this meagre analysis of the contents of the volume before us that their chief interest consists in the light which they throw upon the intellectual growth and scientific evolution of Galileo—an interest, however, which, in his case, is very great and quite peculiar. The editorial work, it may be added, is exceedingly well done, and the excellence of the typographical execution reflects credit upon the Florentine publishing-house.

THIRTY YEARS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY—II.

A History of Modern Europe. By C. A. Fyffe, M.A., etc. Vol. III. (1848-1878). Henry Holt & Co.

To note down and describe the outward and, as it were, visible history of a given period is a comparatively easy task; it is one of those tasks, at any rate, which a lively writer and a well-informed man such as Mr. Fyffe gets through with more or less success. The really difficult achievement is to note and analyze the flow of opinion, sentiment, or conviction which makes up the internal, and, so to speak, mental history of a generation. It is a matter with which Mr. Fyffe hardly concerns himself. Yet one may confidently assert that the essentially important characteristic of European history towards the close of the nineteenth century will ultimately prove to be the extraordinary change not only in the beliefs, but even more in the feelings, of mankind which took place, or at least became noticeable, during the thirty years which followed upon the political disturbances of 1848. At the bottom of all that alteration in men's theological, moral, social, and political opinions which is now at last forcing itself upon the attention of the world, lies one fact which, obvious and undeniable as is its existence, has hitherto received far less notice than it deserves. This fact is the existence throughout all the more civilized States of Europe, and notably in England, of a freedom of speech, or freedom of discussion, such as has hardly ever existed in anything like the same extent at any time of which we have historical record.

No doubt this state of things, which is popularly, but inaccurately, described as freedom of thought, has been coming into existence for a century and a good deal more than a century. The noticeable thing, however, is, that, under influences which it would take an essay or a treatise to describe or analyze with any fulness, freedom of discussion has, during the last thirty or forty years, been developed with extraordinary rapidity. The checks, legal, moral, or conventional, which restrained liberty of speaking and writing, have all and each been weakened or removed. Not thirty years have elapsed since the appearance of Mill's essay on Liberty. The applause which greeted the work was symptomatic; but the point to be here remarked is, that the whole language and tone of the essay is already obsolete. Mill assumes, and more than once in effect states, that on matters of the greatest importance thoughtful men held opinions which they dared not express, and that the only reason why the coercive tyranny of public opinion was little felt was, that a generation morally dwarfed by restraint did not feel the strength of chains which they never tried to break. No author who saw things as they are, could in 1890 use language which, if exaggerated, was natural in 1860. The moral courage necessary for the expression of unpopular opinion may

not have increased—an observer who was no cynic might maintain that moral cowardice was the special vice of the present time; but the less is attributed to courage the more must be attributed to freedom. It is plain that men can speak their minds, and do speak their minds, with perfect freedom about matters which, in 1860, could not, without risk of odium, be dealt with in the privacy of intimate conversation. Atheists, says a modern preacher, are nowadays not at all shy. Every word contained in 'Essays and Reviews' might now be published without attracting attention. Far stronger attacks on orthodoxy than anything contained in that celebrated volume appear every month in periodicals which lie on the tables of every well-to-do and respectable family in England. Socialism and communism are fashionable creeds. You may believe or disbelieve in any dogma or crotchet, and express your opinion, without incurring any blame which need trouble the equanimity of any man endowed with common sense or common courage.

All this, it will be said, is more true of England than of most European countries. This remark is true, but its only effect is to present another side of the very condition of opinion with which we are occupied. Freedom of discussion is practically better established in England than in any other European land; and England is, for the first time since the great Rebellion, the most revolutionary of modern States. Every institution is there open to discussion, and few are the English institutions or English convictions which will escape change. There is, of course, a general impression that freedom of discussion and consequent scepticism were far more prevalent in the France of 1790 than in the England of 1890. This notion is erroneous. The fierceness of the battle waged between contending forces during the great French Revolution would show, if other proof were wanting, how strong was still the power of conservatism. In England the combat between established beliefs of all kinds and their assailants is noiseless. The reason is that there is no widespread resistance to the freedom of criticism or of innovation. Liberty of discussion, and consequent disintegration of beliefs, whether social, political, or economical, is, we may be well assured, the note of the period of which Mr. Fyffe professes to be the historian. He never remarks this characteristic of the time—a characteristic, it must be admitted, which has become more noticeable since than before 1878—and he therefore hardly seems aware of the results which, even in the political world, have been produced by the subtle influence of criticism and debate.

Some of these results are so obvious and of such immediate importance as well to deserve attention. For example, two beliefs which in 1848 exerted untold influence, are losing their hold upon mankind. Enthusiasm for parliamentary institutions and enthusiasm for the doctrine of nationality were the mainsprings of the movements which in that year convulsed Europe. Even Socialists who, like Louis Blanc, were less inclined than most popular leaders of the day towards belief in constitutional or national ideals, still held that universal suffrage meant the triumph of Socialism, and were not consciously indifferent to the cause of national independence in Italy, Poland, or Germany; and the greater number of democrats firmly held that the establishment of representative government and of independent nations throughout Europe would be a panacea for all the evils affecting mankind. Parliaments now exist in every European State, but the belief in the blessings of government by parliament is yielding everywhere to denunciations of "parliamentarism." The new form of parliamentary legislature under which a representative assembly legislates but does not govern, expresses the prevalent, though it may be transitory, conviction that the true representative of a nation is a strong and independent national executive.

In such matters, opinion is governed in the main by palpable facts. Neither France, nor England, nor Italy is the country whose success attracts admiration. Germany is, whether rightly or not, looked upon as the leading State of Europe, and the creation of the German Empire, according to popular opinion, sprang from the triumph of Bismarck over the Parliament at Berlin. Freedom, according to the old democratic creed, was the source of national glory and power. But the national existence and the European supremacy of Germany have been achieved by the sword; and by a sword, be it remarked, which was sharpened in spite of the opposition of Liberals and Parliamentarians. Nationalism, it must be admitted, is still a force in the affairs of the world; but a calm observer may doubt whether the creed of nationality commands anything like the support which it commanded when preached by prophets like Mazzini amid the jeers of the respectable Liberalism of the day. There is no longer any nationality which fascinates the world with the charm of Italy when the treachery of France and the tyranny of Austria forbade the unity, and all but destroyed the freedom, of the Italian people. We all know now that an independent national existence is not of itself enough to renew or to create national genius, or even national prosperity. Spain is independent; but the Spanish nation contributes little or nothing to the progress of mankind. Italian unity is a great fact, and no one can restrain the hope that a country which in servitude produced men of genius, will, under the blessings of freedom, promote the reign of knowledge and enlightenment. But at the moment this is a matter of hope rather than experience. Mazzini, Cavour, Victor Emmanuel, and Garibaldi were in different ways men who arrested the gaze and the admiration of Europe. It were difficult to show that they have left successors; nor can it be said that Italy has, in the field of literature and science, displayed the talents which, thirty or forty years ago, were necessarily spent upon the solution of political problems. A free national government has also turned out in Italy an expensive form of government. The blessing is worth its price, but an Italian peasant would tell you that the price was a very heavy one.

It has, lastly, become clear enough that the doctrine of nationality is one of those doctrines which do not admit of thorough and consistent application. It may mean, and often does mean, the disintegration of great and prosperous communities. To restore Strassburg or Metz to France would be a satisfaction to French nationality, but a blow at the nationality of Germany. One of the best portions of Mr. Fyffe's last volume tells the tale of the reëstablishment of Hungarian independence; but this story makes perfectly clear that Hungarian independence is the triumph of one race among the several races represented in the Hungarian Diet. Add to all this that other ideals have for the last forty years been gradually coming into prominence which, if not actually opposed to the doctrine of nationality, are very different from it and may balance its influence.

In the place of these two beliefs have grown up two other convictions. The first is the doctrine which in 1848 was denounced by all respectable economists and politicians as Socialism. No doubt the Socialist or communistic schemes of the revolutionary era were crude ill-considered, and violent; but it was not their accidental defects, but their essential unsoundness, which offended the sober thinkers and the responsible statesmen of 1848. There are few men responsible for the conduct of national affairs who would to-day adopt any of the specific plans put forward by the French agitators who met at the Luxembourg. But the sentiment which lay at the bottom of these plans now pervades the whole of European society. Not many months have passed since a respectable and able peer, who represented the opinions of forty years ago, denounced in the House of Lords some proposal as Socialistic. He was reproved by the leader of the House and the head of the Conservative party, and told that men would not be frightened by words, and in effect that the denouncer of Socialism was behind his day. The German Emperor is no Liberal in the ordinary sense, but the German Emperor figures as the patron of State Socialism.

Look, again, at the benevolence of the time. It is very genuine and very active, but it is quite unlike the religious philanthropy of forty years back. It is in the main directed, even when under the hands of clergymen, not towards the direct saving of souls, but towards the deliverance of the people from physical want and misery. There was a great deal to be said—a good deal more than was actually said, either in the press or in Parliament—against the active part taken by a cardinal and a bishop to obtain good terms for the London dockers. But the fact that ecclesiastical dignitaries thought it right to come forward on behalf of workmen out on strike, is a sign of the times to which no one can shut his eyes. It exhibits the benevolence of the present generation, it exhibits also in a very marked manner that curious indifference to individual freedom, whether of masters or of men, which is a less pleasant feature of the time. This indifference to the kind of liberty of which Mill, though not always with perfect consistency, was the apostle, has a very close connection with the second of the two beliefs which have grown up since '48, and appear destined, for a time certainly, to spread and flourish.

This second conviction is a profound faith in men's collective action. It takes all sorts of shapes. In the mouth of most thinkers and politicians it is embodied in the repeated demand for the action of the State—that is to say, of the collective body of citizens. In every country of Europe, and notably in England, the duties of the Government are year by year increasing; and it should be noticed that demands for decentralization, as for the giving of additional powers to local bodies, are not demands that the State should cease to interfere, but that State interference should be carried out by local authorities. The same spirit, though in a different form and with different results, appears throughout the world in the sympathy felt with combinations of workmen intended to benefit the class of artisans or laborers, but also intended to confer this benefit by means of restraints placed on individual freedom. In one shape or another the idea constantly reappears that combined action, whether represented by the State or by powerful bodies within the State, must, for the benefit of the mass of mankind, coerce the selfishness, the egotism, or the eccentricity of individuals. It is no wonder that in Switzerland—a microcosm in which you may often

see an anticipation of the ideas which will ultimately prevail in the great world without—thoughtful men point out the imminence of an alliance between the Ultramontanes and the Socialists. Such a combination is natural; for ardent Catholics and ardent Socialists alike hold that the claims of a society, whether it be the Church or the State, are of paramount authority when they come into conflict with the rights of individuals.

A writer who attempts to state or analyze the ideas prevalent at a given time, especially if that time be the period in which he is living, is liable to be the victim of one gross but natural misconception on the part of his readers. They assume that any one who states that an idea or conviction is prevalent, or likely to prevail, means to assert that the idea is sound and entitled to admiration. There is, therefore, a real danger that an attempt to explain what are the thoughts which have influenced civilized mankind, especially in the realm of politics, during the last thirty or forty years, may be treated as a defence or eulogy of modern conceptions. It may be well to remind our readers that criticism need not in itself be either censure or apology. The plain truth is, that every change in the convictions of mankind, at any rate in the sphere of political and social life, implies loss as well as gain. All that in this notice of Mr. Fyffe's book we wish to insist upon is, that there is a side of the history of the years between 1848 and 1878 which he has entirely neglected. Our aim has been to call attention to a prodigious change—we might well say a revolution—in European modes of thought and feeling. This revolution is assuredly not all for good. The idea of 1848, that freedom would of itself be the salvation of mankind, was a noble conception, and generations must elapse before any one can fairly decide whether the world has gained or lost most by the fact that palpable successes which were not attained by the Liberalism of 1848, were gained by the blood-and-iron policy which will always be connected with the name of Bismarck. It is difficult to believe that any one who, say in 1908, takes up Mr. Fyffe's work, will not be called upon to admit that the world has suffered much from that gradual apostasy from faith in individual liberty which grew up between 1848 and 1878.

VENETIAN CENSORSHIP.

The Venetian Printing Press: An Historical Study, based upon documents for the most part previously unpublished. By Horatio F. Brown. With twenty-two facsimiles. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 4to.

THE only fault we have to find with this sumptuous volume is its sumptuousness. If it were a work intended merely for bibliophiles and dilettanti; if its sphere were confined to enumerating the typographical peculiarities of the 'Decor Puellarum' and the artistic effects of the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' or to reviewing the successive triumphs of Spira and Jenson, of Valdarfer, Ratdolt, and Manuzio, its ponderous size, its generous type and margins, the thickness of the paper, the lavish facsimiles, and the limited edition would all be in place. Bibliophiles would prize it for its beauty as well as for the minuteness of information with which it condenses and supplements the older labors of Hain and Panzer, and the more recent ones of Fulin, Soranzo, and Castellani. But it is much more than a mere work of antiquarian bibliography. It is an historical study of first-rate importance, largely based on original researches, and as such it ought to be accessible to the student without the restrictions imposed by undue bulk and excessive cost.

We presume Mr. Brown to be the son of the late Rawdon Brown, whose long-continued labors in the Venetian archives contributed so much interesting material to the English Calendars of State Papers. He has, therefore, doubtless an hereditary acquaintance with those archives, which at the Frari and Museo Civico offer so large a series of records rendered accessible by careful arrangement and the liberal courtesy of the custodians. Of these opportunities he has made abundant use. More than half of his volume consists of an appendix of original documents which are of great interest. With such sources at his command, it is easy to understand how valuable a contribution the author has made, not only to the history of the printing art, but to that of literature and human thought. Thus the extracts from the day-book of a bookseller in 1484, preserved in the Marciana, by its lists of sales shows us what demand existed for books of every kind and their current prices, while the account of stock and entries of daily purchases afford us a curious insight into the mental activity of the period.

There is scarce any subject connected with the production and distribution of literature on which new light is not thrown, but it is to the most interesting and important of these that Mr. Brown devotes the greater part of his investigations—the regulation and censorship of the press. In the lands of the Roman obedience this has exercised an immense influence upon intellectual development, varying in proportion to the rigidity of its enforcement. In France the papal Index was treated with little respect, and in Catholic Germany with not much more. Spain was powerful enough to erect and manage for herself the machinery with which she crushed the intellect of her people. Venice would gladly have maintained the same independence, which she vainly asserted and endeavored to exercise with a wiser regard for the commercial as well as the intellectual interests of the community; but after the League of Cambrai the strength of the Republic was on the decline, and in the prolonged struggle with the Congregations of the Inquisition and of the Index it constantly lost ground. The questions involved were very intricate. No one pretended to champion freedom of thought or liberty of the press. The State sought to protect itself, as earnestly as the Church, against all ideas savoring of dangerous innovation, and both were perfectly willing to unite in stamping out heresy; but there was a wide field in which their respective pretensions were wholly incompatible, the State asserting its independent autocracy in temporal affairs, and the Church ever on the watch to extend its *potestatem in temporalia in ordine ad spiritualia*. For this it found the censorship an exceedingly convenient and effective instrument. All books which maintained the rights of the sovereign were promptly put on the Index. To this it was impossible for the sovereign to submit, and the quarrels which thence arose were bitter and prolonged.

The spirit in which the contest was carried on by both sides may be gathered from a single incident. The Venetian printers, Gianbattista Ciotto, Zoan Antonio, and Jacopo de' Franceschi, were printing the 'Disputatio de Censuris' of Suarez. In the fifth volume the Senate obliged them to omit certain passages, for the subject was one which bore directly on the power of the Church to coerce the State with its censures, and so orthodox a writer as the Jesuit Suarez could hardly fail to take a position obnoxious to the secular authorities. Hardly had the volume left the press when, in August, 1606, the Holy Congregation of the Index thundered forth a decree denouncing it as an audacious forgery. The unhappy printers were forbidden for the future to print books of any kind, under pain of excommunication, removable only by the Pope, and booksellers everywhere were prohibited from purchasing any such books from them, under penalty of excommunication *latæ sententiæ*, a fine of 200 ducats to the Apostolic Chamber, and such other arbitrary punishment as the Congregation might order.* Presumably, the unlucky printers, thus ground between the upper and the nether millstone, were ruined.

It was in vain that the Signiory endeavored to protect the flourishing printing industry against the crushing blows of Rome. It might defend a printer himself from penalties decreed against him, but an excommunication pronounced against a product of his press necessarily limited its market and rendered it unsalable. The Venetian population was insufficient to support the vast industry which looked to all Europe for a market, and when the Roman censorship was enforced, that industry received a fatal blow. Within a few months after the publication, in 1596, of the Index of Clement VIII. with its rigorous regulations, the number of Venetian presses fell off from one hundred and twenty-five to forty. In 1596 there were twenty-four copyrights taken out; in 1597 only seven. Printers left Venice in such numbers that in 1602 the Senate enacted a law to prevent their emigration without special license. The Signiory did what it could to prevent the decay of the printing art, but its position was fatally false. It was thoroughly Catholic at heart, there was no thought of a Reformation, and the cumbrous censorship which it established itself, coöperated with that of Rome in surrounding the business with so much formality and so many risks that it could not flourish. The story is an instructive one, and is told by Mr. Brown with abundant new detail and ample knowledge.

OUR NEXT NEIGHBOR.

The Constitution of Canada. By J. E. C. Munro. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

IT is only two years since the appearance of the work entitled 'Manual of the Constitutional History of Canada,' by Mr. J. G. Bourinot, clerk to the House of Commons of that country. Prior to the appearance of this book, two others by the same author had been published, one entitled 'Parliamentary Practice and Procedure in Canada,' the other 'Local Government in Canada.' Before these, came the work of Mr. Todd on Constitutional Government in the British Colonies, in which constitutional customs in Canada are discussed at length. With these treatises accessible, it could not be said that information concerning the Government of the Dominion of Canada was lacking. Nor should we omit to mention the work of Sir Edward Watkin, entitled 'Canada and the States,' containing recollections from 1851 to 1886. Although the main purpose of this book was to trace the development of the railway system of Canada, of which Sir Edward was one of the chief promoters, yet it contains a great deal of matter of political interest.

But the work of Mr. Munro is the most comprehensive manual on government in Canada that has as yet appeared. It contains in all twen-

* Mr. Brown (p. 161) gives an imperfect abstract of this decree from Reusch. It is to be found in the Index Alexandri VII., Romæ, 1664, Index Decret. n., vi.

ty-one chapters. Giving, first, a general view of the scheme of government in that country, it treats of the constitutional history of the Provinces, of the sources of the law and customs of the Constitution, of the Provincial Legislatures, Assemblies, and Legislative Councils, of methods of legislation and of administration under the Dominion and Provincial Governments, of the judicial power, of the distribution of legislative power, of the Parliament of the Dominion, and of Imperial control.

The fact that Canada is part of the British Empire, and bears the name of a colonial dependency, tends to detract from the interest which its institutions would excite if it were nominally an independent State. In reality, Canada is independent to such an extent that, in all matters relating to its vigorous colony, the Imperial Government has been reduced to a state of practical subserviency. One by one the prerogatives of the Crown and of the Home Government have been yielded up, until their existence has become chiefly suppositional. Instead of contributing to the support of that Government, we find the Dominion levying customs duties on importations from England, not merely for revenue, but also for the "protection of home industries." Although the power of entering into treaties with foreign governments has not been conferred on the Dominion, yet the Parliament of Canada has "all powers necessary or proper for performing the obligations of Canada or of any province thereof as part of the British Empire towards foreign countries arising under treaties between the empire and such foreign countries." Recently the Canadian Parliament has passed a law to authorize extradition of criminals without reference to the treaties. The exercise by the Dominion of the power to execute treaties is very familiar to the people of the United States in its application to the Fisheries Treaty of 1818, for the enforcement of which according to its own views the Dominion has adopted statutory provisions, into the support of which the Imperial Government has doubtless been rather violently drawn. So it was with a hesitation by no means concealed that the British Parliament, against much opposition, made a grant of a subsidy to a line of steamers plying between Vancouver and Hong Kong.

The people of Canada enjoy and are proud of their practical independence, and would be quick to resent any aggressions by the Crown upon their privileges. On the other hand, the same spirit of independence has prevented the growth of a desire for political connection with any other government than that now nominally supreme. It is a common error in this country to associate any opposition in Canada to the exercise of Imperial prerogatives with a supposed predilection for political union with the United States. This error sometimes prevails so far as to lead to the attribution of annexation sentiments to the whole Liberal party in Canada, that being *par excellence* the party of opposition to Imperial encroachments. It is true that whatever annexation sentiment there may be is chiefly, if not wholly, found within that party. But it is gravely erroneous to suppose that it represents, either avowedly or secretly, a movement towards annexation.

In the great reorganization of government in Canada which took place in the formation of the Dominion and the passage by the Imperial Parliament of the British North America Act in 1867, many suggestions were taken from the Constitution of the United States and the British Constitution, and adapted to the conditions then existing under the systems of government in the various British North American colonies. It is true that specified powers only were given to the Provinces, the balance of legislative power being vested either in the Dominion or in the Imperial Parliament. But if we turn to the exclusive powers of legislation committed to the Provincial legislatures, we find that they have a very wide scope. They extend, generally, to the amendment of the Provincial constitutions; to the laying of direct taxes and the borrowing of money for Provincial purposes; to the establishment and tenure of Provincial offices; to the management of prisons, charities, schools, and municipal institutions; to the creation and regulation of property and civil rights, and the administration of justice in the Provinces; and, generally, to all matters of a merely local or private nature. As in the United States, we often find laws of the Dominion and laws of the Provinces operating upon the same subject. Thus there exists a general act of the Dominion, known as the Scott Act, in regard to the sale of intoxicating liquors. At the same time, under the power to license saloons, we find various stringent local regulations on the subject.

To the exercise by the Provinces of their powers in relation to education we find certain limitations. Thus, a Provincial law is not permitted prejudicially to affect any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools which any class of persons may have had at the time of the Union. From any act or decision of any Provincial authority touching such schools an appeal lies to the Governor-General in Council, and in certain events the Dominion Parliament may make remedial laws. These provisions are suggestive of the social complications and antagonisms which were so prominently exhibited not long since in the commotion over the Jesuits' Estates Act.

In constituting the Legislature of the Dominion, the British Parliament was taken as the model, but some important departures from it were made. There is a popular branch, called the House of Commons, but the upper house, as in the United States, is called the Senate, and the hereditary principle found in the House of Lords has been discarded. The Canadian Senate contains 80 members, of whom Ontario has 24, Quebec 24, Nova Scotia 10, New Brunswick 10, Prince Edward's Island 4, British Columbia 3, Manitoba 3, the Northwest Territories 2. Senators are appointed by the Governor-General for life. They must be thirty years of age, and must hold real and personal property of the value of $4,000 over and above their debts and liabilities. This property qualification they must continue to possess, and each Senator is required, under a resolution of that body adopted in 1880, to take, within twenty days from the opening of the first session of each Parliament, an oath containing a declaration that he holds property of the value required.

The House of Commons is composed of 215 members, apportioned among the various Provinces, approximately to population. No property qualification is required to hold a seat in the Commons. The elective franchise is regulated by a Dominion act passed in 1885. Prior to that time the electors of the House of Commons were such persons in each Province as were qualified to vote for members of the Provincial Assembly. Although, under the British North America Act of 1867, the Parliament of the Dominion had the power to provide for a uniform franchise, it was not until 1885 that Provincial opposition sufficiently abated to permit the power to be exercised. As in England, the practice of introducing money bills on the advice of a responsible Minister was adopted, and in matters of practice the precedents of the British House are generally followed.

In 1875 there was established a Supreme Court of the Dominion, consisting of a Chief Justice and five puisne judges. This Court, as Mr. Munro observes, is not supreme in the American sense, since an appeal may lie to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. Among other powers, the Supreme Court of Canada has jurisdiction in controversies between the Dominion and a Province, or between Provinces, or to determine the validity of Provincial laws, where the Legislature of any Province shall have passed an act agreeing to such jurisdiction. British Columbia, Ontario, and Nova Scotia have each passed such an act.

Our Dictionaries, and Other English-Language Topics. By R. O. Williams. Henry Holt & Co. 1890.

THIS little book is mainly taken up with notes upon the use of a few words. The hasty dictum of Dr. E. A. Freeman, that the non-ecclesiastical use of *metropolis* is "slang," is easily and amply refuted. Mr. Williams well says that "for more than two hundred years the secular meaning has been the prominent one," and the only reason for not extending the statement is that Elizabethan secular writers were not fond of the Greek forms. They often alluded to London as the "mother towne" of England.

The account of "our dictionaries" could not well be flimsier; but a discriminating guide to books of reference, useful as it would be, can hardly be looked for from American publishers. "The examples collected by Johnson," says Mr. Williams, "have formed the main stock of the citations used by subsequent dictionary-makers." This, of course, does not apply to Richardson, to say nothing of Murray. The 'Century Dictionary' has as many quotations as Johnson and Richardson together. It is no wonder that the fraction of the population which has not been engaged in the production of this world of words, has included every person capable of supervising the quotations in a really masterly way; for there was no possibility of competing with Murray and his 1,300 readers. Still, most of the 'Century' citations are judicious and unexceptionable; and if the treatment of them is less severely scientific, it is more agreeable than that of the Philological Society's vast collection.

In the first ten pages of part xvi. of the 'Century' (the latest to hand), we count 260 quotations, fewer than in the earlier parts of the work, which seems to be overrunning its limits. Quotations under *pilfer* from Dryden and Bacon, under *pilgrim* from Grew's 'Anatomy of Plants,' and under *pilotage* from Raleigh, have been taken from Johnson, apparently without verification, and quotations under *pillery* from Daniel and under *pimping* from Crabbe have been similarly drawn from the 'Imperial.' An abridged quotation and wrong definition, under *pinax*, come from Webster. We may state here that a few references appear to be either erroneous, misleading, or insufficient. Under *pile*, in the electrical sense, it might have been well to quote from Volta's own description, which was originally published in English.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 6, 1890.

The Week.

THE main cause of the cyclone which has emptied seventy Republican seats in Congress, is the wicked and unprincipled measure which that party devised to pay the campaign debts of Quay and Wanamaker. The cash that was subscribed to elect Harrison was charged up to the American people in a gross, uncounted sum. It was to be collected by duties on tin plate, worsted cloth, carpet wool, pearl buttons, and a thousand other things that enter into the food and raiment of the people. Such a bill could never have been carried except as a cash transaction, so much for so much. The result is now before us. At this writing, the Republican party has lost all of New England except Maine and Vermont. It has lost New York, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Wisconsin, Kansas, and Nebraska, and probably Michigan and Illinois and Montana. It has given the Democrats a greater majority than they ever had in any Congress since the time of Andrew Jackson. This result has come about spontaneously, in the face of imbecility or indifference on the part of the National Democratic Committee.

The lurid appeal with which the Chairman of the Republican Congressional Committee, Mr. Belden, closed the late campaign, showed that he expected defeat. The document reads like one of the forged and garbled foreign press extracts with which Belden stuffed his campaign circulars, for it is full from beginning to end of misstatements and obvious falsehoods. The gem of the collection is the following:

"These were the chief features of their campaign. Supplementary to them, however, was another not less infamous. It was a grand conspiracy to raise the values of all the necessaries of life, and to charge that inflation to the new Republican Tariff Bill. In order to enjoy the spoils of office, they undertook to create a condition of the market whereby the people would be shamelessly swindled out of hundreds of thousands of dollars. This conspiracy has failed. The people have discovered that the new Tariff Law is not going to cause a rise of prices or any business disturbance, and they perceive that it is going to create larger and better markets for our farmers, to build up many new industries, to give employment to thousands of workmen now idle or insufficiently occupied, and to maintain the present high rate of American wages."

We doubt if any less experienced person than an ex-Canal-Ring contractor would have ventured upon the public statement, first, that the recent general advance in prices was due to a "Democratic conspiracy," and second, that the conspiracy has failed—that is to say, that prices have not been raised. He goes on to say that the "people have discovered that the new (McKinley) law is not going to cause a rise in prices." Have they, indeed?

The election of William E. Russell as Governor of Massachusetts is a deserved triumph for a worthy candidate after an inspiring campaign. Mr. Russell has every personal qualification to adorn the high office which the Bay State used to reserve for its most distinguished citizens, until the Republicans set the bad example of letting a rich nobody have it in exchange for heavy campaign contributions; and he has won the place after a fair contest in the open field as the champion of reform in State and national administrations alike. His success puts the Democratic party in Massachusetts on a sounder basis than it has occupied before for a generation. It means much more than the victories of Gaston in 1874 and of Butler in 1882, and it will injure the chances of the Republican party in the future more than either of those events. In the last Presidential election before 1874, Massachusetts gave the Republican candidate a plurality of 74,212; in the first Presidential election after 1874, the Republican plurality sank to 41,286. In the last Presidential election before 1882, the Republican plurality was 53,245; in the first Presidential election after 1882, the Republican plurality sank to 24 243. As the Republican plurality in the last Presidential election before 1890 was only 32,037, Mr. Russell's victory this year ought to make Massachusetts a doubtful State in the next Presidential election.

The great explanatory fact of the municipal election in this city is that over 30,000 of those who registered did not vote. That Tammany polled its full vote appears to be certain. It polled the largest vote it has ever had, but only 1,000 more than in 1888. It therefore has plainly owed its victory not to any marked increase in its own strength, but to the abstention of its opponents. Erhardt and Hewitt together cast 145,000 votes against Tammany in 1888. On Tuesday the total anti-Tammany vote only amounted to 94,000. So it still apparently remains true that Tammany is in a decided minority in this city. What was the cause of this enormous number of abstentions? Here we are in the region of pure guesswork. A partial solution of the mystery is the mutual distrust of the Republicans and Democrats. The Republicans could not bear to vote for a Democrat, and the Democrats, feeling the wave of popular hostility roused by Republican performances in Congress, could not bear to inflict on Democrats a defeat of which the Republicans wou'd have got a large share of the credit and profit. Each side, too, suspected the other of unfaithfulness to the combination ticket, and one or the other was undoubtedly right; perhaps both were right in some degree.

To this cause must be added the simple negligence or indifference of probably thousands of well-to-do people. Some did not take the trouble to register, and others who did register, would not, as the day was fine, waste any part of it in voting. This class of abstainers we have always with us. They include the rich, who, to use Mr. W. W. Astor's words in refusing to subscribe to the expenses of the Municipal League, "have no political interests in New York." The meaning of this is, that they find it cheaper and far less troublesome to buy Tammany when Tammany becomes oppressive and annoying, than to fight Tammany in the political arena. If Tammany gets into power, they can always protect themselves against it by drawing a check; whereas, if they oppose it with their vote and influence, and it succeeds in spite of them, they are exposed to its vengeful levies on their property as well as to smaller annoyances. This class has always been friendly to the worst Tammany men, even to the Tweed Ring. The late reform movement may therefore be said to have failed signally to divorce municipal business from politics.

There is one Southern State where there need be no question as to the reason why a small Republican vote is polled. In Virginia, Mahone, who controls the party organization, has openly advised Republicans not to vote. He is himself a resident of the Petersburg district, which elected Venable, a white Democrat, two years ago, only to have Langston, the colored Republican, put in his place. He therefore writes a letter to the County Chairman, in which he says that Langston is not a resident of the State, that he is not the nominee of the Republican party, that he is a disorganizer, that his election would be detrimental to the interests of both parties, and that he hopes he will be defeated. In the Richmond district Mahone's Chairman of the Republican Committee issued an address calling upon the voters of his party not to participate in the election of Congressmen, and saying that on the day of the election his Committee would have a man at each of the polling-places in the district to advise the negroes not to vote. Mahone's object was clear. He was overwhelmingly beaten when he ran for Governor himself a year ago, and he knows that Republican candidates will be beaten so long as he controls the organization and such candidates are recognized as being only his dummies.

Senator Aldrich went to Brookline, Mass., the other day, to make a speech in defence of the McKinley Bill. As usual, he made a lot of very glaring misstatements of fact. Among others he said that the duty on pig-iron had been "constantly decreasing" from 1828 to the present time, and he gave what he called the figures of the different tariffs to show this, as follows:

"In 1816 the duty on pig-iron was $10; in 1828 it was $12.50; in 1832 and 1833 it was $10; in 1842 it was $9; in 1862 it was $9; in 1864 it was $7, and in this bill it is $6.72 per ton; a constantly decreasing rate of duty."

Mr. Horace P. Tobey, an iron-manufacturer, now addresses a letter to Mr. Aldrich, hauling him over the coals generally, and exposing in particular his falsehood about the duty on pig-iron. We say falsehood with

deliberation and intent in this case because it is impossible that Mr Aldrich should be ignorant of the real facts, which are these: The duty on pig-iron was first imposed in 1818, the article having been on the free list for one hundred and seventy-six years in our colonial and national life, and having been largely exported by us to Great Britain. The duty in 1818 was fifty cents per cwt., or $10 per ton. The duty of 50 cents per cwt. lasted till 1828, when it was raised to 62½ cents per cwt. Under Clay's compromise tariff of 1832, it was put on the sliding scale at $12.50 per ton. Under the sliding scale it was reduced gradually to 20 per cent. ad valorem. By the tariff of 1842 it was fixed at $10 per ton By that of 1846 it was 30 per cent. ad valorem. By the tariff of 1857 it was reduced to 24 per cent. The Morrill tariff of 1861 fixed it at $6 per ton, which was raised to $9 in 1864 by way of compensating manufacturers for the internal taxes. In 1870 the duty was reduced to $7, the internal taxes having been repealed. By the tariff of 1883 the duty was reduced a small fraction, to $6.72 per ton, at which rate it stands in the McKinley Bill.

But Mr. Tobey makes the case much plainer by showing what have been the equivalent ad valorem rates all this time. Of course, as the cost of making pig-iron becomes cheaper the duty levied by the ton becomes greater, and thus it has come about that the present duty, $6.72 per ton, is very nearly the highest in the history of the country. The percentages are as follows:

Date.	Duty on each $100
1816–1827	
1828–1831	$40.00
1832	44.44
1833–1841	45.28
1842–1845	50.90
1846–1856	30.00
1857–1860	24.00
1861–1863	40.00
1864–1869	58.70
187 –1871	46.66
1872–1873	18.33
1874–1882	40.58
1883–1890	58.20

Will Mr. Aldrich ever reply to or notice in any way Mr. Tobey's letter? Probably not.

It is pleasant to learn, on the testimony of Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, that the binding-twine manufacturers will be able to "go on" with a protection of only 7-10 cent per pound. So Mr. Lodge said in his speech at Charlestown, Mass., last week. His words are thus reported in the Boston papers:

"We gave the cordage factories free raw material; it is perfectly right and proper that they should have it. Farmers raised a cry that they wanted free binder-twine. The duty we put upon it in the House was stricken off in the Senate. Then petitions commenced to flow in from the men who worked in factories. They didn't go to the Democratic party, they came to the Republican party. They said: Give us a duty on binder-twine that we may not be ruined; and we saved enough for them to go on, I hope."

We are particular to quote what Mr. Lodge said, because it presents such a fine contrast to a statement made by the binding-twine manufacturers in writing to the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Finance while the matter was pending in the House, viz.:

"SIR: The cordage and binder-twine manufacturers of the United States beg that your honorable committee will amend that clause in the Tariff Bill which relates to our business. It places a duty of 1¼ cents per pound upon binder-twine. *Should this become a law, it will close our mills.* We ask for 1¾ cents per pound, an increase of one-half cent."

Directly on the heels of the enactment of a rate of duty more than half a cent lower than they said would "close our mills," they became so cheerful that they offered a large part of their property in the form of preferred stock to the public, and advertised that they were in very prosperous circumstances, and had formed a combination which would insure a continuance of the prosperity. And now Mr. Lodge underwrites them to the extent of believing that they lied when they submitted their written statement to Senator Morrill.

Mr. Henry L. Pierce, one of the ablest and most honorable Representatives Massachusetts Republicans have ever sent to Congress, has been on the stump against his old party. Addressing a large audience on Tuesday week in Boston on the tariff, he made a most effective answer to those who thought the McKinley Bill had either settled the tariff issue, or ought, in the interest of business, to be considered as having settled it. He recalled something which we think has during the past year been running greatly in the minds of reflecting men—the striking parallel between the views and methods of the high-tariff men now and those of the pro-slavery men during the closing years of slavery—the arrogance, the self-confidence, the eagerness to adopt any device, however high-handed, to carry their point; the readiness to believe that every piece of legislation they forced through was a final settlement. He recalled Clay's belief that the compromise measures of 1850 had permanently settled the controversy, and his appeal to the Senate to stop all further discussion; Cass's belief that the slavery question "was settled in the public mind," and that "it was useless to make speeches about it"; Choate's belief that these measures were "a mighty charm," which had "calmed the madness and anxiety of the hour." With these he compared Chase's emphatic deliverance, that the question had been "avoided but not settled," and Hale's passionate exclamation:

"And now gentlemen flatter themselves that they have done a great deed for the peace of the country. . . . There was a time when a set of men cried, Peace, peace, when there was no peace. . . . Gentlemen altogether mistake the character of the people whose sentiments have been violated, whose wishes have been disregarded, and whose interests have been trampled in the dust."

The Baltimore *American*, a sound McKinley paper, recently said (October 28):

"In commerce and mechanics this country is a giant; in art she is an infant. The great works of the great masters of Europe are a part, and an important part, of her artistic education. Competition with them is out of the question. They are a stimulating and needed help to American art. A tariff on them is an obstacle to our own artistic growth."

But we thought the true doctrine was that it was in commerce and mechanics that this country was an "infant." If it be "a giant" in these things, where is the need of protection? Giants do not as a rule need protection when in good health. Why should we all be compelled to subscribe to keep giants on their legs? And how does the *American* know that competition with European art is "out of the question" if aided by a good tariff? True, we have no Rembrandts, or Rubenses, or Millets, or Corots, or Rousseaus; but would not a 30 per cent. duty have produced them before long? We have no tin-plate manufacture in this country now, but is not the high duty sure to produce a great deal of it? We have been informed by an American artist of distinction that there is now a Corot factory over in Hoboken at which you can order Corots by the dozen, and which sells large numbers of them to Western millionaires. Of course they are not yet as good as the French Corots, but they surely would have been before long if the duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem had been left on the French article. Whether we can ever turn out genuine Corots with only the 15 per cent. of protection given by the McKinley Bill, is questionable. We do not believe we can.

In our increasing collection of trade circulars showing advance of prices of goods under the McKinley Bill, we find a rather unique document. A firm engaged in selling fire-arms had sent out a circular advancing prices in consequence of the new tariff. One of their customers replied to the circular that it was "all humbug." "We should like to know," said the indignant buyer, "how the tariff operates to increase the price of guns made in this country?" The letter closed by offering to pay the old prices for guns, but refusing to pay a cent more. Of course, the seller of the guns can only wait and let the buyer see whether he can get them at the old price. He will perhaps find out after a little that Congress did not spend nine months in passing a bill that was "all humbug."

The utter worthlessness of the census of 1890 is demonstrated by the final announcement that the population of the country is only 62,480,540. It is no wonder that Superintendent Porter feels constrained to issue a long and labored attempt at defence of so entirely unexpected and so obviously absurd a result. His chief reliance is the admitted fact that the census of 1870 was untrustworthy, especially in the South, and the consequent claim that nobody ought to be surprised that the rate of growth between 1880 and 1890 has been on the face of the returns only 24.57 per cent., against an apparent gain of 30.08 per cent. between 1870 and 1880. The real test of the census of 1890 is a comparison with the enumerations of 1860 and 1880, both of which are accepted as correct, leaving that of 1870 out of the account. In 1860 the population was 31,443,321 and in 1880, 50,155,783—being a gain of 59.51 per cent. for twenty years, or at the rate of 29.75 per cent. in ten years. The Porter count in 1890 shows only 62,480,540 people—a gain of but 24.57 per cent. in the last ten years. The period from 1860 to 1880 included the era of the civil war, with the consequent loss, directly

and indirectly, of many hundreds of thousands of human lives; the panic of 1873 and the several years of "hard times" which followed it; and two periods when immigration fell to very small figures, first during the war and then after the panic. Yet, despite all these drawbacks, the growth of population during each of these two decades was at the rate of almost 30 per cent. On the other hand, during the last decade, the number of immigrants reached the immense total of 5,242,530, or nearly twice as many as ever before landed in the same period; the country has been prosperous; there has been a greater advance in sanitary science, and consequently a smaller death-rate, than in any previous ten years; and yet Mr. Porter would have us believe that the growth of population has been far less than during the stormy and disastrous period between 1860 and 1880! It would be a waste of words to argue such a question.

The thing which ought to be done is to confess frankly that the Porter count is absolutely worthless, and have a new census taken by a man in whom the country would have the same confidence that it felt in Gen. Francis A. Walker ten years ago. It is intolerable that a reapportionment of Congressmen and Presidential Electors for the next ten years should be based upon these obviously incorrect figures. Aside from the injustice to States and to parties, it is a disgrace to the national reputation that, in this age of progress in statistical science, the Government should stand by a census which is on its face a fraud. It would, of course, be disagreeable to confess that so bad a blunder had been made, but it is far better to confess the blunder than to commit the crime of sustaining a humbug. If the Porter count is to be accepted, the Federal census of 1890 will have to take its place beside that of 1870 as worthless, and we shall have to wait until 1900 for a trustworthy enumeration of our people.

People who thought that the Constitutional Convention in Mississippi would furnish evidence that the South does not accept the failure of secession and the supremacy of the Federal Constitution, are disappointed. The new instrument contains the explicit declaration that "the right to withdraw from the Federal Union on account of any real or supposed grievances shall never be assumed by this State, nor shall any law be passed in derogation of the paramount allegiance of the citizens of this State to the Government of the United States." A little opposition was manifested when the clause was reported from the Committee, and a substitute was proposed declaring that the State, a "coequal member of an indissoluble Federal Union of indestructible States," would never assume the right to withdraw from that Union, and stopping there; but it was voted down, after Gen. Lee, the officer who carried the order to open fire on Fort Sumter twenty-nine years ago, had told his fellow-delegates that he came out of the war convinced that secession was not only impracticable, but wrong, and that he believed every man who had "toted" a musket for four years in the service of the late Confederacy shared that conviction.

A bill has been introduced in the Vermont Legislature to give taxable women the right to vote in town, village, and fire districts, and the Burlington *Free Press* expresses the opinion of most candid men when it declares that "a refusal to grant this privilege is to argue that taxation without representation is just and right." But it adds that there is one thing which will tell against the bill, and that is the fact that "the women of Vermont, as a whole, to all appearances do not care a fig whether they are given the right of suffrage or not." Although a number of petitions for the measure have been presented in the Legislature, the circulators of such petitions have found the work rather discouraging, not a single woman being found within the limits of one town in the northern part of the State who was willing to give her signature when the place was canvassed a fortnight ago. The *Free Press* concludes that "either the women of Vermont do not want the right to vote, or it is an 'off' year in suffrage circles," and it thinks that "until they give more positive expression to their desires in this direction, the Legislature is not likely to give the subject very serious consideration." It is true everywhere else, as in Vermont, that it is now the women, rather than the men, who need to be converted to woman suffrage.

An amusing illustration of the way in which offices are sought in this country is afforded by a letter published in the *Iowa State Register* from Samuel McNutt, asking to have the address of his paper changed from Maracaibo, Venezuela, to Muscatine, Iowa. It appears that the *Register* came to be sent to Maracaibo because Mr. McNutt was appointed consul there; "but," he says, "after a full survey of my field of operations, my surroundings, and the manner in which I must live (or die) in that torrid and enervating clime, I came to the conclusion that it was best for me to return home and resign, which I have done, and I have requested the department to continue in the consulate Mr. Plumacher, who has held the office twelve years (and has had the yellow fever twice) and is acclimated." In other words, Mr. McNutt sought and secured an office at Maracaibo without knowing anything about the climate, manner of life, or character of the people of Venezuela; and as soon as he learned these fundamental facts, he turned about and came home. What fools the passion for office does make of men!

The women of Baltimore, with some assistance from those of other cities, have raised the $100,000 which the Johns Hopkins University exacted as a condition of the admission of women to the benefits of the new Medical School of the University. The money has been accepted by the Trustees, and when the school is opened, women will have access to it on the same footing as men, provided they have followed the same preliminary medical course, and provided that this preliminary training has been "obtained in some other institution of learning devoted in whole or in part to the education of women, or by private tuition." But no immediate benefit is to be derived from it, because the medical school will not be opened until an endowment amounting to $500,000 has been accumulated for its maintenance. We believe that consummation is not very far off. When it is reached, women will be placed on a better footing as regards medical education than ever before, as the Johns Hopkins Hospital will in its staff and equipment be one of the best in the world.

Balfour has gone to Ireland partly under the sting of John Morley's denunciation of his absenteeism, but in a greater degree, doubtless, under the sting of the Eccles election, to see for himself the state of the country. This, be it remembered, is the first visit of the kind made by a man, a complete stranger by birth and education, to a country which he has for four years been governing arbitrarily, by means of a military force backed by sham courts of justice, hardly distinguishable, either in composition or procedure, from a regimental court-martial. During the whole of these four years he has never hesitated to give the lie, almost in terms, about the condition of Ireland to all statements made even as eye-witnesses by all members of the Opposition, whether English or Irish; relying on the reports made to him by furiously partisan subordinates. It is only at the eleventh hour, in the shadow of an impending general election, that he has roused himself from his aristocratic lethargy sufficiently to go over the ground in person and see who was lying. What he undoubtedly now sees is, that a very considerable portion of the west of Ireland cannot produce rent for a landlord except through a life of abject poverty and degradation on the part of the actual cultivator of the soil. The land question in all these districts really is the question—since one of two, landlord or tenant, has to quit, which it should be; or in other words, whether property in land is of such an absolute nature that a landlord would be justified in depopulating huge tracts of territory if it so pleased him, and would be entitled to the aid of all the public force necessary to enable him to do so. The question is a knotty one, both from the economical and moral point of view. But it would seem, at all events at first blush, as if, inasmuch as the Irish landlords owe their very existence as landlords for two centuries not to the popular sentiment of their countrymen, but to overwhelming physical force furnished from the outside, they ought to be removed by the English Government, and compensated for their ownership out of the English Treasury. It seems very difficult to justify their claim on the Irish taxpayers which Balfour's Land Bill sets up.

CHEAP OR DEAR?

SECRETARY BLAINE took a hand last week in the family discussion which is in progress in the Republican party as to whether or not it is desirable and patriotic for an American citizen to wish to buy things cheaply. He takes the ground squarely that it is, and in this respect he differs radically from President Harrison, Mr. McKinley, and Mr. Lodge, and both agrees and differs with Speaker Reed. In order to avoid all danger of seeming to misrepresent the leading lights of the party on this question, we will quote the position of each of them in his own words. The President said: "I am one of those uninstructed political economists that have an impression that some things may be too cheap; that I cannot find myself in full sympathy with this demand for cheaper coats, which seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coats." Mr. McKinley goes even further than the President, and says: "'Cheap' and 'nasty' go together. This whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty, for cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country, and that is not the kind our fathers builded. Furthermore, it is not the kind their sons mean to maintain." Mr. Lodge is firmly upon the same ground, saying: "The cry for cheapness is un-American. There is such a thing as too much cheapness."

Speaker Reed occupies a middle ground between these authorities and Mr. Blaine, owing to an unfortunate combination of circumstances. Mr. McKinley very thoughtlessly failed to give the Speaker notice that he was "coming out" against cheapness, in time to prevent the latter from going on the record in favor of it. It happened, therefore, that while he was on his way to help Mr. McKinley in the West, the Speaker stopped at Buffalo, and, on the evening preceding that upon which Mr. McKinley delivered the scathing denunciation of cheapness quoted above, Mr. Reed declared that he "could spend the entire evening in giving the facts showing that articles have been lowered in price by the tariff," and that "it is the protective tariff that tempts our inventors to work at inventing cheaper processes of manufacturing." When he reached Ohio and discovered what Mr. McKinley was saying, the Speaker modified this view into a "straddle," in which he contended, first, that the "question of price is purely relative"; second, that "most of the higher prices said to have been caused by the McKinley tariff do not exist at all"; third, that "two-thirds of the prices that will be raised in the future to take effect by-and-by — perhaps — are in cases where the McKinley Bill has lowered the tariff"; and, fourth, that the effect of a protective tariff is to establish manufacturing, and the effect of establishing manufacturing "has always been, that in the long run you get lower prices." As nearly as we are able to understand the Speaker's position, it is that if the tariff raises prices at all, which he doubts, it is only for a time, and that ultimately it lowers them, or, in other words, conduces to cheapness. Hence, in his view, cheapness is not nasty and un-American, but desirable and patriotic.

Now comes Secretary Blaine, and in a speech at South Bend, Ind., on October 29, declares that for twenty-nine years the protective tariff has been lowering prices so steadily and generally that everything we buy to-day is cheaper than it ever was before. Here is the passage:

> "I undertake to call your attention to the fact that, under the last free-trade tariff, which ended in the beginning of 1861, you were paying more for everything that entered into your living, your household expenses, what you had on your table, and what you had upon your back, than you are paying to-day. Yet the whole country is resounding with the appeals of the Democratic party to vote against the Republican party because of the high prices they are putting on you. We have had protection now for twenty-nine years. Go back, if you please, and consult the old tariff, you younger men (and you older ones will remember it); compare its results with those of the present tariff. Compare them article by article, and you will find that in almost every case they are vastly cheaper now than then. The Democratic party allege that protective duties increase prices. That is their strongest point. I don't stand here to argue theories. I invite your attention to the fact that, during the period of twenty-nine years of protection, the tendency of prices for luxuries and the necessities of this life has been steadily downward."

What does Mr. McKinley say to that? If the "tendency of prices" under twenty-nine years of protection "has been steadily downward," the tariff has been working in the direction of cheapness for all that time, has it not? and has thus been working with infernal persistency towards making this a "cheap and nasty" country, filled with "cheap men and women." The antagonism between Mr. Blaine and Messrs. Harrison, McKinley, and Lodge is direct and irreconcilable. He says the protective tariff has for twenty-nine years worked steadily to give us greater cheapness, and that this is its strongest point; they say it prevents cheapness, and for that reason every true American should thank God for it and call it blessed. In every way, we think, their contention does greater credit to their intelligence and sincerity than Mr. Blaine's does to his. They admit the truth when they say that the tariff does raise prices, and they should have credit for that, whatever may be thought of their estimate of the intelligence of their audiences in adding to the admission their denunciation of cheapness.

But what shall be said of Mr. Blaine's claim that the difference in prices for the luxuries and necessaries of life to-day as compared with those of twenty-nine years ago is all due to protection? If he believes that, what has he to say of the same difference in England, and in fact every other civilized country on the face of the globe? He knows as well as anybody that prices have fallen in England during that period under free trade even more than they have here under protection, and why should he assume that the Western people are so ignorant as not to know it also? He did not even stop at prices, but went on to claim that our increase in population was also due to the tariff. "What have we done for the population of this country?" he asks. "We have considerably more than doubled the population during the twenty-nine years of protection. Now we are a people of nearly 65,000,000. Before we were only 31,000,000. You will find this to be true if you will go through the statistics." It is true, Mr. Porter's lower total by two or three millions to the contrary notwithstanding. It is also true that, during that period, several persons in the country have attained the age of maturity, and are able to reason after the manner of intelligent beings.

THE M'KINLEY ALPHABET.

THE "Democratic conspiracy to advance prices," which forms the refrain of the latest song sung by Chairman Belden at Washington and Chairman Manley at Augusta and by all the other Republican swans, has been exposed and has failed to produce its intended effect—so the whole flock unite in saying. Political conspiracies are no new thing in American politics. Not a year goes by without yielding one or more. But nobody has ever before, we think, hit upon the idea of getting all the merchants in the country to charge more for their goods in order to beguile people of their votes. Nor has any clique or coterie within our recollection been so adroit or agile as to bring the whole mercantile community, from one end of the country to the other, mostly Republicans too, into the toils of the conspiracy, and get them drilled to their parts, within less than thirty days of the time when the plot was first formed. The thing betokens more than human power. It savors of the black art. At all events, it is a fit subject for Bill Nye, or the Society for Psychical Research, to look into, to tell us how such things can be.

Perhaps, however, there has been no such conspiracy. Perhaps the mercantile classes, looking at the McKinley Alphabet as it is printed in the *Evening Post*, or, rather, looking at it before it was printed at all, have perceived that after their present stocks of goods are gone, they cannot be replaced at the old prices, and that they must pay something more per yard, per pound, per gallon, and per cent. on account of the aforesaid Alphabet. As prudent and honest men, they have notified their customers of this plain fact. Such general notifying is what Belden, Manley, and the rest call conspiracy. They would have preferred, of course, that the merchants should make believe that they were going to continue to sell at the old prices—till after the election anyhow. But that would have been a deception amounting to a conspiracy, and would have led to very serious consequences, personal to the merchants themselves. Their customers would have come to them, after the present stocks were used up, and would have expected to buy more at the old prices. But it would have been impossible to supply them at the old prices, the McKinley Alphabet forbidding. The Alphabet was designed expressly to make higher prices; but whatever was designed, that effect could not be avoided. So the merchants were obliged to tell their customers beforehand what was going to happen.

The very head and front of the "conspira-

cy" hath this extent, no more. Prices of stocks on merchants' shelves have not in general been advanced. Merchants in most cases have shared and are still sharing with their customers whatever advantage they have reaped by laying in large stocks before the McKinley embargo took effect. But they are puzzled and worried to know what will happen next. It is very easy to say: "Buy more at the McKinley prices." The question is whether they can sell at any profit, or even get back the bare cost, at the new prices, for the public seem to have formed a conspiracy of their own not to pay the McKinley prices. Almost every buyer in the land has formed a mental resolution that he will not pay a cent more than he did before, and not a few have proclaimed that resolution. Some, echoing Belden, say that it is all a trick and a conspiracy, and they honestly believe so. Others, again, knowing better, say that they will not be imposed upon by the crowd of real conspirators who are behind McKinley, and who put McKinley and Tom Reed and the Republican party up to enacting the McKinley Alphabet.

Between these two kinds of buyers the merchants are having a hard time, and it will be harder yet when they come to make their own next purchases. Heretofore they have had experience to guide them. They have known what and how much the public would buy at a certain price. How much, if any, the public will buy at a higher price is a matter of guess-work altogether. Any man who could answer that question would command a very high salary in any and every counting-room in New York. With the great bulk of consumers it is not a question of willingness, but of sheer necessity. They cannot pay higher prices for the same quantity. They must either buy a less quantity or a poorer quality. The opinion seems to prevail that the latter alternative will be adopted by most people, and that we shall soon enter upon an era of shoddy. Prices "will be higher *next spring* if not before," is the announcement of a leading firm doing business at 302 Broadway, which happens to reach us while we are writing. This tells the exact truth. Prices of store goods have only advanced here and there. They are on the rise, and there is no help for it. The pinch has only begun. It will be a gradually increasing suffocation from now on.

Any words of ours would be superfluous to characterize the McKinley Alphabet. It speaks for itself. Look at the finer grades of steel, for example—an article necessary to support many important industries here. Think of a tax of seven cents a pound on steel. Yet that is a small matter in comparison with the tax on pearl buttons, which are necessary to other important industries. Think of a tax of $6,000 on $1,200 worth of buttons. Think, also, of a tax of 32 and 64 per cent. on the wool of which all our carpets are made, but which is not produced in this country at all. What is the use of a tax on leaf tobacco of $2.75 per pound, or of 30 cents per bushel on barley, or of 5 cents per dozen on eggs? In some places there is method in this madness, as where the tax on fishermen's seines was doubled for the benefit of manufacturers of linen twine. In others there is none. Why, for example, should the tax on microscopes be advanced to 60 per cent.? Who is interested in having amber necklaces for babies taken from the free list and taxed 50 per cent. ad valorem? Who wants to have the duty on truffles raised from 30 to 45 per cent.? Is the amber business an "infant industry" in a double sense? Does anybody propose to hunt for truffles in this country? Does anybody expect to produce the natural mineral waters of Europe here? What sort of swindling is covered up by such items as these?

As we have said, the McKinley Alphabet as published by the *Evening Post* is only a part, really a small part, of the whole. There are large classes of goods embraced under general headings of which the *Evening Post* mentions only a single one. The public will find them out, however, before six months more shall have passed over their heads.

SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

About a year ago there was more or less newspaper mention of a proposed memorial enterprise which was to signalize, in a much more permanent way than can be done by a World's Fair, the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America. The scheme had its origin in a suggestion made at last year's meeting of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, and there received with great favor; and it contemplated nothing less important than a memorial history of American literature and science from the discovery of America to the present time. More accurately, two prizes of $3,000 each were to be offered for the best general survey of American literature and science respectively; and in addition to this it was proposed to secure the preparation of an extensive and detailed account of scientific achievement, the work for each department of science to be intrusted to a specialist in that department. It is plain that this last undertaking was the really serious task, and the only part of the scheme which possessed in a high degree the monumental character.

We are informed that a committee having the project in charge is about to meet and confer upon the initiation of the work. The committee consists of the presidents of some six of our greatest universities, together with one or two other gentlemen of equal eminence; and doubtless every point of importance will receive the most careful and mature consideration before any active steps are taken in the work. Yet we think that a few general remarks on some of the dangers that may beset the undertaking, will not be wholly impertinent.

In the first place, then, it must be borne in mind that it is practically impossible—even if it were desirable—for the historian of scientific production to avoid giving an estimate, either explicitly or by implication, of the value and importance of the work whose achievement he is recording. It will consequently be a primary requirement, if the memorial history is not to reflect discredit upon the country, that the men engaged to write each section of the history be men who naturally use a cosmopolitan and not a provincial standard, and who feel that their task is to measure truly the importance to the progress of science of the work under review, and not to praise good intentions or to eulogize perseverance in the face of difficulties, or to indulge in vague generalities about the excellence of work whose chief recommendation may be that it is the product of "native industry." There is many a piece of excellent work which America can show, and which will bear the application of the highest standards; such work ought to stand out in bold relief, and not be made indistinguishable from unimportant and mediocre work by that indulgence in universal laudation which writers upon American achievement in literature and science often so easily and good-naturedly fall into.

There is, of course, little danger that such a committee as that which will have charge of this undertaking will choose for any worker upon it a man who is capable of the grosser forms of puffing. But this is a process which takes on many different shapes, and often it is carried on quite unconsciously. So extreme a case as that presented by a recent magazine article on "The Private School for Girls" is seldom encountered; it is truly surprising that an article containing so much of vulgar self-laudation and so little of anything else should have found admission into a high-class magazine. In connection with this performance, we are reminded of an encyclopædia article upon Logic, in which the work of an obscure text-book-maker was given but little less prominence than that of Aristotle; it was not surprising to find, upon referring to an index of contributors, that the author of the text-book was identical with that of the article.

In addition to the temptations to undiscriminating praise which are common to undertakings of this general character, there are two circumstances, somewhat peculiar to the subject of the history of science in America, which deserve to be specially mentioned. The first arises from the very great differences that exist between the amount of achievement in different fields. If, as will necessarily be the case, the work in the various subjects be assigned to specialists in those subjects, there will be danger of each writer feeling that he is expected to make a showing comparable in dignity and amount to that of his colleagues. But no such democratic equality exists in the premises. There are some subjects in which America has done work which, for quantity at least, and in some instances for quality also, holds high rank among the contributions of the great nations of the world. This is certainly true of some departments of the natural-history sciences and of astronomy. But there are other subjects in which American work has been almost absolutely *nil*. In pure mathematics, for instance, we believe it can be said with entire accuracy that the

only really notable contribution made by an American to the science is the memoir on Linear Associative Algebra of the late Benjamin Peirce; and, what will be more surprising to most readers, it would be only a very trifling inaccuracy to call that memoir the only American contribution of any kind to pure mathematics, notable or not notable, prior to 1876. The historian of mathematics in this country must quietly bow to facts, and make his history no longer than those facts warrant, unless he wishes to make his work ridiculous by padding it with detailed accounts of the origin and progress of divers series of text-books.

The second circumstance to which we have referred is one which will call for the exercise of unusual tact and judgment. In several departments of research, nearly all the advanced work that has been done in America has been done not only by men who are still living, but by men who are still young, and the permanent value of whose work has not yet been securely determined. The delicacy of the task of treating historically the work of living men is always recognized, and in many collective works leads to the entire omission of the names of living men. This is, of course, out of the question in a history of science in our day, on account of the immense progress made during the present generation; and least of all is it possible in America, where so many branches of inquiry had been left almost uncultivated until within the last two decades. But it will present a strange appearance if the history of some department of research, after a few preliminary remarks and the mention of two or three older names, shall proceed at once to a review of the work of men who, ten or fifteen years ago, were students in American or foreign universities. It will require skill here to avoid the appearance of puffery where there is none. And, on the other hand, it will not do to accept as final the enthusiastic appreciation which the work of some of our young and promising savants is receiving. Much that the present generation values, and justly values, may prove in the next to have been important chiefly as a sign of life and work. To take perhaps the most striking example of all this: the contrast presented by the vigorous activity of so many able young men in the field of economic theory and economic discussion, to the almost utter neglect of the subject which prevailed so long in America, is most gratifying; but what a journalist may heartily welcome and praise, an historian must remember has yet to be subjected to the inexorable ordeal of time.

In all these remarks we have been looking at only one side of the matter, and that because it seemed to us of urgent importance. Nothing that we have said was meant to be inconsistent with the most jealous preservation of the record of the humble beginnings of things; with the most generous recognition of useful work of every kind; with the greatest pride in all that our country has achieved in any direction. But we have wished to show that that pride cannot be satisfied with a record in which values are inflated so as to make honest comparison with other nations impossible, or so as to reduce, in our own country, important achievement and humdrum reproduction to a common level.

CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES IN CHILI.

Mr. Theodore Child's latest Chilian article in *Harper's* predicted a struggle between President Balmaceda and the Congress; and the rather vague despatch recently given out by the Department of State at Washington refers to the closing of the preliminary stage of the conflict. To make matters clearer, a more detailed review of the progress of events is necessary.

As Mr. Child remarks, the President of Chili, in common with most of the Executives of Spanish-American republics, has long been a practical dictator. Invested with centralized powers worked out into the most extraordinary minutiæ, he has been able not only to control the course of legislation in the most absolute way, but also to dictate the Presidential succession and to manipulate the entire electoral system. Popular disgust at this state of things had long been growing more and more intense, and it was evident at the opening of Congress, on June 1, that an attempt would be made to deprive the Presidency of a part of its swollen power. The President foresaw the coming storm, and endeavored to divert it. In his message to Congress he shrewdly threw himself, or appeared to throw himself, on the side of the popular agitation, and urgently recommended reforms in the Constitution of 1833, for the purpose of securing a greater degree of home rule to provinces and municipalities, and of more clearly defining the respective powers of the three coördinate branches of the general Government. He admitted that too much weight was assigned to the President by the Constitution, though he maintained that the remarkable stability and domestic peace of the country for the past thirty years had been largely due to a strongly centralized Government.

However, "men and institutions have their day," he went on, "and to-day we need to have other conditions prevail in our public life. But these were not to be found," he argued, "in the parliamentary régime so widely advocated." The President ought to be freed from some of his responsibilities, but the essential prerogatives of his office should not be touched; he must remain independent of the Legislature, must retain the veto power, and keep the control of all public officers having to do with general, as distinct from local, interests. "For my part," he said, "I do not accept for my country either the dictatorship of Congress or the dictatorship of the Executive; I desire a system of liberty and of independent public powers." He proceeded to give a sketch of his idea of the proper division of powers between the Executive, Legislative, and Judicial departments of the Government, and exhorted Congress to promote constitutional changes in that direction.

The Congress's first point of attack was the President's Cabinet. A resolution was duly passed calling upon the Ministry to resign, and asking the President to appoint a Cabinet acceptable to the two Chambers. The President delayed his reply, but promptly struck a blow at his opponents by getting the Council of State to enforce the laws restricting the right of assemblage; this was done to head off the great popular meetings in opposition to the President. Nevertheless, he approved the new election law passed by both houses, designed though it openly was to free the elections from the Presidential control. Then ensued a period of discord, the President stubbornly maintaining his position, and the Congress resorting to the most desperate expedients to compel him to form a new Ministry. The Chambers refused to vote the budget, and allowed a new fiscal year to be entered upon with no laws of taxation in force. On July 18, the Senate passed a bill calling for a constitutional amendment which provided that Congress could be convoked without the assent of the President, that nominations to office should be submitted to the approval of the Senate, and that the Cabinet should resign whenever a majority of the two houses, or two-thirds of one of them, should demand it. The same day a resolution was introduced in the lower house calling for a reform in the Constitution to deprive the President of the veto power.

For a long time the President stood firm, in public manifestoes and in messages to the Congress asserting his intention to maintain all his Constitutional rights. But at last the pressure grew too strong for him. He first yielded in the matter of public meetings, saying that they could be held provided they were not attended with disturbances of the public peace. Then he made advances to the Committee on Finance, so as to get the machinery of taxation at work. Finally, he told a delegation of the leading citizens of Santiago that he would do everything possible to bring the crisis to an end. This was taken to be the beginning of a surrender, and the whole of it was effected early in August by the appointment of an entirely new Cabinet. On the 11th, the new Ministers appeared before Congress, where they were received with tumultuous delight, to read their programme of action. This made a very favorable impression, and everybody was happy—except the President.

All was clear sailing for his opponents after that. They pressed their constitutional reforms forward with rapidity, and these, when consummated, as it seems probable that they will be, will greatly restrict the Presidential privilege. They passed a most important law conferring autonomy upon municipalities. The President made his last stand on the question of surrendering his control over the police of the cities, but was able to get only grudging concessions in the cases of Santiago and Valparaiso; in those cities he is to have a restricted right to name the police superintendents. As a whole he has been thoroughly beaten, and it only remains to be

seen whether the approaching elections will endorse this first bold experiment in parliamentary government.

EDUCATION IN COLONIAL VIRGINIA.

BROOKLYN, October 13, 1890.

EDUCATIONAL matters in colonial Virginia have offered no little perplexity to the historian and biographer. The product was there, for the number of educated Virginians was large as compared with such persons in other colonies; but the machinery appeared to be wanting, and in a country peopled with men of high culture (for that time) and of great political knowledge and experience, the educational factor can hardly be traced. It may be that the real culture of the Virginian was overrated, and the prominent part taken by that colony and State during and after the Revolution was in part factitious, due to pressing emergencies that brought them to the front. The fact remains, however, that the list of Revolutionary leaders in Congress and in State politics from 1765 to 1799 would be very much lessened in number and importance were the Virginians to be stricken from it.

The question of the source of the really great influence they exerted naturally leads to a study of the opportunities of obtaining an education in the colony, with the result rather of increasing than of diminishing one's surprise at meeting such a galaxy of apparently exotic talent. Of system there was none, though Mr. Gordon McCabe shows that the laws of the colony provided for schools—laws that read well, but failed to be executed. The parson eked out a scanty subsistence by teaching a parish school, where the attendant who took a full course would learn the three R's, with a little Latin and Greek. In some counties might be found a "field-school," almost as primitive in build and conduct as that of the Irish "hedge professor." A college—that of William and Mary—was the local pride, but it dragged out a precarious existence, and, just before the Revolution, was not an institution to which a careful parent would intrust the education of his son. "There so little attention is paid to the learning or the morals of boys," wrote Richard Henry Lee to his brother, "that I never could bring myself to think of William and Mary" for his own son. Nor could Washington, after making inquiries on the spot concerning the reported mismanagement of the college, make up his mind to send his step-son, Custis, to that institution. The same apathy seems to have settled upon the colonial college as infected the English university, where, as Adam Smith records, the greater part of the professors had given up even the pretence of teaching.

Unfortunately, the "parsons' schools" were no better places, either for residence or for study. The parson was very often more distinguished for his capacity for drinking, swearing, fox-hunting, and entertaining than for his fitness as a spiritual guide or monitor, or as an instructor of youth. The reports of the commissaries who at irregular intervals went from parish to parish to look into church affairs, make sad reading; but it is rather to be wondered that matters were no worse. The charge of a parish was regarded as an office at the gift of the Governor, or the Proprietor (in Maryland); so it was a reward for a "friend," a follower, or hanger-on—one who had failed in England, and failed so thoroughly as to welcome an offer in the colonies, because every other door for employment was shut on him. The "taking of orders" was a form which their conscience did not prevent their duly fulfilling, and the care of the parish was an inconvenience to be shirked as much as was possible, but a convenience as a means of support.

These "parsons" contained some good material, and have handed down a reputation through the reputation of their pupils. Jefferson remembered the "mouldy pies and excellent instruction" of a Scotch clergyman from whom he received the rudiments of Latin, Greek, and French. Madison has recorded his gratitude to another Scotch minister, Donald Robertson, a "learned teacher of King and Queen County." In Westmoreland, John Marshall and James Monroe were said to have sat under the Rev. Archibald Campbell—another Scotchman, for it was the Scotch who monopolized the schools of the colony almost as they monopolized the tobacco trade. Dr. Buchan, who set up a school in Dumfries in 1763, had served as tutor in Lord Fairfax's family. Parson O'Neil, in Orange County, was a "better teacher than preacher," and the Rev. John Cameron was minister in Lunenburg County, where he also kept a classical school of some reputation. The Rev. Devereux Jarratt was content to teach a "plain school," at a salary of about ten pounds Virginia—or say $33 a year. One name interrupts the roll of North Britons, and brings with it a memory which no breath of scandal has dimmed — James Maury, of French descent, a Huguenot refugee, whose lovable nature, generous disposition, and high intelligence commanded the respect and warm friendship of all who knew him, and exerted a strong influence upon those who were under his care.

It was at home that the beginnings of an education were laid, and in many ways Arthur Lee was permitted to run, until an advanced period of boyhood, with his father's slaves—a custom of that time, says his biographer, with respect to the younger sons of a family. Washington is said to have received his first knowledge from one of his father's servants or tenants; and Archibald Alexander from an indentured servant. To obtain a tutor from England or Scotland was a common practice, and a salary of £30 sterling a year was considered a fair remuneration. The Custis children had such a tutor, and many others could be named as having the same. This was the extent of home schooling; outside of that were the parish schools, the colleges, and an English experience. The wages of a tutor seem a small sum, and the school rates were no higher. Boucher charged for tuition £25 a year, the boy to furnish his own bed. Custis had two horses and a negro with him, which increased the expense much. At King's College the annual tuition fee was only £5; a room cost £4, and board 11s. a week; firewood, candles, and washing extra. Richard Henry Lee thought £100 a year the usual cost at one of the colleges in the colonies north of Virginia, and his own experience convinced him that an education was much more cheaply obtained in England than in any part of America—William and Mary excepted. At such a school as St. Bees, about £20 a year would cover all the expenses for board, tuition, etc., the course of studies giving "a thorough knowledge of English and the classics, with writing and arithmetic." In his three years at Edinburgh, Arthur Lee spent £419, "which might have been less, had my disposition been less careless."

The unpublished letters of Jonathan Boucher, M.A., throw much light upon this question. The man himself was interesting. Imported as a tutor into a Virginia family, he performed what was expected of him, and, after finishing that task, he was by mere chance led into the ministry. He exercised his new calling in Virginia and Maryland, and, to obtain some means above his meagre salary (for clergymen were wretchedly paid, and, in most cases, were not even worth what they got), he took in some scholars, among whom was "Jacky" Custis, the step-son of Washington. At the outbreak of the Revolution Boucher was a pronounced Tory; suffered hardly for his political tenets, which he literally proclaimed from the housetops; was driven from the country by the "good people" thereof; went to England, and took it out of his persecutors by compiling an autobiography, of which some portions have been printed. Enough is known of the man to recognize a distinct literary faculty. He could as readily frame a bill or a petition for the Legislature as turn off some verses on the meanest of subjects, and he was one of the leading lights of the Homony Club in Maryland, the sole object of which was to "promote innocent mirth and ingenious humor." This is probably the "Philosophical Society" which, according to the London *Chronicle* (1773), had been established in Maryland, and of which Lord Dunmore was said to be the patron.

The opinions of Boucher are, as a rule, very just and reliable, and the picture he gives of schooling opportunities in Virginia does not redound to the credit of that community. Natural causes were in a measure responsible for this, as the life of a Virginian was one practically isolated from the outer world. As Boucher inquired:

> "Where will you point out to me another [country] so circumscribed in its intercourse with mankind at large as Virginia? Saving here and there a needy emigrant from Great Britain, an illiterate captain of a ship, or a subaltern merchant, to whom can a Virginia youth apply for a specimen of the manners, etc., of any other people? Thus limited in the opportunity for observation, must not his ideas necessarily resemble those of a Caribbee Indian mentioned by Lafitau, who, offended at being called a savage, exclaimed, *I know no savages but the Europeans, who adopt none of our customs;* or those of the inhabitants of the Marian Islands, who, being persuaded that theirs was the only language in the universe, concluded from thence that all other men knew not how to speak?"

It followed that to the Virginian his own land was the best, his own habits and practices models, and his countrymen the finest possible. And yet, as Boucher very truly says, "Till very lately you could hardly anywhere see a piece of land tolerably ploughed, or a person who could be persuaded that ploughing made any difference"—a very severe arraignment of a strictly agricultural colony.

Boucher was settled at Port Royal, and wrote of his neighbors: "There was not a literary man, for aught I could find, nearer than the country I had just left; nor were literary attainments, beyond merely reading or writing, at all in vogue or repute. In such society it was little likely I should add to my own little stock of learning; in fact, there were no longer any inducements." While on the glebe of St. Mary's his position was no better; and, after seven years of occupancy, during which he took scholars, he admitted to Washington that he could not boast of having brought out one scholar. The office of teacher was regarded as low, and "often taken up by the very lowest fellows one knows of." Perhaps the Dominie's ire was excited by the large and increasing number of sectaries around him, much occupied in schooling the young. Jefferson noted that a majority of the inhabitants at the beginning of the Revolution were dissenters from the Established Church, while Dr. Myles Cooper described the offence

given by King's (now Columbia) College, by the fact of its being in the hands of churchmen —that is, of the Established Church. None the less the Virginian clergyman was of very dubious character, subsisting on the scanty product of his glebe, on the fluctuating pay levied and paid in tobacco, and without books for improvement, or companionship to spur him to effort.

With such educational facilities for the planters, it is almost needless to say that the poorer people were destitute of any, unless one of their powerful neighbors should take sufficient interest in the youth to bear the expenses of a schooling—a not unusual occurrence with the sons of a favored overseer. No one who has not consulted the manuscript sources of Revolutionary history can realize fully the intense labor which most of these people underwent when recording their signatures. The cross, or other merely conventional sign, was not much used, and slowly and painfully the letters were evolved, the writer evidently being more apt with hoe or rifle than with the quill. "Old Put," as Washington called the New England hero, was accurate when compared with these scribblers, but he was much worse than Artemas Ward. To sum up, the man in Virginia who wished an education, had to go far from the colony to receive it, and, with a constant intercourse with England, it is little wonder that he should, as a rule, go to English schools and universities—a not unimportant factor in judging of the social system of the colony.

The Revolution did not improve matters, save only by sweeping away what few schools there were, and so necessitating the introduction of a new system. From a MS. journal of Noah Webster, written in 1785, when he was in the South and in the full fever of his educational crusade, are recorded some facts that came under his observation. "Gentlemen are obliged to send their children to the northward for education, a shame to Virginia." A magistrate from the Eastern Shore told him that few of those who acknowledged papers before him could write their names—a curious statement when the high renown of that section even in aristocratic Virginia is considered. A merchant of Alexandria informed him that of fifty planters who sold him tobacco, all but four or five used a mark on the receipts. This is a good proof of the social revolution in the State caused by the war, and especially by the currency experiences. The man who could not read or write, but was shrewd and conscienceless enough to pay his debts in paper at the rate of one shilling in the pound, soon obtained the lands of his more honest neighbors, and, at the end of the war, was in full possession.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

LETTERS AND SPORTS IN SCOTLAND.

EDINBURGH, October 21, 1890.

I SAT for an hour to-day with David Douglas, the publisher, in his office at No. 10 Castle Street. I mention the house particularly because it was the one to which Scott, when he was married, brought his wife. The office, which was their dining-room, was hardly altered, except that a new grate had been put beneath the mantel; but the broad desk of Mr. Douglas stood in the place of the hospitable board of the young housekeepers. In the back room of the first street-floor, where the publisher's clerks were to-day entering items on the invoices as the porters packed the boxes, the original carved mantel reminded me of the style that prevailed in our better New England houses a hundred years ago, which was just about the time that this house at No. 10 was built.

I found Mr. Douglas busily poring over the original MS. diary of Scott, kept in his later years. It was in two quarto parchment-bound volumes, fastened with clasps, and has been preserved at Abbotsford, and was now in Mr. Douglas's hands for publication. The pages looked fair, with scarcely an erasure, though a closer look disclosed the absence of crosses to the *t*'s and dots to the *i*'s, which everybody knows, from facsimiles of his script found in Lockhart's Life, was the habit of Scott in his ordinary writing. Lockhart cited something short of one-half of this diary, and Mr. Douglas, who has compared it throughout with the text in the Life, says that Lockhart's use of it was absolutely exact and impartial. It is now to be published entire, and Mr. Douglas, who has abundantly edited it, has also had the assistance of Prof. David Masson and other friends. It will not be published here till November 10, in order to secure a simultaneous publication in New York, to which American centre a large edition has already been sent. It is stereotyped, and the indications are that the sale will be considerable, since the first edition is already bespoken.

Notwithstanding the apparent legibleness of the writing, a little reading of it made it evident that it was necessary to have both skill and patience in deciphering it. There were certain words which had not, after long pondering, been satisfactorily determined by different experts, and Mr. Douglas tried my efforts on some of them. I feel confident that the work of transcription for the press has been carefully done, and that we shall have at last this tender, self-examining, discursive and striking record of Scott's personal traits in a publication which will be helpful to all students of that noble soul and the literature he created.

"Come in and talk with me again," said the kind old gentleman. "I shall always tell you when I am busy. I want to tell you what you ought to see while you are here. By the way, have you been at No. 39?" This was the "Cabin," as Scott called his town house in Castle Street, which, when the crash came, he surrendered to his creditors. "No," said I. "I see it is now occupied by lawyers' offices. They are busy men, and I did not feel like intruding. I have contented myself with a glance at the bust of Scott, which they have considerately placed back of the glass above the door." "Come with me," he said, and, taking his hat, he led me the short distance up the street to No. 39. A porter ushered us into the back room on the ground floor, which Scott used as his workroom. It bore much the same aspect as in Scott's day, except that the middle of the room was filled with a mahogany table littered with a lawyer's papers, instead of that at which Scott so long sat, filling his sheets and laying them over in a pile, as those who watched him from adjacent windows saw him doing into the night's still hours. The large window which gave him light had still the peculiar machinery, of Scott's own devising, by which he fastened with a key the sash at any height he desired; for the novelist carefully regulated, it seems, his supply of air to the exigencies of his brain.

I have inquired at several of the booksellers' concerning the sale now attending some of our chief American poets. I find Whittier is the only one gaining in the popular estimation. They tell me that the appreciation of him came slowly, but is now growing daily more and more marked, while Longfellow (as well as Tennyson, and more particularly Browning) is steadily diminishing—or perhaps it would be best to say, in regard to Longfellow, is not increasing. Still, I find Longfellow among the portraits exposed for sale in all the shops, and in one window on Princes Street he shares the place of honor with Scott and Burns. I do not recollect to have seen a single likeness, however, of Whittier.

It is significant of the way in which our American purchasers of Americana are watching the catalogues of dealers, here and in England, that I have almost never in the provincial towns found anything in their stocks of much importance from its rarity. Everything, they say, is caught at as soon as their lists reach America, and generally through the medium of their advance sheets, which go to prominent collectors. I found, however, at one shop, something I was glad to see. It will be remembered that Falmouth, as Portland in Maine was then called, was burned in the early days of the Revolutionary War by an English cruiser, under the command of one Capt. Mowatt, who continued for some time to cruise on our New England coast, under the orders of Sir George Collier, a successor of Admiral Graves in this part of the American station. The Mowatts, it seems, are a Shetland race, and when some of the family papers were not long since sold, and were bought for the chance they might afford of throwing light on the rent rolls and prices of past days in those islands, there was found among them the manuscript which fell under my eye. It was a memorial written by this Capt. Mowatt, detailing his services on the American coast all through the war, and particularly his participancy in the luckless—for us—Penobscot campaign of 1779. This document had been intended for presentation to the Lords of the Admiralty, in order to counteract the injustice which, it was claimed, Sir George had shown towards a faithful officer in not presenting his name for promotion. The manuscript is of interest, and will add something to our knowledge of those episodes of our Revolutionary War. This is the only thing which I have found, in looking over the stocks of a dozen book-dealers in Edinburgh, that was of any importance to an American historical student.

I find that the athletic craze and canker is working the same detriment here in the University, and in such lesser institutions as Fettis College, that it is in our American colleges. I hear the same stories as with us of young men being ostracized who think more of their fitting duties than of a running match, and who begrudge the time necessary to convert a healthful pastime into an exhibition of useless skill. A close observer said to me, "If you want to see how the intellect can be degraded, you have only to glance at a group of cricketers in the photographs, and you see it in their faces." Another tells me the same story that I have so often heard at home, that over-exercise defeats its end, and the young athlete, so boastful in his college days, goes off in the end in consumption or in some other outcome of disproportioned labor. Golf, an old Scottish game, seems to be doing the mischief that base-ball does with us, and I am told that hundreds are now daily playing it on the Links, where scores were seen but a few years ago. It has become so dangerous to passers in that region that there has been a clamor for its prohibition, and the Corporation of Edinburgh has only dared to take that step of safety by first buying a tract of land farther out, where it can be played with less hazard.

The adoration of misused games throughout

Britain is beginning seriously to attract the attention of those who resist their fascinations, and they are beginning to count the loss in energy and morals which everywhere follows. At a church congress the other day, one of its members even asked the Archbishop of York, or some other dignitary—I forget whom—to intercede with the Prince of Wales to abstain from countenancing the race-course, in the interest of religion. He disturbed a good deal the sporting vicars, not to say bishops, and I do not think the one appealed to felt, by what he said, that it would avail much if he took his Royal Highness to task. That the Congress listened patiently to the arraignment is not, however, without some significance. When I remembered that some weeks ago I wandered about York for an hour after dark to get a place to lay my head, and all because the absorbing interest in the St. Leger at Doncaster had filled up all the abiding-places for fifty miles around, I could but feel, with some intensity from my misfortune, that there might have been a nobler occasion for the poor traveller's unrest. JUSTIN WINSOR.

GONCOURT IN THE SIEGE OF PARIS.

PARIS, October 17, 1890.

WITH all their defects, their affectations, the Goncourts can always be read. They are often irritating, they have a fatiguing morbidity in their style, but their observation is often interesting; it is minute, and made with a certain sort of consciousness which might be compared to the consciousness of the naturalist. They are among the precursors of our naturalist school, but their naturalism is tempered by a curious sort of grace, which they have, I suppose, borrowed from the authors and artists of the eighteenth century, of whom they have made an elaborate study, and with whom they have lived, so to speak, as much as with the men and women of their own time.

The new volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt,' which has just appeared, is peculiarly interesting, but extremely painful. It is the portion kept during the year 1870, which Victor Hugo baptized as "L'Année Terrible," the year of the Franco-Prussian war. It begins on the 26th of June, six days after the death of Edmond de Goncourt at Bar-sur-Seine. The twin brothers had always had but one soul; they had not left each other for a day; they followed each other as the shadow follows the body—and now Jules was alone. Nevertheless, he still calls his Journal the 'Journal des Goncourt'; his brother still lives in him.

Jules goes back to Paris, arriving there at the moment of the declaration of war on Prussia. Some days later—

"At the Bourse, I see nothing but bare heads, hats off, and from every mouth is heard a formidable Marseillaise. I have never seen such enthusiasm. I walk among men pale with emotion, bounding children, women with intoxicated gestures. Capoul sings the Marseillaise, on the Place de la Bourse, from the top of an omnibus; on the boulevard Marie Sass sings it, standing in her carriage, which the people, in their delirium, almost lift up bodily. But what about the despatch which announces the defeat of the Crown Prince of Prussia, the capture of 25,000 prisoners, the despatch which is placarded! I am told inside the Bourse of this despatch, which so many people declare to me they have seen. I look for it; people think they see it, they point to it. 'Look here, there it is, there it is!' and they show me a wall on which there is nothing. This despatch I cannot discover, and I look in vain for it in every corner of the Bourse."

This was written on the 4th of August. Alas! on the 21st of August Goncourt walks in the Bois de Boulogne and sees the first preparations made for the siege of Paris: the great trees fall beneath the axe, all along the fortifications, "with the tottering of men wounded unto death."

It is curious to see how, in the midst of the most tragical scenes, men find it difficult to forget themselves. One day, on the 27th of August, Zola comes to breakfast with Goncourt.

"He talks to me of a series of novels he is going to undertake, of an epopee in ten volumes, the natural and social history of a family, which he has the ambition to write, with the exposition of the characters, the vices, the virtues, developed in the *milieu*, and made different by it, like the various parts of a garden —'here shines the sun, here is the shade.' He tells me that, after the analysis of the infinitesimal of sentiment, such as was executed by Flaubert in 'Madame Bovary,' after the analysis of things artistic, plastic, and nervous, such as you, the Goncourts, have made—after these jewels in writing, these chiselled volumes, there is no place left for young writers, nothing more to do, no personage, no figure to construct; it is only by the quantity of volumes, the power of creation, that it is possible to speak to the public."

Zola has fulfilled his programme. He has astonished us by the quantity of his production; but are you not surprised at the *quantity* of his flattery? When I read these lines I remembered the words of an old Russian diplomat to a young one: "Flatter always, but never delicately."

Here and there in the Journal, very often indeed, we fall on a pretty description, a photograph in words; indeed, we find them almost at every page. What a field was Paris, in those extraordinary days of the siege! Goncourt sees everything; he describes all he sees —the flocks of sheep and oxen coming to the capital, the peasants who take refuge there, the camps of the soldiers in the open air. The 4th of September comes, and the Republic is proclaimed. Goncourt's Diary is not a political pamphlet; it is a succession of impressions, of sensations. At the end of the volume there is an alphabetical table of the names mentioned in the volume. Those which recur the most often are those of Berthelot, the chemist; of Burty, an amateur artist; of Théophile Gautier; of Nefftzer, a journalist, the founder of the *Temps;* of Renan; of Paul de Saint-Victor, a critic of art. Goncourt, Renan, Berthelot, Nefftzer, and a few others dined together every fortnight. Goncourt gives a curious account of the conversations at each of these dinners. It must be said that all the guests seem to have suffered more or less from siege fever, and to have lost their mental balance. These periodical dinners, with their free and rambling conversations, reported accurately by Goncourt, are a sort of thermometer of the Parisian mind during the siege of Paris.

Renan was much more agitated than you would suppose he could possibly be when you see his calm and clerical face. He was Biblical, apocalyptic; he was all the time predicting all the horrors of the siege of Jerusalem. The horrors of the Commune after the siege justified him in this respect. He often scandalized his friends by sudden apologies for Germany and denunciations of France. Just as in a great landscape the eye is forcibly drawn towards certain points, I confess having read with peculiar interest the accounts of these dinners, these "banquets des Girondins." If such men as Renan and Berthelot, men of culture and of science, lost their heads, it is no wonder if the Parisian population often went mad. Renan was always complaining of the "mollesse" of the Parisians and of their defence; so did those who prepared the Commune during the whole siege.

A remark which Goncourt makes is on the contrast between the "mollesse" of the battalion of the National Guard of Belleville and Montmartre, always unwilling to go to the fortifications and to run the chance of a battle with the Prussians, and the undoubted bravery and determination of the same battalions when they fought for the Commune and under the red flag. He explains the contrast by a diminution of patriotism in the working classes and a corresponding increase of internationalism. The capitalist, the Versaillais, was to the Socialist soldiery a worse enemy than the Prussians. The explanation is only partly true. The Socialists were afraid to meet the Prussians, because they knew and felt that they would surely be beaten, that they had before them a victorious, well-organized, well-disciplined, and well-led army. At the beginning of the Commune they had before them only a runaway President, a Chamber which hardly knew itself, and a few regiments coming from the German prisons, discouraged by defeat and by months of suffering. They felt sure that victory was in their hands; they remained the uncontested masters of Paris, and they were on the point of taking Versailles. If it had not been for the bravery of a few gendarmes, of the police, of the skeleton regiments which were reformed at Versailles, they would have been, for a while at least, the masters of France. In the war with the Versaillais they had to fight for their lives, and some of them fought well.

The daily account of the sensations of Goncourt during the Commune is perhaps even more interesting than his account of the siege by the Prussians. One wonders how a man who has such a keen faculty of observation, such a sensibility, such a capacity for suffering, could have gone through the dreadful period of the two sieges, especially as the war found him in the slough of despond after the loss of his beloved brother. I have read nothing that brought back to me so acutely the memories and sufferings of the war of 1870.

At the end of that great crisis, what were the feelings of those who had been its witnesses? At the dinner of the 15th of August, 1871, the guests inveigh against the principle of nationality—the principle of which Napoleon III. made himself the champion, and of which he became the victim; "they deplore this invention which takes from war its courteous character, the character of a duel between sovereigns. War will be like a struggle of animal races: one will have to eat up the other; and this condemns, in the future, either the French or the Germans to disappear from Europe." Renan interposed here, saying:

"'Well, we are mere functions—functions which we accomplish unconsciously, like the workmen of the Gobelins, who work from the inside and finish a tapestry which they don't see. . . . What is honesty? what is wisdom? what importance have these from a superhuman point of view? Nevertheless, let us be honest and wise. It is a part which is given to us by the Almighty. But he must not think that he deceives us and that we are his dupes!' And," says Goncourt, "the old seminarist said this with a low voice, almost afraid of what he had said, with his head on one side on his plate, and the air of a schoolboy who fears a blow which he feels coming—absolutely as if he feared a blow from the Almighty."

Nefftzer, the editor and founder of the *Temps*, would write no more in it after the war; he retired to Bâle, where he died a few years afterwards. He had been in his youth a student at the Protestant school of theology in Strasbourg. I knew him very intimately. He had a very original mind, and was one of those men who expend themselves in daily writing and in conversation, and who do not embody

their full measure in a great work. He was a first-rate journalist, but journalism finished him. Nefftzer showed much cynical commonsense at those dinners. He never believed in the heroism of the National Guard, in the military genius of Trochu, in the patriotism of the men of Belleville, in Paris-Saragossa blowing itself up with dynamite, etc. He was ironical and Mephistophelian; not a sceptic at heart, but full of contempt for all shams. He was thoroughly sincere. One day, at dinner (he was an Alsatian by birth), he screamed (his voice was often a thunder):

"I am German, completely German. I only defend France from a sense of duty, but I know what is coming. It is Saint-Bartholomew, believe me, which is now causing the end of France. If France had become Protestant, it would have been the great nation of Europe. You see, in Protestant countries there is a gradation between the philosophy of the upper classes and the free inquiry of the lower classes. In France, between scepticism above and iconoclasm below there is a gulf, an abyss. Believe me, this is what is killing France."

"In the café," writes Goncourt, "which was growing dark, from this large *jordanesque* face, red under the light of the candle, which colored the thick and varicose skin; from this voice, at times incomprehensible, unruly, bursting out by eructations, came thoughts full of depth, irony, paradoxes almost of genius."

Correspondence.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It does not seem to me that your able correspondent, "G. B.," in his plea for universal suffrage, distinguishes clearly the differences which exist between questions of morals and of economics. I am not prepared to say that moral considerations do not affect, more or less, all questions of economics; but, in questions of public policy, either the one element or the other is more prominent, and therefore more easily apprehended by the masses.

Where the moral element can be prominently displayed, and the simple question of right and wrong made clearly apparent, I hold, with "G. B.," that the judgment of the masses is apt to approximate the truth; but in questions of economics, where the benefit is perhaps somewhat remote, and where more than the average intelligence is required to comprehend clearly, the judgment of the masses may be either right or wrong, for it is influenced not so much by the economical question at issue as by other considerations, such as party fealty, the recollection of some past moral question, or the personal qualities of the candidates.

The wrongs of slavery were eloquently portrayed. The question appealed strongly to the emotions of the masses, and their decision was right; but can such enthusiasm be evoked by the discussion of the tariff or the regulation of the currency? "G. B.'s" illustration of the prevention of Great Britain's interference in behalf of the South would seem to sustain my view. The aristocracy and the traders of Great Britain saw what benefit would accrue to them by crippling their most formidable competitor; the workmen of Lancashire could see nothing but a question of right and wrong. With all respect for the good workmen of Lancashire, I do not believe, could they have been convinced that Great Britain's interference would have meant higher wages and more comforts to them, that they would have uttered a protest.

One might concede that the people of this country, trained by universal suffrage, would act together in time of war, but it by no means follows that the same people would, by their decisions on questions of public policy, prevent the necessity of acting together in time of war. If universal suffrage were all that its advocates claim for it, the immense loss of life and treasure in the civil war would have been saved us. It is to be hoped that most of the questions of the future will not have to be solved by force of arms, and it therefore affords me but slight comfort to think that the people will act together in time of war.

If, as "G. B." contends, we do not get the effect of universal suffrage, where lies the blame if not on the people? Do not these same people organize readily for the apprehension of horse thieves or incendiaries? The telegraph no sooner announces a great catastrophe than they are organized to send relief. But let "G. B." attempt to organize from the masses tariff-reform clubs, or associations opposed to the unlimited coinage of silver, and I fear he will discover but little enthusiasm among those whose votes decide such questions.

I deferentially submit the above views to the consideration of "G. B.," for whose scholarly attainments I entertain the highest respect.

C. A. W.

Baltimore, November 1, 1890.

MORE McKINLEY PRICES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Upon the question of whether the McKinley Bill does really have an effect of increasing the cost of articles, domestic or foreign, or whether it is only a Democratic assertion for campaign purposes, I beg to direct your attention to the following letter handed me by the manager of the Hennepin Paper Company of this city. The writers are importers and manufacturers:

New York, October 15, 1890.

Dear Sirs: Your telegram 14th inst. received. We enclose bill for felt forwarded. This we bill at old price, but our stock received ere the McKinley Bill took effect is about exhausted. Hereafter prices will be as per list, *net*. F. Bredt & Co.

The felt mentioned is an essential for the manufacture of paper, and, "at old price," was sold at discounts of 25 and 10 off the list. The manager of the paper company informs me that the felts manufactured for the same purpose in this country are very much inferior to those imported (being made from domestic wool), wearing only two-thirds as long with the same use. In reply to an inquiry from him as to what American make could be substituted for the felts heretofore employed, F. Bredt & Co. write, under date of October 23, 1890:

"In answer to your question about the advanced price, would say that mills which have always used English felts will continue to do so, as it is impossible to obtain a domestic felt to give the satisfaction that an English one will. We do not know of any domestic felt we could guarantee to work as well."

A wholesale glass house here advises me that, since the McKinley Bill went into effect, the American manufacturers (who, by the way, paid their stockholders a dividend last year of $950,000) have advanced their rates upon glass, which they formerly sold to my informant at $7.50 per case, to $10 per case.

In the window of the "Plymouth" clothing-house, the largest establishment of the kind in this city, and one of the largest in the State, the following letter has been displayed for the information of the interested public:

New York, October 6, 1890.

Dear Sirs: We beg to inform you that hereafter the price of our men's best piqué kid gloves will be $22 50; other grades are raised in the same proportion.

As this advance happens to be at the beginning of the season, we would advise you to take the benefit of the risk of your importations, and to put up the retail price of the Perrin's best piqué to $2.25 immediately.

Perrin Frères & Cie.

Of course this display was accompanied with the statement that, having purchased largely before the advance in prices occasioned by the McKinley Bill, the customers of the "Plymouth" could have the advantage of the circumstance.—Yours respectfully,

John R. Van Derlip.

Minneapolis, Minn., October 27, 1890.

THE "AMERICAN PUBLISHERS' ASSOCIATION."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On reading the article entitled "A New Way to Publish Books," in the last *Nation*, I cannot resist the temptation to send you a third scene in this little comedy of swindling.

The letters I have received from this precious Publishers' Association are, word for word, like the two that you print; indeed, I should almost have supposed myself to be the "lady in a Maine village," were it not that I have never written any religious poetry.

Having persistently refused to receive the books in question, I was favored a day or two ago with the enclosed letter, which is really quite touching in its appeal for assistance. Let us hope that the gentlemen of the American Publishers' Association have other means of support besides the precarious one of endeavoring to swindle the secluded scribblers of Maine.—Very truly yours,

Laura E. Richards.

Gardiner, Maine, October 29, 1890.

Chicago, Ill., Oct. 24rd, 1890.

Dear Madam: Will you not receive Books, pay express charges and hold them subject to our order or remit for them if disposed of? You have a good representation in the work, with which we are sure you will be pleased. Have authorized the Agent to allow you examination. If you cannot possibly take them, perhaps you could find an Agent for us who would dispose of the copies.

Please let us hear from you in regard to the matter at once, and oblige,

Yours sincerely,

American Pub. Association.

CELTS AND LATINS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I read in a Paris letter to the *Nation* on the Boulanger fiasco the following sentence: "The philosophy of Boulangism will be explained by future historians, who will find in it a proof of the hidden hero-worship which exists in the Latin race." Gen. Boulanger himself, in a letter which he has just written to a Neapolitan correspondent, says: "And it is just to say that these interests, far from making Italy the ally of the German Empire, ought to make her the ally of the Latin sister, Republican France"; and in company just now with a distinguished French authoress who has been visiting Ireland, we heard her say of the Irish that "they are so sympathetic with us, the Celts—quite Latin, in fact."

Now, there is very little Latin blood in the inhabitants of certain parts of Italy—Sicily and Naples, for instance, and Piedmont; but in that part of the peninsula where the old stock

has been more or less preserved from mixture, as in the Abruzzi, not to exclude other adjoining sections, one may still catch glimpses of the old nature, and it is as unlike anything French as one can imagine, as unlike as the German. It is easy to see the early race types in most parts of Italy, and the most casual observer will recognize, for instance, in passing from the Latin lands of the Pontine plains to the Greek shores at Terracina, that another race is in presence, or in crossing the Apennines from Tuscany to Bologna; and the Umbrians are as different from the Tuscans (still "Tuscus obesus") as the Norman is from the Breton. The Umbrian, again, is quite unlike the man of the hills of Latium. The only Italian who resembles the French Celt is the kindred Piedmontese, the descendant of the cis-Alpine Gaul of Cæsar.

The Latin conquest probably imposed a common language on all southern Europe, though the Slavic invasions of the Balkan country and the reflex influence of Constantinople, where the Greek always ruled, repelled it, except where the Latin stock dominated, as in Rumania and with the scattered Wallach communities in the peninsula. The imposition of the language of the conqueror, however, is as far from the establishment of a community of race as is the conversion to a religion. It is simply ridiculous to talk of the French being a Latin race, or of a race sympathy between French and Italian, for there is none. The Frenchman is on the whole just what he was described by the Roman historians of the beginning of the era, while the Italian (with allowance to be made for the regional differences I have noticed) is a grave, even saturnine, race, conservative to a fault, distinguished more by the inertia of his character than by any positive quality, averse from strangers even to inhospitality, but sentimental and pathetic, and if sympathetic, rather with the Teutonic than the Gallic character. There has not been to my knowledge a Frenchman in Rome, since I knew it, who did not freely express his dislike or contempt for the Italians, and I knew the city and the French as long ago as they kept garrison for the Pope. The only sympathy between them is that of the dog and cat: circumstances might make them good friends, but it is not in their natures. I have no hesitation in saying, from what I see continually of the French here, that there is no more reality in the professions of sisterly feeling for Italy than there is in the high humanity of the ideal of the communism of 1870. The plea of sisterhood of races is just as insincere as the love of peace they are always talking about, and which the Italians really feel.

I am not ignorant of the virtues of the Gaul or the vices of the Latin, but, such as they are, they are different virtues and different vices. Ethnology has enough to do when it has to include the Greek of Sicily, the Hernici of the Sabine Hills, the morose Tuscan, with the amiable Umbrian, and the thrifty, unæsthetic Piedmontese in one nationality; but there may be some blood in common from the long intercourse; we may as well go back to Father Adam as to attempt to compel science to discover the community between the Latin and the Gaul.—Yours truly, N. N.

"TRANSMOGRIFY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As though it were a matter of public importance, Mr. Hensleigh Wedgwood recently wrote, regarding this expression, in *Notes and Queries*: "I had fully supposed that it was an invention of the present century, and was much surprised to find, from a quotation in Worcester, that it was used by Fielding, although in which of his works is not mentioned." Not altogether without interest, however, is this avowal, as showing how far, from choosing to decline expedient research, even a professed philologist may be deceived by trusting to a mere impression.

Not to speak of the *transmography* of Nathaniel Bailey (ed. 1730), Guy Miege's *Great French Dictionary* (1687) records *transmogrify'd;* and this, most probably, or *transmogrify*, was noticed by lexicographers still earlier.

Shadwell, as cited in Mr. Thomas Wright's *Dictionary of Obsolete and Provincial English*, used *transmography'd* in 1688; nor, presumably, are the following quotations among the oldest that might be produced for the word in question:

"She had almost been *transmogrify'd*." Sir Thomas Urquhart, *Rabelais* (1653), Vol. I., p. 7 (ed. 1694).

"Meaning *transmografied* [printed *transmografide*], or metamorphosed into a Mandrake." Samuel Holland, *Zara* (1656), p. 33, foot-note (ed. 1719).

The Rev. Myles Davies (1716) has *transmografying;* Fielding (1728), *transmographied*, twice; Mrs. Eliza Heywood (1744) and Foote (1776), *transmogrified;* the Rev. G. W. Lemon (1783), *transmographied*, etc., etc.

If, as can hardly be doubted, it was from Jodrell that Dr. Worcester took, abridged, what he puts forward as Fielding's, he should have retained the spelling which he found, instead of altering it to *transmogrified*.

Nowhere, I believe, except in a glossary or two, has the literary existence of *transmogrify* or *transmogrified* yet been demonstrated by a genuine quotation.

As estimated by Dr. Worcester, *transmogrify* is "ludicrous and low"; and Dr. Webster's editors think it to be "colloquial and low." Nevertheless, the taste must be somewhat squeamish that would find grave fault with Archdeacon Hare for saying, with reference to Pinkerton's egregious attempt in 'Thea Visiona of Mirza,' at the euphonization of English: "It may be amusing to cast a look at the tricks by which poor Addison has been thus strangely *transmogrified*." *Philological Museum*, Vol. I., p. 649 (1832).—Your obedient servant,

F. H.

Marlesford, England, October 18, 1890.

Notes.

Funk & Wagnalls will be the American publishers of 'In Darkest England, and the Way Out,' by Gen. Booth, chief of the Salvation Army.

Harper & Bros. will publish Sir Walter Scott's Journal, edited by Mr. David Douglas, the well-known Edinburgh publisher; Froude's biography of Beaconsfield; 'Selections from the Sonnets of Wordsworth,' with illustrations by Alfred Parsons; selections from the letters of George W. Smalley to the New York *Tribune*, in two volumes; and 'Freedom Triumphant,' the end of the civil-war series by C. C. Coffin.

A gift-book will be made by Albert & Scott, Chicago, of the essays on Friendship by Cicero, Bacon, and Emerson.

'Central Points of Our Lord's Ministry,' popular New Testament studies, by the Rev. Henry Wace, is in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

Mr. John Murray announces a life of the late Dean Burgon, author of 'Twelve Good Men' and many other books, by his friend Dean Goulburn. Dean Burgon was himself a good man beyond a doubt, and a scholar within certain rather narrow lines. But when he took up his pen in controversy (in which he delighted), he became perhaps the most amazingly and amusingly vituperative writer of our time. He was naturally a Tory both in religion and politics.

We learn from the *Academy* of October 18 that Mr. William Sharp will spend the winter in Rome at work upon a life of Joseph Severn, the friend of Keats. Severn's sons have intrusted him with the materials for this work, which are said to include a vast number of interesting letters. Severn lived in Rome for sixty years, and was in the way of seeing many people of eminence, both Italians and visitors. It will be Mr. Sharp's fault if the Life shall not prove a more than ordinarily entertaining book. Sampson Low & Co. will publish it.

The same journal states that the reason why no maps are given in Prof. S. R. Gardiner's recently published 'Student's History of England' is, that when that work is complete in three volumes, it will be accompanied by a 'Student's Atlas of English History,' upon which Mr. Gardiner is now engaged. It is hoped that this will be published in a few months.

A new edition, the third, of 'Brehm's Thierleben' is in preparation (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: F. W. Christern). Prof. Pechuel-Loesche has charge of the revision. Dr. E. L. Krause furnishes a memoir of the deceased author. More than a thousand new illustrations have been procured for the work, which will be issued in 130 weekly parts.

We spoke last week of a Boston edition of 'Romola,' in two volumes, copiously illustrated with photogravures pertaining to the story and to Florence. As sometimes happens, the same conception has been carried out by another house, that of Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, in a very similar style as to size of volumes, decorative binding, and illustrations. A smaller printed page with broader margins and more open typography produces volumes no larger; but this is seen to arise from the use of thinner paper, and if the print seems at first glance more readable, it cannot, on a careful examination, be pronounced so good as in the edition of Estes & Lauriat. The photogravures are just about as numerous in both, and not a few are the same or deal with the same subject. The Philadelphia series runs more to portraits and statuary, and even includes a lonesome design representing Romola and her father. On the whole, in the selection, and certainly in the execution, we prefer this series, which may be compared with the other in the view of Florence from San Miniato (identical), the portrait of Savonarola, and the panel picture of his execution. Still, one may well hesitate in making up a final judgment between the rival enterprises.

The town of Lancaster, one of the oldest in Massachusetts, has been singularly fortunate in its historian. Within the past six years Mr. Henry S. Nourse has issued two volumes, one of 'Early Records' and one of 'Military Annals,' admirable in style, matter, and scholarly accuracy; and last year he was commissioned by the town to edit a third and companion volume (partly involving the first-named), a 'Birth, Marriage, and Death Register, Church Records and Epitaphs of Lancaster, 1643-1850' (Boston: George E. Littlefield). It might easily be maintained that more labor had gone to the making of this than of its predecessors, such pains have been taken to copy literally from the records, to compare and correct and supplement, and to furnish the thread

to the whole in an index of more than fifty pages. In the nature of the case, there is hardly anything to be called readable between the covers except the list of mortal complaints of the dead and the inscriptions on the tombstones. There is a good variety of these last in verse, and those of the older time bespeak a certain cultivation in the community. The Shakers, like the Quakers elsewhere, were very brief and businesslike in their inscriptions. This Register adds another to the invaluable memorials which the pursuit of genealogy and the pride of ancestry in New England have produced.

It can hardly be maintained that New England has not had her share in the determination of the national diet, both by the propaganda of her emigrant families and by the making of cook-books. Still, perhaps her mission in this respect is not ended, and something new seems to have been struck out in Lucia Gray Swett's 'New England Breakfast Breads, Luncheon and Tea Biscuits' (Boston: Lee & Shepard). What is obvious is the minuteness of the instructions for the benefit of the inexperienced. The book is mechanically attractive, with large type.

We have received from Roberts Bros., Boston, a series of twelve photogravures of New England country and seashore scenes, with poetical captions opposite each, and a running text on nature in New England by Hamilton Wright Mabie. The illustrations are well selected, and the snow and sea-views are particularly effective and truthful, though artistically the eye is wearied occasionally by hard contrast of light and shade, and by a certain harshness in the tints. The text of Mr. Mabie is exceptional, since, so far from being perfunctory, as is usually the case in essays written for pictures, it is really a very good paper upon the aspects of New England landscape, the relation of it to the inhabitants, and the rendering of it by poets and naturalists. Mr. Mabie is a lover of the land, in all its phases, but he seems to know little of the seashore. The title of the volume, which is prettily covered, is 'Our New England.'

The late A. H. Welsh, whose history of English literature has much vogue in the West, left a nearly finished condensation of the criticism of that work, which has been completed and published under the title of 'A Digest of English and American Literature' (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.). It presents a tabular view of the subject in four columns, continued page after page. In the first column historical events are entered; in the second, "characteristics" of the time; in the third, writers, chronologically arranged, with brief biography and criticism of them; in the fourth, their works, also with criticism. Only the principal works are given, and the remarks are often quoted, and usually from excellent sources. There is also an appendix in which omitted authors are listed, but without criticism, on the ground, apparently, that these are or have been known, but need not be seriously regarded. The principal value of the text lies in its condensed critical estimate of each author, which is unusually excellent, being catholic, temperate, and well expressed. Such a critical chart is unknown to us, and it may well be useful for reference and in study.

'European Days and Ways,' by Alfred E. Lee (Lippincott), is a diary of travel in the more attractive parts of Europe, Holland, Switzerland, Southern Italy, Spain, and the Tyrol, in which the sights of the country, more particularly its landscape, are sympathetically described, with some help from historical association. The author writes of Frankfort and Germany with more detail, and in this portion of the volume his individuality is more felt. As a whole, the book is a narrative of a European tour over well-known roads, with nothing specially the author's own to distinguish it from other similar works.

Another volume, partly of travel, partly of criticism, not pretending to any eminent merit, 'Old Wine in New Bottles,' by Brinton W. Woodward (Lawrence, Kans.: *Journal* Publishing Co.), is noticeable as an example of literary recreation; it is journalistic in origin, and belongs with the better sort of newspaper work that goes into the "literary column."

G. P. Putnam's Sons have begun a second series of "Literary Gems," thin pocket pieces bound in red leatherette and cased in a box, and making strange bedfellows together in their common pasteboard receptacle: Ruskin's 'King of the Golden River,' Sheridan's "School for Scandal," Butler's 'Nothing to Wear,' Froude's 'Science of History,' Carlyle's 'Nibelungen Lied,' and Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese.' All are handsomely printed, and each has an engraved frontispiece, two of which are portraits—of Froude and Mrs. Browning.

The four-volume Life of Garrison published by the Century Company in 1885-1889 consists so largely of documentary matter interwoven with and supporting the narrative that an abridgment in a single volume has naturally been attempted. In 1888, before the latter half of the main work had appeared, Frances E. Cooke rewrote the story for young people in a little volume entitled 'An American Hero' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.). This has now been succeeded by a much fuller abstract, though still of moderate size, made *con amore* by the well-known Manchester librarian, Mr. W. E. A. Axon. It is called 'The Story of a Noble Life,' and has been prepared for adults as a part of the "Onward Series," cheaply issued in Manchester from the Onward Publishing Office. Mr. Axon has executed his difficult task with good judgment and excellent comprehension of the subject. On the Continent still another reduction (an "autorisirter Auszug") has been made by Prof. Georg von Gizycki of the University of Berlin ('William Lloyd Garrison'; Berlin: A. Asher & Co.). From a literary point of view, and for its ethical grasp of the personage and movement delineated, this must be allowed the first rank; typographically, too, it leaves nothing to be desired.

The railroad bridge superseding the steam ferry over the Thames River at New London was an undertaking whose costliness and difficulty may be judged from the delay in commencing it. It involved a serious alteration of the lines of approach at both ends, and it had to be built in water of great depth (an estuary or fjord rather than a river) on a bottom also very deep before hard pan was reached. The piling for the piers and the great draw was found to present peculiar obstacles, which in the end were very skilfully and even rapidly overcome, by means which are now common property. It was desirable that the operations resulting in so fine a structure should be permanently recorded for reference, and Mr. Alfred P. Boller of this city, the chief engineer of the bridge, has done well to publish an account, with views and diagrams, in the shape of his report to the general manager of the road. It is not too technical for a layman to understand and enjoy, while the statistics of tests and other data constitute a valuable acquisition for the profession.

A very sweeping generalization is made in 'Aryan Sun-Myths the Origin of Religions' (Troy: Nims & Knight), a book the value of which is sufficiently indicated by its title. It contains a large number of facts, sometimes misstated, generally misunderstood and undigested. Jesus, says the author calmly, was an Essene, and the Essenes were Buddhists—here is Christianity in a nutshell. There is a more sober Introduction by Mr. Charles Morris, the author of 'The Aryan Race.'

All Semitic scholars will welcome the 'Lectures on the Comparative Grammar of the Semitic Languages' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.), by the late Prof. William Wright, edited, after his death, by Prof. W. Robertson Smith, who has added a few notes. It is the first attempt at a Semitic comparative grammar, and it did not enter into the plan of the lamented author to make exhaustive discussions of all questions. But it is something to have his mature opinion on so many grammatical points, and it is to be hoped that his book will stimulate further study of this important subject.

An agreeable addition to our historical apparatus is the English translation of the 'Church-History' and 'Constantine' of Eusebius, by Prof. McGiffert of Lane Theological Seminary and Prof. Richardson of the Hartford Seminary (New York: The Christian Literature Co.). The notes are numerous and helpful, and the typography of the book is excellent. The editors deserve praise for their thorough work. This is the first volume of the second series of "The Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers," edited by Messrs. Schaff and Wace.

The lectures on religious movements delivered at the South Place Institute in 1888-89 have been collected into a volume and published under the title 'Religious Systems of the World' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.). They range over a great variety of subjects, from Methodism to Buddhism in Christianity, from the old Assyrian religion to the modern Ethical Culture Societies, and are most of them vigorous, fair, and readable. The lecturers are competent exponents of the various creeds and tendencies treated, and the book gives a good idea of the currents of religious thought of to-day.

The second volume of the 'Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica' (Oxford) contains articles on the authorship and the titles of the Psalms according to early Jewish authorities, by A. Neubauer; the origin and mutual relation of the Synoptic Gospels, by F. H. Woods; the day and year of St. Polycarp's martyrdom, by C. H. Turner; the Clementine Homilies, by C. Bigg; the evidence of the early versions and patristic quotations on the text of the books of the New Testament, by J. M. Bebb; the Ammonian sections, Eusebian canons, and harmonizing tables in the Syriac Tetraevangelium, by G. H. Gwilliam; the Codex Amiatinus and its birthplace, by H. J. White; the Italian origin of the Codex Amiatinus and the localizing of Italian MSS., by W. Sanday. This is a worthy companion to the first volume, and shows that Oxford has entered seriously on a new career of Biblical and ecclesiastical research.

Dr. C. J. Vaughan's 'The Epistle to the Hebrews' (Macmillan), while it is full of the devoutness and simplicity that characterize this estimable preacher, completely ignores the interesting critical and philosophical-religious questions connected with the Epistle, holding without argument to the most conservative point of view.

An important contribution to the history of Oriental Christian law is made by the publication of the Abessinian 'Jus Connubii' (Berlin: F. Schneider & Co.), edited, with Ethiopic and Arabic texts, Latin translation, and a juridi-

cal-historical dissertation, by Dr. Johannes Bachmann. This forms Part i. of the "Corpus Juris Abessinorum" to be issued by Dr. Bachmann. The date of this code he puts in the thirteenth century; the material, however, going back much further.

Germany is just now much exercised over the best mode of giving instruction in Hebrew in the Gymnasia, and, by way of solving the question, Dr. Bachmann offers a 'Preparation und Kommentar zu den Psalmen' (Berlin: Schneider), in which each psalm is provided with vocabulary, translation, and notes. The notes are good, and the book will be useful to others than beginners. The first fasciculus comprises Psalms 1-20.

Juan Valera's series of letters on South American literature, noticed in these columns, is now followed by the same author's 'Nuevas Cartas Americanas' (Madrid: Fernando Fé). There is little that is ordered or systematic about the book, no attempt being made to give a complete conspectus of so much as the literature of any one country, and the choice of authors treated and books alluded to depending entirely on suggestions growing out of Valera's personal acquaintance with Spanish-American writers, or on the receipt of volumes despatched to the critic for the purpose of securing his notice. Indeed, now that he has made himself a sort of herald to proclaim the merits of South American literature in Spain, he appears to be overwhelmed with books sent him by aspiring authors. However, he makes his selections so as to insure an agreeable variety in the matter discussed, while the charm and grace of his style are everywhere present. The present volume makes excursions into the literature of the Argentine Republic, Chili, Mexico, Ecuador, and Peru, and so far recognizes the United States as a part of America as to include a review of 'Looking Backward.' Valera's residence in Washington as Spanish Minister appears to have led him to give considerable attention to our writers, and his knowledge of them, freely displayed in allusions, is remarkably exact for a foreigner.

In the October number of the *Figaro Illustré*, now the most sumptuous of French monthly magazines, can be seen a proof of the position held in Paris by certain American artists of the French school. One full-page color print is by Mr. D. Ridgway Knight, and a sketch of life in India is abundantly illustrated by Mr. Edwin Lord Weeks, who figures, oddly enough, in the table of contents as Lord Edwin Weeks.

In the *Overland Monthly* for October attention will be drawn to "Some Memories of Charles Darwin," a pleasant and somewhat intimate picture of Down and the great naturalist's environment, by a friend and occasional guest, L. A. Nash. The name of the place belies its altitude, for Down "stands high up—level with the cross on the top of St. Paul's Cathedral, which shows itself on rarely clear days through the murky cloud hanging over the distant city."

A very notable article on an early American architect, Charles Bulfinch, from the pen of Ashton R. Willard, heads the table of contents in the *New England Magazine* for November. Mr. Willard has been indefatigable in research, and gives a large number of photographic views of Bulfinch's monuments, which embrace the Boston State House and part of the Capitol at Washington, with churches, charitable institutions, private dwellings, etc., in abundance. There are also two portraits of Bulfinch, whose name deserves to be remembered.

The October Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains an account of a journey in eastern Persia by Lieut. H. B. Vaughan, in the course of which he passed over the western border of the Kavir or Salt Desert. At first sight it looked like "a vast frozen sea stretching away to the right as far as the eye could reach, in one vast glistening expanse. A more careful examination proved it to be nothing more than salt formed into one immense sheet of dazzling brilliancy, while here and there upon its surface pools of water, showing up in the most intense blue, were visible." Among the animals seen were snakes which "used to climb bushes, and, hitching their tails around a bough, would stick their bodies out in imitation of a withered branch, and thus remain motionless for hours. My servant said that they were waiting for a bird to come and perch on them, when they would immediately strike it." The Governor of Lagos, Sir A. Moloney, contributes some notes on that colony and Yoruba. Among other things he speaks of the Mohammedans of Lagos, who have increased in the past twenty-five years from 800 to 15,000, as "a most orderly, intellectual, and respectable class of citizens, composed of all the tribes of Yoruba." He gives also an interesting account of some Dahomey tribes who live in lake dwellings, and are "not only fishermen, but are pastoral," their cattle being kept in pens adjoining their houses, built on piles over the water, like their dwellings. This is followed by the valuable address of Sir Lambert Playfair before the geographical section of the British Association on the "Mediterranean, physical and historical," in the course of which he spoke in the highest terms of what the French have accomplished in Algeria and Tunisia.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October contains several of the papers read before the British Association at Leeds. Among these is one by Mr. J. W. Wells on the commercial development of Brazil, in which he showed that the new republic has some 8,200 miles of railway constructed at a cost of £61,000,000. This mileage will be largely increased, he believes, in the immediate future by the building of cheap railways into the interior, with a resulting "phenomenal" prosperity for the country. There is also given the extremely interesting and suggestive, though rather sensational, paper by Mr. E. G. Ravenstein, on "The Lands of the Globe still available for European Settlement," together with an abstract of the discussion which followed. His main conclusions are that, at the present standard of life, the cultivable area of the earth would feed about six thousand millions of people (5,994,000,000). Estimating the present population of the world to be 1,468,000,000, with an increase of 8 per cent. each decade, in 182 years the earth would be full.

—We can now congratulate some three to four million of people living in or about New York on having their territory accurately mapped by the leading cartographical establishment of this country, and one of the foremost in the world. We allude to the folio 'Atlas of the Metropolitan District and Adjacent Country' just issued by Julius Bien & Co. It comprises the counties of New York, Kings, Richmond, Westchester, and part of Queens; in New Jersey the county of Hudson entire, with parts of Bergen, Passaic, Essex, and Union. In other words, it embraces both sides of the Hudson to Peekskill, all of New Jersey east of Orange Mountain, between Paterson and Elizabeth, all of Staten Island, Long Island west of Jamaica, and all of New York State south of 41° 20′, lying between the Hudson and the Connecticut border. The several sheets—there are a dozen of them, besides an index map—are so devised as to overlap each other, more or less, so that, for example, the four principal cities of New York, Brooklyn, Jersey City, and Newark are exhibited both in their north-south and in their east-west relations. The scale is liberal—two inches to the mile; and, throughout, the topography is indicated by contour lines at ten or twenty-foot intervals, with conventional signs and coloring for marsh and woodland. The soundings of river and bay are also recorded. Railroads and common roads are given. The basis of the Atlas, of course, has been the New Jersey Survey and the Coast Survey; but these indisputable sources have been supplemented by special surveys conducted by Messrs. J. R. Bien and C. C. Vermeule. For real-estate purposes and the choice of a suburban home, for pleasure driving and scenic enjoyment, and for a larger grasp of the metropolitan problem, this Atlas answers every need in the most authoritative manner. The execution is beautiful, as was to be expected, while the cost to the purchaser is moderate.

—The *Cosmopolitan Magazine* for November contains two articles relating to the most Eastern countries of the world. Professor Arthur Sherburne Hardy of Dartmouth College, who spent his summer vacation in Japan seeking materials for his projected biography of Dr. Joseph Neesima, President of the Doshisha University of Kioto, has an illustrated article on "The Army of Japan." He shows that as early as 1849 "changes had been made to meet the demands of modern warfare, fire-arms having been adopted for the shogun's troops, and a tactical system borrowed from the Dutch." The late ex-daimio of Echizen was among the very first of the great feudatories of the Empire to introduce the Dutch system, and to build a gun factory in his dominions. A number of good reproductions of sketches from the recent illustrated publication of an officer in the imperial army are given. The paper will be followed by a second one giving the results of personal observation, and, among other things, describing the new rifle invented by Col. Murata of the Japanese Army, with which the troops have been armed since last year. Col. Charles Chaillé Long, recently Secretary to the American Legation in Séoul, treats of "Art and the Monastery in Corea," describing a visit paid by him to a fortress garrisoned by clerical militia, or the Monastery of Sok-Oang-Sa in the "province" of Anpien, endowed in 1392 by Ni Taidjo, the founder of the ruling dynasty, of which the present King is the 28th. He shows that Corean art was an "exotic and born[ef] in the bosom of the monastery. It came to Corea with Buddhism in its march from India through China." "It fell when temple and tower went down in the fourteenth century." While incidentally giving some information about contemporary Corean politics and Chinese influence over the "younger brother," by which China periodically frightens Corea into submission, little or no light is thrown upon that question which fascinates and baffles students of Corean history—the almost utter annihilation of Buddhism in the Land of Morning Calm. However, since the "priests from the Western Ocean," *i. e.*, American Methodists and Presbyterians, have gained access and residence inside the capital, the Buddhist monks are now memorializing the King to enjoy the same privileges in Séoul. In this, unless we greatly err, we discern less a sign of the renascence of Corean Buddhism than the zealous prodding of the Shin sect of Japanese

Buddhists, who have a mission temple at Gensan, the open port near the monastery, and who are bound, if possible, to beat the Christians at every point.

—The same number of the *Cosmopolitan* contains an excellent essay upon military desertion by Capt. J. W. Pope, commanding the military prison at Fort Leavenworth, into which is woven a description of the prison itself. Captain Pope lays especial stress upon the fact that popular sentiment fails to regard desertion as a moral crime, but classes it with revenue frauds and other breaches of the statute law. "Running away from the army" is looked upon as any other breach of contract—something that should not be done, but which neither implies vice in the doer nor deserves severe punishment. The little army, outside of the popular pale, is practically powerless to recover its own. They become hidden in a community which, when it recognizes, sympathizes with them. This general indifference to the most heinous military offence (next to mutiny) is itself responsible for the most of it, for men reared under such influences change their clothes, but not their minds, by becoming soldiers. It is very rare after men are seasoned; it is the raw and unformed, the constitutional rovers, who generally desert. It is a curious fact, however, that the desertions far outnumber the deserters, for these vagabonds have a curious fondness for again and again enlisting and repeating their crime. The difficulty of recognition, and their comparative immunity from arrest, increase the temptation. Until very recently there were innumerable obstacles (not all now removed) to their apprehension, and the present Congress by legal enactment actually relieves from all penalty every deserter who for two years succeeds in avoiding arrest. In its intrinsic nature desertion is a continuing offence, which age aggravates, not condones. But hereafter it is outlawed in two years, and the vast horde of deserters throughout the country have had thrown around them not only immunity from punishment, but, in effect, the secrecy of privileged communications while engaged in and after securing their absolution. The prison seems to be managed in a common-sense, humanitarian way, with plenty of work, but also plenty of encouragement. It would appear that the discipline is good, and that it is directed to the elevation of the convict and to making him a self-supporting civilian, not a soldier, on his release. The commandant seems well abreast of the best sentiment of modern prison managers.

—The chief interest, writes a correspondent, attached to the Pastel Show which has just opened in London is the fact that—if current report be true—it is the last of any kind to be held in the Grosvenor. The proprietor of the gallery, Sir Coutts Lindsay, it is said, finds his club more profitable, and so the rooms once sacred to Pre-Raphaelitism and all that was holiest and most affected in English art are to be sacrificed to the needs of smokers and diners. This is the more to be regretted as Pre-Raphaelites and their followers have long since deserted the Grosvenor, while last spring Sir Coutts Lindsay, in giving prominence to the work of younger Scotchmen and Englishmen, seemed on the point of inaugurating for his gallery a really healthy and vigorous career. Two pastel shows have already been held in the Grosvenor at the same season, and probably to their success is due the formation of a Society of British Pastellists which this year gives its first exhibition. But though the Society is British, some of the best work comes from foreigners. P. S. Kroyer, a Dane, has three marvellous little studies, which show him to be a thorough master of his medium, as well as of very difficult problems of light and atmospheric effects. His work and that of Mr. J. E. Blanche is a refreshing contrast to the amateurism and pastel imitations of oils and water colors with which the gallery abounds. Mlle. Anna Belinska also has sent some good vigorous studies. Among the members of the Society, Mr. Arthur Melville and Mr. James Guthrie, the two Scotchmen who distinguished themselves in the Grosvenor last spring, again come to the fore with good figure subjects cleverly handled. There are delightful little notes of glaciers, beautiful bits of color by Mr. Stott of Oldham; several very suggestive sketches of sky and meadows, autumn foliage, and cottage gardens by Mr. George Clausen; and some strong, vigorously modelled studies of tigers by Mr. J. M. Swan. But, though there is still more good work by Mr. Muhrman, Mr. Peppercorn, Mr. McLure Hamilton, and a few others, scattered through the galleries, the show, as a whole, is rather weak. The walls of five rooms have been covered; one would easily have held all that was worth showing.

—Alberich Konrad Hofmann, Professor of the Old German and Old Romance languages and literatures at the University of Munich, who died in Trauenstein, Bavaria, October 1, in the seventy-first year of his age, was a man of profound and varied learning, a type of scholar of which the poet Uhland was one of the most distinguished representatives, and which is fast disappearing even from the academical circles of the fatherland. Hofmann was born November 19, 1819, at Banz, near Bamberg, where his father held the office of *Rentamtmann*. It was here that Hofmann's early youth was spent, and the romantic historical associations of the place, heightened by the exceeding picturesqueness of its position, left a lasting impress upon his character. He pursued his preparatory studies in the Gymnasium at Bamberg, and entered the University of Munich in 1837, where he was matriculated as a student of medicine, but soon began to hear lectures on philology and philosophy. In 1843 he went to Erlaugen and thence to Leipzig and Berlin, and now turned his attention to Oriental languages — Arabic, Sanskrit, and Zend—and to palæography. In 1848 he took the degree of doctor of philosophy at Leipzig, after a course of university studies extending over eleven years. From 1850 to 1851 he was in Paris, devoting himself to special researches in the libraries of that city. He then returned to Munich, and, in 1853, was appointed to the Professorship of Old German, made vacant by the death of Schmeller. His lectures were, at first, not confined to this subject, but comprised the Romanic languages, Sanskrit, and palæography, although, during the last twenty years of his life, his academical instruction and original investigations centred in Old German and Old Romanic, and it is upon his labors in these provinces of scholarship that his reputation chiefly rests. His published writings consist, for the most part, of criticisms and editions of texts, academical dissertations and monographs, nearly all of them comparatively small in bulk, but exceedingly important for the specialist as embodying the results of original researches. It is, however, as a teacher rather than as an author that Hofmann has exerted the widest and most enduring influence. The seeds which he thus sowed with generous hand have sprung and borne fruit in many climes and in both hemispheres.

It may be added, in illustration of the versatility of Hofmann's genius, that he was also an appreciative connoisseur in art and an accomplished musician.

—Mr. Barnard, astronomer of the Lick Observatory, has communicated to the *Astronomische Nachrichten* the results of his physical and other observations of the recent comet (Brooks 1889 V), an object likely to become historical, not only on account of its companion system, more complex and remarkable than any previously discovered, but also because of the possible identity of the comet with Lexell's comet of 1770. On every possible occasion, says Mr. Barnard, from the discovery of the companions until they disappeared from sight, the comet was constantly and thoroughly observed with the great telescope, and the adjacent region was frequently scrutinized for new objects or abnormal appearances. The term "fragments," often applied to these small bodies, is altogether inappropriate, as it implies knowledge of the method of their formation which we certainly do not possess. The measures clearly show that the separation of the companions from the main comet could not have been a very recent event; and their formation as distinct bodies possibly took place, as Mr. Chandler has suggested, at the time of the appulse with Jupiter in 1886. Mr. Barnard found the companions not only comets distinctly separate in every respect, but as perfect in form and individuality as the main comet itself. Certain anomalous appendages, recorded by observers elsewhere, Mr. Barnard explains away by the comet's passage through a region of faint and unknown nebulæ —a position which his superior location and optical power may well entitle him to take. One of these companions underwent a series of changes, entirely unique—first losing its well-defined nucleus and becoming more and more diffuse from night to night, at the same time increasing in size and becoming fainter. After about a month its place became to all appearance entirely void; and Mr. Barnard has not the slightest doubt that this companion actually dissipated itself into space and absolutely ceased to exist, if, indeed, it were not absorbed into the main comet.

—This series of observations upon objects of extreme faintness, made in part with the twelve-inch and in part with the thirty-six-inch telescope of the Lick Observatory, has furnished the much desired means of critically comparing the two. In the use of the greater telescope a decided gain was found in the larger scale and increased brightness of the cometary structures; particularly were the exact measures far more easy and precise. Towards the close of the season, however, when bad weather had set in and the atmosphere become unsteady, the advantage of the greater telescope was not so marked. Another interesting feature of this work results from the capacity of the great glass to follow important comets in their recession from the sun far beyond the reach of the smaller instruments. Also, Mr. Barnard discovered incidentally many unknown nebulæ in the region passed over by the comet—a region supposed to be deficient in nebulæ—and he thinks it likely that the great telescope would readily reveal more unknown nebulæ than the entire number in Dreyer, the latest catalogue. Connected with this important research upon the Brooks comet, we should note also a novel suggestion by Mr. Barnard, in a late number of Gould's *Astronomical Journal*, as to the possibility of following the short-period comets throughout their entire orbits. As is well

known, this has never yet been done; but the extraordinary optical power now available on Mount Hamilton has already enabled the observers there to follow present faint comets to a much greater distance than it is possible for many of the periodic comets ever to attain. If this suggestion can be realized, new and important data will be obtainable for more accurate orbits of these bodies. Mr. Barnard proposes making a search with the great telescope for Winnecke's comet and Encke's, without waiting for their return to perihelion, provided the mathematical astronomers will tell him pretty nearly where to look for them.

WEEDEN'S ECONOMIC HISTORY OF NEW ENGLAND.

Economic and Social History of New England. 1620–1789. By William B. Weeden. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE bolder outlines of New England history have been traced by the pens of many writers, but much remains to be done in filling in details. There is a wealth of materials to be drawn upon, both in published and unpublished papers, and Mr. Weeden has labored most industriously to bring these buried treasures within the reach of modern readers. It must be admitted that they make a rather disorderly pile, things being taken up very much as they occur in human life, which is an incongruous enough mixture; but as there is a full index, it is not necessary to read consecutively. Still, Mr. Weeden's transitions are sometimes so abrupt as to be confusing. Under the heading "Standards of Currency," for example, we have the following paragraph:

"The varying standards of currency are puzzling. There was the legal tender of ordinary commodities, farm produce, lumber, etc., known as 'country or money pay.' The prices of these articles were generally fixed in the rates for taxes, though Rhode Island in this year, 1662, made them 'at such prices as it then goeth to the marchants as moneye pay.' Then she allowed 40s. in country pay to be commuted into 30s. New England coin, or 22s. 6d. of English sterling coin. This made three positive currencies. In Newbury and Lynn, Mass., a cord of oak wood was worth 1s. 6d., the same as one bushel of turnips. Watertown, Mass., has a fulling-mill. Connecticut prohibits the export of tanned leather. Her tanners had the opportunity of procuring dry hides which were brought in from Virginia and elsewhere."

This seems a purely fortuitous juxtaposition, and the book is full of like instances; but as Mr. Weeden keeps pretty steadily to the chronological order of events, there is less confusion than might be expected. There is a certain impressiveness in the steady progress from the day of very small things, when a single cow was owned in shares, to the time when scores of vessels were owned by one man. There were periods when progress was less rapid than at others, and the horrible currency, to which the colonists clung with a fatal persistency, was a continual embarrassment; but, in spite of hard conditions, prosperity began soon and continued always. The remarkable thing about the currency was that there was apparently never a time when the colonies could not have supplied themselves with metallic money, or at least have maintained notes redeemable in coin. The natural laws of trade would have settled the matter for them if they had let them alone, and their privateers captured enough of the precious metals at one time and another to furnish a sufficiency for the limited requirements of the period. The errors of our forefathers have survived to plague their posterity, for as we look over the many lists of prices which Mr. Weeden submits, we are obliged to inquire in most cases as to the depreciation of the currency before we can form any judgment of their economic significance.

This intermeddling with freedom of exchange was only a part of the established policy of society. The scope of legislation was never broader. Whatever was suggested by religious feeling, prompted by superstition, recommended by propriety, or demanded by prejudice was enacted into law. Many of these laws, perhaps most of them, were futile, but this does not seem to have discouraged the ruling element, which kept steadily on with its minute regulation of conduct, as parents sometimes continue to dictate to children that have outgrown the age of obedience. This disposition to compel other people to do what we think they ought to do, was so general and so little controlled that it seems not improbable that the prevalence of socialistic theories in modern New England may be explained by it. The believers in protective theories of government can certainly claim that the history of the colonies affords an abundance of precedents, and may be pleased to find their dogmas laid down in language which can scarcely be improved upon. It must be said, however, that in those days there were truly "infant manufactures"; and where a body of proprietors held great tracts of unimproved land, they not unreasonably considered it for their interest to grant a lot to any one who would establish a needed trade. They followed the hoary Aryan village custom in so doing, but there were things at which they drew the line. Cambridge, about 1730, declined to pay a bounty of £50 to Joseph Hanford "to fit him out in the practice of physic."

Mr. Weeden cites some amusing instances of the Pharisaic morality naturally developed among the clergy by their despotic rule. One Col. Davis being about to join the church at Durham, N. H., the former pastor filed objections to his reception. The most aggravated offence was:

"his late wresting the Law of this Province in his partial Spite as[t] his own legal minister for so innocently playing at nine pins at a house noways license for a tavern, . . . besides his the s[d] Jas. Davis being so desperately & notoriously wise in his own conceit, his pretending to have so much religious discourse in his mouth, and yet live so long (40 years) in hatred unto contempt of & stand neuter from our crucified Saviour."

A later incumbent of the same parish (which it is to be hoped was exceptionally unfortunate), having a case in court, providentially discovered that the "Patriarch Joseph (under the infallible Inspiration of the Holy Ghost) made it a law unto this day" that Pharaoh should receive the fifth part (Genesis xlvii., 26). But being convinced that several of the council are against him, he offers one-fifth of his prospective award to those who decide in his favor, and gives the Governor his bond to that effect, with a recommendation of prudent concealment. This was not to be regarded "as a bribe, but a just tribute for Equitable judgment as required by the Supreme Judge (Romans xiii., 4, 6)." Gov. Belcher, however, took the liberty of "communicating narratively" the proposition of the reverend suitor, with disastrous results to the latter in his parish relations. He was removed, but sends an indignant protest to the Governor against the construction of the bond as a bribe, which he abhors in giver or receiver. "Besides, if mistaken and misimprov'd as a bribe, I've supposed it my Duty, by my said Bond of security upon my Heirs and Executors, for an Antidote against any real Bribes intended or proffer'd by implacable enemies." What would not Dickens or Scott have done with such heroes as these! Is it, after all, true that the American novelist has had no materials to work with?

Equally edifying were the pious merchants who asked the divine blessing upon the vessels which they employed in the slave trade. This traffic, and, in fact, the whole life of the time, were redolent with rum. There was nothing equal to rum as barter for slaves. One Capt. Scott tried dry goods as a substitute, but, after a disastrous experience, he pathetically declares, "I have repented a hundred times the lying of them dry goods." Some attempts were made by enlightened men to render the traffic less hurtful, Capt. Potter laying down the precept: "Make y[r] Cheaf Trade with the Blacks and Little or none with the white people if possible to be avoided. Worter y[e] Rum as much as possible and sell as much by the short mesuer as you can."

Some of the most graphic passages in these volumes are those which describe the transportation of masts and even vessels from the inland to the shore by the use of hundreds of oxen. It even appears that solid rafts of timber were navigated across the Atlantic by the hardy sailors of two centuries ago. Mr. Weeden's citations are fuller upon the subject of commerce than any other, and give a clear idea of the wonderful activity displayed from a very early time. They make it appear that the colonists were practically in rebellion against the mother country almost from the first, there never having been more than the barest pretence of enforcing the navigation acts. The Revolution was brought on, not by any novel exertion of arbitrary power, but by the attempt to exercise powers which were legitimate enough, but which the negligence of England had allowed to fall into disuse. The revenue officers were simply not permitted to collect duties, and the greater part of the trade with foreign ports was illicit. Zealous officers fared ill, as popular feeling was wholly against them. One of them, starting to prevent the landing of a whole cargo of smuggled goods, was quarantined until the emergency was past; some pretended suspicion of smallpox being assigned for his detention. When Grenville took office, the whole revenue from customs in America was but £2,000, while the cost of collecting it was £8,000. So long as England was disposed to govern in this easy fashion, the colonies were loyal; but when an attempt was made to enforce the laws, it revealed the practical independence of America.

These pages would furnish ample evidence, if evidence had anything to do with settling the matter, that our manufacturers have never needed any assistance from Government. From the earliest times the colonies were practically independent of foreign products. Franklin told the Grenville Ministry that he did not know a single article imported into the Northern colonies but what they could either do without or make themselves. Some of the colonists would have missed their wines and their tea, and most of them would have missed their rum, but before the introduction of these cheerful products they may be said to have swum in cider. A single town produced 10,000 barrels. The manufacture of iron began as soon as the country was settled, and steadily increased. Spinning and weaving were universally practised, and in 1789 Washington visited a manufactory of wool-cards that turned out 63,000 pairs of such quality that they were smuggled into England. It is intrinsically highly improbable that a population so vigorous in mind and body, so strong in moral fibre, and so en-

terprising in all directions, should not have been able to supply itself with all the necessaries and conveniences of life. Still, their advantages in the production of certain commodities were so great that only the absence of roads prevented a vast commerce. There were few carriages for nearly a hundred years after the first settlement, all travel being over bridle-paths and by ox-roads, and in 1670 it was ordained that all carts "within the necke of Bostone shall be & goe without shod wheeles."

It would be easy to ramble on in this way, but we must forego further reference to the many topics which we had marked for notice. Mr. Weeden deserves the thanks of all who are interested in the history of one of the most remarkable of human societies, for his work will prepare the way for the broader study of this history that is to come, and his volumes should be added to the library of every one who claims descent from New England ancestry.

Life of Dorothea Lynde Dix. By Francis Tiffany. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE name of Miss Dix was once a very familiar one in the households of charitable people; and now that, like most reformers whose fame lives only in the work they accomplished, she has become a portion of the past of philanthropy, in which individual distinction is less tenacious of life than in many other parts of human effort, this biography of her, which is also an ardent eulogy, is likely to serve its best end by reviving her memory as an example of how much a single life can accomplish. Mr. Tiffany tells mainly the story of her work. She appears to have cared little for any literary memorial, and to have left little which could be used for one. The letters, moreover, which have survived are not such as make the matter of biographies. Her interests were narrowly limited and her personality exceptionally single and undiversified. Her life was in fact her work, and the best we can know of her is her achievements. She was born of Massachusetts stock, suffered a childhood of privation, and was brought up, after her twelfth year, by her grandmother, a woman of rigidly Puritan convictions. A starved childhood was followed by a girlhood too directly put to the work, the care and responsibility of life; but out of these conditions came a character of strong will, high standards, and severe judgments, practical from the first, strenuous and unsparing, and, of course, with all this an enfeebled constitution. She had the good fortune to fall under Dr. Channing's influence and teach his children, and afterwards she laid by a competency as the fruits of a private school, which she maintained until she was worn out. A visit to England and a long period of invalidism there, during which she experienced the delights of a friendly home, followed. It was after her return from this journey that her attention was drawn to the condition of the insane in Massachusetts, which resulted in her devotion of her life to the effort to better the public provision for them.

It is not needful to rehearse the narrative, which Mr. Tiffany has condensed with judgment into an orderly account of how, beginning with Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New Jersey, she extended her personal investigation and patient labor with the ruling powers over all the States of the Union this side of the Mississippi, and constantly gained some new and better asylums. Her success, due to her personal authority and tact, as well as to her being a woman was very great. She suffered only one real defeat, in the veto by President Pierce of the bill devoting 12,250,000 acres of public land to the benefit of the insane, and partly of the blind, deaf, and dumb; the proceeds to be apportioned among the States as a trust for these unfortunates. This was a great disappointment to her, and she seems to have held the President in detestation ever afterwards. She had already, however, established many asylums in all parts of the country, by legislative enactment and occasionally by private charity, and had extended her efforts to Canada. She now rested from her labors long enough to go to England, but had no sooner arrived there than she began those inquiries and that agitation by personal appeal to men in authority which resulted in the change of the lunacy law of Scotland. She continued her way through Europe, and, in the Channel Islands and in Rome particularly, effected important reforms, and went as far as Constantinople, only to find the asylum of the Turks one of the best she had seen, where she had "nothing to urge and little to suggest." She returned, after making a tour through some of the Russian and Austrian institutions in particular, and in fact visiting a large part of the Continent, only to bring her great experience to bear upon the still inadequate asylums of her own country. The war coming on, she at once offered her services as nurse, and was put in control of the department of nurses' work, in which she continued until the war was over; and for her reward she received, at her own suggestion, only the stand of colors which now hangs over the entrance to the Memorial Hall at Harvard. Her activity continued so long as her strength lasted and into old age, and she died, after prolonged illness, at the Trenton Asylum, in 1887, at the age of eighty-five years.

This is the barest summary of a life-work of extraordinary power in the individual and of incalculable benefit to the humane cause she had at heart. Her work was the awakening of the sense of public duty towards one of the most pitiable and neglected classes of the State, and, besides this, and in consequence of it, the introduction of an enlightened and responsible control of the patients. But she found time for other charities by the way, and the story of her obtaining the life-saving apparatus for Sable Island or of the rescue of the kidnapped Indians in New York shows the same sense of responsibility for unrelieved suffering and the same quickness and readiness in action. Her health seems never to have been so firm but that she might at any time have excused herself from effort, had she chosen to follow the standards of the ordinary world. She was without large means or social connections or any of the subsidiary aids to encourage or sustain her in her early efforts; but she possessed herself of the facts, made influential friends, directed the use of the public funds, and thus accomplished what would have seemed, even to a sanguine mind, a hopeless task.

Her character alone can explain such results. Her personal appeal appears to have been irresistible. Her courage was absolutely without fear. Her determination was unalterable. Self-devotion so complete is seldom witnessed, and she deserved her success. In the South she awakened almost a chivalrous feeling of respect in keeping with the Southern temperament. To all this must be added a practical sense of the necessity of action at once, and an utterly unpractical obtuseness to the reasons for not doing as she wished. One incident calls for special mention, in illustration of her character. It appears that it was she who went to President Felton of the Philadelphia and Baltimore Railroad and informed him of the plot to isolate and take Washington and to prevent the inauguration of Lincoln. In consequence of this information, he sent out detectives and obtained such information that he took the measures he did for the secret journey of Lincoln and for keeping communication open. Mr. Felton is the authority for the story, and he ascribes Miss Dix's knowledge of the intentions and preparation of the plotters to her acquaintance with Southern men and character. Miss Dix forbade him to make this public, but he records it, after her death, as due to her memory.

It would be unprofitable to examine too closely the faults in such a character as this. Mr. Tiffany dwells upon them sufficiently to explain the criticisms made upon Miss Dix as the head of the nurses in war-time, and those occasionally met with in her later years when she visited and criticised the asylums. They were the excess of strength, and no more need be said. In this part of the subject, as elsewhere, Mr. Tiffany has done his work as biographer with judgment, and he has brought to it an admiration of the character and labors of Miss Dix which makes his pages glow with feeling. A memorial such as this was much needed. It is the last and best token of remembrance and respect for a fair life that can be paid; and it is matter of congratulation that the work is thoroughly and well done.

The Antiquities of Tennessee: a Series of Historical and Ethnological Studies. By Gates P. Thruston. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. 369, with 17 plates and 246 illustrations in the text.

THIS book is the outcome of a series of investigations lately made into the stone-lined graves of Tennessee; and although the articles found do not differ materially from those previously discovered in this same region, yet the facts of this and the earlier explorations are brought together in such a compact shape, and the volume is, withal, so liberally illustrated, that it must be accorded a place among the most useful works that have appeared upon this subject. It contains, moreover, a good account, so far as it goes, of the origin and probable uses of all these various objects, and to this end a comparison is instituted between them and similar articles which have been found elsewhere. The early chroniclers, too, are called upon for aid, and are made to furnish a picture of the civilization of the recent Indians whenever it is supposed to throw any light upon the questions involved.

Throughout all this portion of his work our author is especially happy. His statement of facts is usually full and fair. So, also, is his use of the authorities, and if he had been content to stop here, or, rather, if he had not insisted upon carrying his conclusion further than the facts seem to justify, we should have had only words of commendation for the volume. As it is, however, he goes further than we are willing to follow; for although he admits (p. 16) that the mound-builder and the recent Indian "cannot be divided into two entirely distinct and separate races," yet, later on, he tells us, in substance, that a study of the implements and ornaments taken from these graves, to say nothing of certain carved shell and copper "gorgets" that were found in mounds at Sevierville, Tenn., and Etowah, Ga., indicates that the people who buried in these graves and mounds had reached a stage of development higher than that to which Indians like the Iroquois, Shawnee, and Cherokee had attained. This conclusion, it is need-

less to say, we reject; and with all due deference, it seems to us that satisfactory reasons can be given for its rejection.

In the first place, granting that these gorgets, upon which great stress is laid, were the work of the so-called mound-builders, and admitting everything that can be reasonably claimed as to the superior artistic skill displayed in their manufacture, we deny that it furnishes the basis for a general inference as to the "state of society" or "degree of culture" (p. 351) of the people who made them. Unquestionably, it tells us how far these people had progressed in this particular direction, but to argue from this that they had made a corresponding advance along each and every other line of development is a step not warranted in fact or logic. That this is so will be evident to any one who will take the trouble to remember that the Navajos, who can hardly be said to be our equals in point of civilization, weave a blanket which, in some respects, is not surpassed by anything that we make.

But even if this were not the case, it would still be necessary to prove beyond the possibility of a doubt, that these carved gorgets, which, we are told (pp. 338–344–352, etc., etc.), "resemble" or "are suggestive of" Mexican art, were the work of the people among whose remains they were found. This is not done, and, indeed, the fact that the ornamentation upon them is said to be so far above the average of Indian work would seem to point the other way. That they were taken from the graves at the time and in the manner reported is admitted; but this no more proves that they were made by the people with whom they were buried than the discovery of a Winchester rifle in the grave of an Apache proves that the Indians made it. So far is it from doing anything of the sort, that the discovery in a grave of an article which in material or finish is outside of and above the usual run of such things, may be said to afford good grounds for suspecting its origin. The rule is invariable, and if we apply it in the present instance, it will, we think, furnish a clue to the seeming mystery. Take, for example, the articles from Etowah, which are, perhaps, as elaborately ornamented as any that have come down to us. The mound from which they were taken formed a part of the well-known group of earthworks at that place. It was opened under the auspices of the Bureau of Ethnology, and, according to Prof. Thomas, to whom we are indebted for an account of the exploration, it must have been thrown up after the time of De Soto. Indeed, if we read his report aright, these very gorgets furnish evidence of contact with the whites, and, curiously enough, he bases his opinion upon the study of the carvings with which they are ornamented.

In regard to the articles from Sevierville and elsewhere, about whose age nothing definite is known, but which "bear a certain resemblance to the bas-reliefs of Mexico and Central America," and are supposed by our author to be above the capacity of the historic tribes of the Mississippi Valley, we can only say that, in view of the testimony of the mounds themselves, there is no reason why they may not have been brought from Mexico or some one of the Pueblo villages. Ornaments made of shells from the Gulf have been found as far north as Minnesota, and knives and arrowheads of obsidian, which must have come from the Rocky Mountains or Mexico, have repeatedly been taken from graves and mounds in the eastern half of the Mississippi Valley. Occurrences like these (pp. 83, 84, and 355) are conclusive as to the existence of intercourse between widely separated regions, and hence there is nothing impossible or even improbable in the suggestion we have made as to the origin of these articles. On the contrary, it is a simple and satisfactory explanation of the fact; and, what is quite as much to the point, it fits in closely with all that we know of the arts and industries, manners and customs of the Indians who held all this region when first it became known to the whites. Upon this point it is unnecessary to enlarge, and we content ourselves with the remark that until it can be shown that, at some period in the past, there lived here a people, other than the Indians, who chipped flints, manufactured pots, worked in shell and copper, buried in stone graves, and carried on more or less traffic with their neighbors and others, it is a waste of time to go any further in search of the mound-builders.

Organic Evolution, as the Result of the Inheritance of Acquired Characters according to the Laws of Growth. By G. H. Theodor Eimer. Translated by J. T. Cunningham. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 435.

MUCH as they differ in regard to methods of evolution, most believers in the unity of organized nature, to whom all the manifestations of life are a connected whole, are inclined to accept the idea of spontaneous generation as a logical outcome of their belief. At once on leaving the lowest forms of life, however, the apparent agreement disappears, and the number of phylogenies approaches that of the students. Each worthy investigator rears a genealogical tree and traces its branches from his own point of view. The book in hand contains one of the most original and vigorous of evolutionary interpretations. It has been built up by studies of things in their general aspects, in their relations to other things, by methods similar to those of Darwin, but leading to very different conclusions. The character of the latter, and the manner and depth of the search for causes, may be set forth in the outlines of a few of the more striking.

Prof. Eimer maintains that the primary elements in the production of variety, in the origin of species, are the physical and chemical changes in the organisms due to environment—light, darkness, heat, cold, dryness, moisture, food, etc.—the effects of which become hereditary. The changes are all included in his definition of *growth*. Excluding the morbid and the accidental, organic growth is defined as every physiological change of structure naturally produced in an organism by external influences or constitutional causes, and which is permanent or precedes a further modification. The two things necessary for the production of growth are the given composition of the organism and the action of stimuli—for instance, of food. Following the way pointed out by Lamarck, the causes of variation are found in functional activity and external conditions. The evolution and continuous modification of organisms takes a perfectly definite direction, which in every detail is determined by the material composition (constitution) of the body. Adaptations originate through the inheritance of acquired characters; utility, being a relative conception, cannot be a fundamental cause, as things must exist before they can be useful. There is no adaptation in inability to live without nourishment, in being devoured, or in death itself occurring when the greatest amount of experience and skill has been reached.

Everything in evolution is due to natural processes, to material physical causes. Hunger or death is conditioned by the substance of the body, and the latter by the circulation between organic and inorganic nature. Reproduction is unending growth. Germ cells, like the protozoa, are practically immortal; they retain a general completeness of matter that in part is lost by the body cells, which consequently are unable to prevent exhaustion and death. Greater power of recrescence obtains in the lower beings because in them each cell more nearly possesses the power to reproduce the whole organization. Protoplasm has the property of being altered and transformed by the action of external stimuli, both those which act directly and those which affect the functions, thus acting indirectly. "Stimuli in fixed directions and constantly repeated produced, but only secondarily, fixed paths of conduction, and reflexes of a quite different kind (reflexes). Thus arose nerves and finally apparatus for storing up stimuli, arose sensation and will—as acquired and inherited faculties."

In reflex action lies the beginning of the evolution of all mental faculties. The lower forms no doubt depend on it exclusively: they act at once from each stimulus; in the higher forms stimuli are stored for later use, in reflecting and drawing conclusions. The organ of spontaneous action, the brain, is but an apparatus for storing up faculties and experiences that have either been acquired and transmitted by ancestors or acquired by its possessor. Instinct is the result of inherited automatic actions; it is inherited faculty, inherited habit; it is the power of habitually acting without reflection so as to attain a given object in response to internal stimuli that may or may not be connected with external; it is the purposeful endeavor to satisfy an impulse, the latter being merely the urgent desire to get rid of an unsatisfactory condition of the body, to remove an unpleasant feeling. The will is "the result of a number of factors, which are partly hereditary and material, partly directly or indirectly derived from the outer world. Involuntary and voluntary action do not differ essentially, but only in so far that the latter presupposes an accumulation, a storing-up, of impressions in a common organ (the brain), and the possibility of an interaction of these. The will, therefore, can never be free. The erroneous idea of its freedom depends in each particular case on the neglect of factors of which it is always the slave." Consciousness is "the sensation of the condition, as affected by the outer world, of the brain at a given moment." Irritability is a fundamental property of protoplasm; from it are evolved, by acquisition and inheritance, the irritability of nerves in animals and the power of sensation and will.

The factors by which organs and faculties have, according to Prof. Eimer, been engendered and developed are sufficiently indicated in the foregoing abstract. It is patent that the opinions will find greatest favor with such as accept some form of Lamarckian teachings. The utilitarian principle is recognized, but is given a secondary place; and selection, though adopted, is evidently, as with warmer advocates, something of a dumping-ground for guesses and suppositions at second hand, not yet subjected to critical examination. It is likely that too much is ascribed to selection, as also to competition. For if the agents cited by the author exert the influence claimed, which is not questioned, it must be felt by all the individuals subjected to it, and the tendency to vary in accord with its demand will thus be induced and established in spite of any struggle that does not sweep them all away; the

effect of pammixis being only to average the advance by retarding in the offspring of the most precocious, or hastening in that of the least susceptible and sluggish. The author rightly asserts that competition is not at all formative, but adds that through extermination of intermediates it makes the lines more distinct. The destruction of intermediates on any such scale as is generally supposed is extremely doubtful. The inception and progress of a variation are commonly so very gradual that the animal appears at all times adapted to its situation; it is the sudden change, the accident of life, for which it is unprepared. A struggle between individuals severe enough to select, as usually postulated, would prove fatal to the young and the burdened females and thus to the species itself. By compelling migration, competition may indirectly cause a line to originate.

There are a number of minor points to which exceptions may be taken, though in the main the author's position is of the soundest and best supported. He states that moisture and elevation promote dark coloring directly. The real cause would seem to be in the quality of the light reaching the object; in this way we can account for similar phenomena under water. The chemical or photographic effects of light are brought forward in the ingenious explanation of stripes and spots in the markings of animals; in origin the first are connected with the period of monocotyledonous plants casting linear shadows, the second with the later polycotyledons which cast spotted shadows. Color details, markings, etc., are attributed to physiological causes, as by Dr. Hagen on insects. Seasonal dimorphism, in Vanessa, Pieris, Papilio, and other Lepidoptera, is caused by heat and cold: sexual dimorphism by physical differences of the sexes. Voice of males and like sexual characters are said to be due to sexual selection; why not also to physical differences?

Among slips of pen or thought we may note the following: On page 7, the 'Law of Migration' is given to A. Wagner, instead of Moriz Wagner; on page 278, the statement, "For the only possible explanation," etc., is followed in the next sentence but one by "Another explanation which might be given is," etc.; and on page 431 we find, "Accordingly there is nothing fortuitous, but everything in evolution, to the smallest detail, is governed by laws. Chance only selects to a certain degree."

As a whole, we can hardly praise this work too highly; it is a model of conciseness and clearness of statement; it is to a very great extent founded on actual researches by the author, and is filled with results of his own observation and experiment. The doctrine of material physical causes for each effect encourages healthy research; there is no disposition to skip about over all creation in a search for adaptations. The concluding sentence contains an entire creed: "Our duty is work; our right is free investigation; our satisfaction, the establishment of a grain of truth for the benefit of mankind; our hope—knowledge."

The Pacific Coast Scenic Tour: From Southern California to Alaska; the Canadian Pacific Railway; Yellowstone Park, and the Grand Cañon. By Henry T. Finck. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

WITH a part of the contents of this handsome volume, as with the author's name in more than one branch of book-making, our readers are already familiar. Mr. Finck's occasional letters to this journal are here revised and supplemented, with the result indicated in the sub-title—a continuous report of the journey northward from the Mexican border to Sitka; of the Canadian Pacific route eastward to Lake Superior; of the Yellowstone Park, and the Colorado Cañon. In point of readableness and interest this narrative leaves nothing to be desired. It is very far from being a padded account of personal adventure. Mr. Finck is a close and many-sided observer, and if he never omits a mountain worth looking at, or the characteristic flora of the landscape, or the color charm of flower or lake, he is, on the other hand, prodigal of information concerning local industries and products, climatic conditions for husbandman and invalid, neglected opportunities for enterprise, social conditions, and the like. In these practical particulars, as well as in his remarks upon the scenery, he has been aided not only by early residence on the coast, in Oregon, but by wide European travel, which furnishes the basis of many useful comparisons. Though enthusiastic over the combination of Italy (or Spain) and Switzerland which our Coast States present, Mr. Finck does not overlook the struggle for existence with the forces of nature under the most favored skies, and his picture of things as they are may safely be commended as trustworthy to native and foreign readers—and the book should have many foreign readers. It is surprising to find so much detail conveyed in so compact and agreeable a form.

A vein of pleasantry pervades Mr. Finck's style, as where he says (p. 30): "Many residents in our Eastern and Middle States have often wondered what has become of the spring, which used to form one of our seasons. It has followed the general tide of immigration, has gone West, and may now be found in riotous exuberance along the coast and the foot-hills of California." One's cheerfulness is also assisted by the author's positiveness of expression in matters like the tyranny of prohibition or the stupidity of hotel-keepers or railway-managers or park-keepers. His descriptions are clear, often graphic, and show a marked sensibility to and knowledge of flowers, and a great love of mountains, as manifested in his chapters on the magnificent solitary peaks of California, Oregon, and Washington, and the Alaskan coast range. We must confine ourselves to a single specimen. Speaking of Lake Tahoe and its gorgeous reflections, he continues (p. 139):

"Its own varied and ever-changing surface-colors are equally enchanting, though more sombre and melancholy. There are several zones of color. The shore is lined with sand, coarse as bird-shot and clear as the water itself; and for a distance of several hundred yards this sand is visible as we row into the lake, corrugated by the waves like the tiny furrows in the palms of our hands, and giving the water a yellowish tint. Further in, it becomes blue, gradually shading into so deep a hue that we are ready to believe that a ship with a cargo of indigo must have gone down here, and feel tempted to dip a pen into it to see if it will do to write with; but dip up a glassful, and it is as clear and colorless as if it had just spouted from an artesian well, and as cold. . . .

"Cloud shadows climbing up a mountain height are a fascinating sight, but not to be compared with the spectacle of the irregular patches of color that are chased by the wind across the crests of the Tahoe wavelets, like semi-liquid purple, green, and violet mists, vanishing in the distance into air, and followed by other color-waves in rapid succession. . . . Looking leewards, the water nearest the shore appeared gray, bordered by a light violet, with yellowish and purple patches; then came a deep green streak, followed by a broader indigo band, and finally a deep violet field, bounded by a faint mist raised a little above the water and slightly veiling the mountains. Every morning the details were new."

It remains to add that there are twenty exceptionally good full-page process plates, many of them fresh of subject, like the stupendous setting of the Canadian Pacific Hotel at Banff, the snow-seamed sides of Devil's Head Lake, and the Selkirk glacier. On page 158, "northward" should obviously be read for "southward."

A Pocket Handbook of Biography, containing more than 10,000 names of Celebrities, showing their nationality, rank or condition, profession or occupation, the dates of their birth and death. Compiled by H. F. Reddall. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1890.

WE give Mr. Reddall's title nearly *in extenso*, and we will further give him the benefit of a reading-notice by quoting his prefatory note entire:

"In the following concise 'Dictionary of Biography,' particular attention has been paid to the orthography and the matter of dates, the best and most recent authorities having been consulted. A doubtful or approximate date is followed by an interrogation point. The contraction 'fl.' stands for 'flourished'—that is, lived. Nicknames, pennames, etc., also designations of kinship, are printed in italics following the real name. The words in brackets denote some work, as a book or an invention, produced by the personage, or some famous episode in his history. The Handbook will be found especially rich in names of living celebrities."

The idea of a biographical dictionary to contain the 10,000 (more or less) names about which readers and writers are most likely to require information, the description, etc., being limited to a single line, was a happy one, and has several times been realized. Fame, however, is not only fleeting, but capricious, so that in a work dealing, in great part, with contemporaries, a considerable proportion of those entitled to a place among the 10,000 of 1880 would have to give place, in 1890, to others about whom public curiosity may be equally short-lived. This consideration, however, does not seem to have weighed with Mr. Reddall so much as the advantage of having the information needed in a handy shape. He does not mention the biographical dictionary which forms a supplement to the "Unabridged" Webster, but he must, we think, have been annoyed by the inconvenience necessary in consulting the final pages of that immense quarto, and have thought that there might be a market for the same material in another form.

The Webster "Dictionary," "containing nearly 10,000 names of noteworthy persons, with their nationality, their station, their profession or occupation, and the dates of their birth and death," was compiled by Mr. L. J. Campbell in 1879, on the plan described in Mr. Reddall's preface. The work was well done, especially with reference to contemporaries, and the only fault to be found with Mr. Reddall's reissue of it is, that the revision made necessary by lapse of time is so incomplete. Thus, under Z, Mr. Campbell gives fifty-eight names; Mr. Reddall the same names, described in identical language (except for the occasional omission of a word or a misspelling), arranged in the same order, and with only one addition, viz., Zalinski. It is strange that if he made a practice of pencilling additions on the margin of Webster, it should not have occurred to him to insert Zola as well as Zalinski. Other omissions we have noticed are Alfonso XIII., Amiel, A. J. Balfour, E. Bellamy, W. Besant, Phillips Brooks, Bryce, Cairoli, Caprivi, Benj. R. and Geo. T. Curtis, Daudet, Elizabeth of Rumania, Ferdinand of Bulgaria, Chief-Justice Fuller, Lord Hartington, Humbert of Italy, Ibsen, Lassalle, Louis II. of Ba-

varia, Milan of Servia, John Morley, Oscar II., Ohnet, T. B. Reed, Rudolf of Austria, Scheffel, W. H. Smith, Tisza, Waldersee, and William II. Men who were alive in 1879 are, with some exceptions, alive still, so far as Mr. Reddall is aware. We give in parentheses a few of the omitted dates. C. F. Adams (1886), Countess Agoult (1876), W. H. Ainsworth (1882), Asbjörnsen (1885), C. Ashburner (1889), Audiffret (1878), Auerbach (1882), Augier (1881), Aurelle de Paladines (1877), Auzoux (1880), Beust (1886), G. Borrow (1881), E. Burritt (1879), Lord Cairns (1885), H. C. Carey (1879), J. Esten Cooke (1886), R. H. Dana (1882), C. Darwin (1882), R. W. Emerson (1882), Fazy (1878), Fechter (1879), W. E. Forster (1886), Countess Guiccioli (1873), Hackländer (1877), Hayne (1886), Gen. Hooker (1879), G. P. Marsh (1882), Marx (1883), Dinah (Muloch) Craik (1887), Theophilus Parsons (1882), J. G. Saxe (1887), Lord Stanhope (1875), etc., etc.

Space fails to mention the errors of commission in Mr. Reddall's addenda. The late Emperor Frederic, for instance, is entered twice, once as "Frederic William Nicholas Charles (Frederick III.), Emperor of Germany, 1831," with nothing to indicate his death. Prince Frederic-Carl, also (died 1885), appears not only to be alive, but to be styled "Prince of Prussia"—a title borne only by the heir presumptive. The sovereign of Rumania is still "prince"; L. P. Morton is only an "Am. banker," "Luise Mühlbach" is treated as a real name, Lord Wolseley is still merely a baronet, etc. In conclusion we may say that the revision of Mr. Campbell's dictionary by himself, in the 'Webster' of 1890, is far better than that by Mr. Reddall.

Five Years with the Congo Cannibals. By Herbert Ward, in collaboration with D. D. Bidwell. Illustrated from drawings by the author. Robert Bonner's Sons. 1890. 8vo, pp. 308.

THIS book has a special interest from the fact that the author was a member of the Rear Guard of Mr. Stanley's expedition for the relief of Emin Pasha. It is not, however, a defence of the actions of the leaders of that ill-fated body, the only reference to the controversy being in the preface. This contains a brief summary of the principal facts, and closes with the simple remark that, in 'Darkest Africa,' Mr. Stanley "takes much too harsh a view of a portion of his expedition that endured great hardships while doing their best"; in which opinion, so far as our knowledge goes, we heartily concur. Mr. Ward makes several other references to Mr. Stanley in the course of his book, all of which, it should be added, show the highest appreciation of his great abilities, without the slightest trace of bitterness. This fact makes a favorable impression upon the reader which the book, as a whole, in no wise diminishes. In his dealings with the natives Mr. Ward seems to have shown the tact, patience, and courage which characterize all successful travellers among savages. An evidence of their regard for him is the name, "Eagle's Wing," which they gave him in admiration of his exploits as a pedestrian. His book is not a continuous narrative, but a series of sketches of the various river tribes between Stanley Falls and the sea, and of personal adventure. They are, in the main, well told, and give a good idea of the habits and appearance of the natives, as well as of the life of an officer of the Free State. What this organization has accomplished in civilizing and developing the vast territory under its nominal control Mr. Ward, possibly intentionally, does not intimate. If any inference can be drawn from his accounts, it would be unfavorable, on the whole, to the prospects of the new State under its present management. Cannibalism appears still to be prevalent on the upper river, though it is a singular fact that part of a tribe will be avowed eaters of human flesh, while another part, living close to it, will indignantly deny the practice. On the other hand, the Bolobo, who, of all the races in this part of Africa, are the most cruel and take the keenest delight in the sacrifice of human life, are not cannibals.

"Very often," says Mr. Ward, "on these occasions [the settlement of a quarrel] a slave is purchased; the bones of his arms and legs are broken; he is carried to some open, well-known spot, generally a cross-road; a hole is dug, and he is placed in it, the earth being filled in and well trodden down around him, so as to leave his head just above the surface. Any person found giving him either food or water is liable to be served in the same way, and so he is left to die a lingering, painful death."

A tribe living on one of the great northern tributaries of the Congo has a peculiar method of hair-dressing: "They completely shave the head, and then allow the hair to grow all over for three or four weeks, after which they shave designs, such as half moons, stars, squares, and parallel lines. When the hair grows too long for the design to be visible, the whole scalp is again shaved, and some different pattern adopted." All of the tribes of the upper river are distinguished from each other by the scarring of their skins with various patterns. The Bangala tribal mark, for instance, "consists of a series of horizontal cross-cuts half an inch in length, extending down the centre of the forehead from the hair to between the eyes, with a smaller patch of diagonal cuts upon the temples."

Mr. Ward gives a rather favorable account of the famous Hamed bin Mohammed, or Tippo Tib, a name "bestowed upon him by the natives of the districts he first entered to wage war; his many guns, with their quickly recurring discharges, sounding in the ears of the affrighted natives like 'tip u tip, tip u tip,' as the marauders blazed away through the plantations of their villages." This is not, however, Livingstone's interpretation, which is "the gatherer together of wealth." The most interesting chapters are those describing the author's two canoe journeys down the river, with their ever present dangers from the sudden storms, the hippopotami, and the hostile negroes. The district which these inhabited was of several hundred miles in extent, and each village warned the next lower of his approach by sounding horns and drums. War canoes shot out to intercept his progress at every turn, both by day and night, but he succeeded in some way in evading them all, apparently without firing a shot. Mr. Ward is evidently not a naturalist, though he is something of a hunter, so that he gives little information in regard to the fauna and flora of the Congo. Elephants, according to his accounts, still seem to be numerous on parts of the river. The engineers who surveyed a route for the railway to Stanley Pool frequently came upon them, in one instance upon a herd numbering fifty five.

Many of the pictures, of which there is a large number, mostly from Mr. Ward's drawings, are admirable. Especially good, among those representing native types, is that of the leader of Manyema marauders on page 206.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F. The Poet's Year. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $6.
Allen, Elizabeth A. Go'd Nails to Hang Memories On. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.50.
Arnold, Matthew. Poetical Works. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Ashby, N. B. The Riddle of the Sphinx. Des Moines: Industrial Publication Co.
Atlas of the Metropolitan District and Adjacent Country. New York: Julius Bien & Co.
Babcock, W. H. The Two Lost Centuries of Britain. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Bain, W. P. Are the Effects of Use and Disuse Inherited? Macmillan & Co. $1.
Bandeller, A. F. The Delight Makers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Barr, Amelia E. Friend Olivia. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Barrett, F. Between Life and Death. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Beddoes, T. L. Poetical Works. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Blyth, A. W. A Manual of Public Health. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Bolton, Sarah K. Famous English Authors of the Nineteenth Century. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Book of the Game Laws of the United States and Canada. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Browne, Maggie. Wanted—A King. London: Cassell & Co.
Bruce, H. Life of General Oglethorpe. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Burterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in the Great Northwest. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.
Cartier, A. La République Américaine: États-Unis. 4 vols. Paris: Guillaumin & Cie.
Clark, Susie C. A Look Upward. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Compayré, G. The Elements of Psychology. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Colton, A. M. The Old Meeting-House. Worthington Co.
Cox, Palmer. Another Brownie Book. The Century Co
Daudet, A. Kings in Exile. George Routledge & Sons.
Daudet, A. Port Tarascon. Harper & Bros.
Dickens, C. The Christmas Carol. Brentano's. $5.
Dock, Lavinia L. Text-book of Materia Medica for Nurses. G. P. Putnam's sons. $1.25.
Drake, S. A. The Taking of Louisburg. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Elderton, W. A. Maps and Map Drawing. Macmillan & Co. 35 cents.
Elson, L. C. The Theory of Music. Boston: New England Conservatory of Music
Endicott-Hobhouse. The Familiar Letters of James Howell. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Farrar, F. W. The Minor Prophets. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Farrington, Margaret Vere. Fra Lippo Lippi. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Fester, R. Rousseau und die deutsche Geschichtsphilosophie. Stuttgart: G. Göschen
Finley, Martha. Elsie Yachting with the Raymonds. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Francis, L. H. Through Thick and Thin. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Gautier, L. Chivalry. George Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Geterman, J. M. Ezzelin von Romano. Part I. Stuttgart: W. Kohlhammer.
Gladden, W. Santa Claus on a Lark, and Other Christmas Stories. The Century Co.
Goldsmith, O. The Vicar of Wakefield in the Corresponding Style of Phonography. Isaac Pitman & Sons.
Goss, W. L. Recollections of a Private. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Gunther, A. C. Miss Nobody of Nowhere. The Home Publishing Co.
Harris, m. J. A Manual of the Typewriter. London: Isaac Pitman & Sons.
Headlam, W. Fifty Poems of Meleager. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Hendrick, W. A Brief History of the Empire State. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Hermetic Philosophy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Herrick, F. Flirt. Worthington Co.
Ibsen, H. The Prose Dramas. Vol. II. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army. Vol. XI. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Isham, A. B., Davidson, H. M., and Furness, H. B. Prisoners of War and Military Prisons. Cincinnati: Lyman & Cushing. $3.50.
Jastrow, J. The Time-Relations of Mental Phenomena. N. D. C. Hodges.
Jefferson, Joseph. Autobiography. The Century Co.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in Great Britain and Ireland. Harper & Bros.
Kraszewski, J. I. The Jew. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Latimer, L. H. Incandescent Electric Lighting. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies, and Practice, at Law, in Equity, and under the Codes. Vol. VII. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Lecky, W. E. H. A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. Vols. VII., VIII. D. Appleton & Co. $2.25.
Lindsay, T. B. The Satires of Juvenal. American Book Co.
Little Ones' Annual. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Lockwood, H. C. Constitutional History of France. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $2.50.
Longfellow, H. W. The Song of Hiawatha. Illustrated by Frederic Remington. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Macnab, J. A. Sons of the Passaic. Walbridge & Co.
McCaskey, J. P. Christmas in Song, Sketch, and Story. Harper & Bros.
Masson, D. The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. XIII. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Molesworth, Mrs. The Children of the Castle. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Montague, A. P. Selected Letters of M. Tullius Cicero. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.
O'Donnell, Jessie F. Love Poems of Three Centuries. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Ouida. Ruffino. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Our Little Men and Women. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Pitman, I. A Manual of Phonography. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.50.
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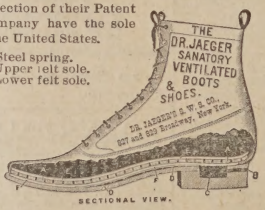

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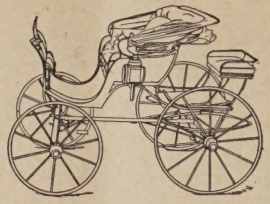

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 13, 1890.

The Week.

THE most impressive aspect of the Democratic victory in the next House of Representatives is the fact that the party has a clear majority of the members elected in the Northern States, and does not need a single seat from the South in order to outvote the Republicans. Moreover, the Democrats have a majority of the members elect in each section of the North. In New England the Democrats have elected thirteen Representatives, against only twelve Republicans, and their total would already be fourteen, except that one candidate in Rhode Island, who had a good plurality, must run a second time, when a plurality will suffice. In the old "Middle States" of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, the Democrats have elected 38, against only 31 for the Republicans. In the West, taking in the whole region from the Alleghanies to the Pacific, the Democrats and their allies among the farmers have 75, against only 42 for the Republicans. If we consider what is commonly called "the West"—including only the older States from Pennsylvania to Colorado—the Opposition have 74 members against only 27 Republicans. In other words, alike in New England, in the old Middle States, and in the great States of the West, the Republican party has become the minority party on the Congressional issue. Its losses have been heaviest in the States, like Massachusetts in the East, and Iowa, Minnesota, and Kansas at the West, which have been its strongholds.

A no less significant feature of the result is the fact that the Republicans would be placed in a minority in the Senate also of the Fifty-second Congress but for their admission of two Territories with populations of only 84,229 in Idaho and but 60,589 in Wyoming, their retention of the two Senators from the "rotten borough" of Nevada, with far fewer people than even Wyoming, and their corrupt capture of the two seats from Montana, which has just pronounced a verdict upon the performance by casting a Democratic majority. Not counting the four Republican Senators who have not yet taken their seats from Idaho and Wyoming, the Republicans have ten majority. They lose by Tuesday's elections one seat each from the States of New York, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Kansas, with the New Hampshire Legislature and its Senatorship still in doubt. Even with Montana's two seats unjustly awarded to the Republicans, they would have only 42 without New Hampshire, and 43 with that State, of the 84 seats after the 4th of March, 1891, if they had not secured four Republican Senators, and thus a total of 46 Republicans to 42 Democrats, or 47 to 41, if Blair has a Republican successor, by the gross injustice of giving the petty populations of Idaho and Wyoming as much power in the upper branch of Congress as New York and Pennsylvania possess. Moreover, for all practical purposes of legislation, it must be remembered that this Republican majority of two or four, as the case may be, includes three men who voted against the passage of the great Republican measure of the last session.

The popular wrath singled out for destruction nearly all the leading figures in the Republican riot in Congress at the last session. McKinley has gone down in Ohio; Cannon, who touched a lower depth than any other man in his subserviency to the Speaker and in exemplification of his policy that the House was "not a deliberative body," has gone down in Illinois; Rowell, who, as Chairman of the Elections Committee, led in the theft of so many Democratic seats that the Republican majority was swelled from 7 to 24, has gone down also in Illinois; Gear, one of McKinley's most powerful supporters in the Ways and Means Committee, who has been one of the foremost if not the foremost Republican leader of his State for more than a quarter of a century, having been twice elected Governor and twice elected to Congress, has gone down in Iowa; Greenhalge, who presided over the last Republican Convention in his State, and defended Quay morals in politics and McKinley principles in political economy, has gone down in Massachusetts. This is only a partial list of casualties among the leading lights of the latter-day Republican party who have crowded to the front to show their zeal for that kind of politics which takes no account of the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule.

Conspicuous on the list of the slain in the great battle should be placed the name of John J. Ingalls, Senator from Kansas, and President pro tem. of the Senate, and author of the following celebrated statement of modern political ethics:

> "The purification of politics is an iridescent dream. Government is force. Politics is a battle for supremacy. Parties are the armies. The Decalogue and the golden rule have no place in a political campaign. The object is success. To defeat the antagonist and expel the party in power is the purpose. In war it is lawful to deceive the adversary, to hire Hessians, to purchase mercenaries, to mutilate, to kill, to destroy. The commander who lost a battle through the activity of his moral nature would be the derision and jest of history. This modern cant about the corruption of politics is fatiguing in the extreme. It proceeds from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism, of epicenes."

There has never been any doubt that the author of this passage was a charlatan and a corrupt man. He has been more than suspected of having bought his seat in the Senate, yet he has been able to get that seat for three successive terms, and, though his most conspicuous characteristic as a debater is his foul mouth, he has been elected repeatedly to the Presidency of the Senate by the Republican majority. At last the "moral nature" of Kansas has shown sufficient "activity" to put an end to his career. A political revolution has taken place in the State, and a Legislature has been chosen which, according to the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, "is conceded to have an anti-Ingalls majority." It is believed to be too large for him to buy—a circumstance which will doubtless make "this modern cant about the corruption of politics" more "fatiguing" to him than ever. It will be an incalculable gain to the moral atmosphere of the Senate chamber to have this vulgar ranter tipped out of its Chairman's seat.

Although Henry Cabot Lodge secured a re-election to Congress, the fact should not be overlooked that his loss of votes was greater proportionally than in the cases of his beaten colleagues, Candler and Greenhalge and Rockwell; and that he would have been left at home if he had not had an immense partisan majority to fall back upon. In 1888 his lead over his Democratic opponent was no less than 5,294, while last week he received only 1,023 more votes than William Everett, who was, it will be remembered, nominated from without the district. If the regular Republican majority in the district had been no larger than the 2,027 which Rockwell had in 1888, or the 2,036 in Candler's district then, or the 3,220 in Greenhalge's district two years ago, Mr. Everett's brilliant campaign would have been crowned with the election which it so richly deserved.

The Republicans of Michigan have received a lesson similar to that of their brethren in Pennsylvania. They also tried the experiment of running for Governor a man who had been charged with breaches of trust while holding public office, and who had been unable to disprove those charges. In fact, he admitted some of the worst of them, and coolly took the position that there was no harm in using public office as he had done—that is, for his personal and private gain. He had taken public money and used it as his own, though the law explicitly forbade his doing so, but justified his conduct by saying that he had restored the money again and the State had lost nothing. This was also Quay's defence of his use of public funds. The people of Michigan, like the people of Pennsylvania, are obviously harsh in their views of this kind of official honor, for they have defeated the Republican candidate for Governor by about 10,000 plurality, reversing a Republican plurality of over 17,000 in 1888, when the present Governor was chosen, and a Republican plurality of over 33,000 in the election for Supreme Court Justice in 1889. Their total vote shows a great falling off, though there has been a large increase in population, their control of the Legislature

is greatly weakened if not destroyed, they have lost four Congressmen—have received, in fact, the most crushing defeat in their history as a party.

The noteworthy feature of the election in Virginia was the fact that the Republican Machine, in accordance with directions from Mahone, ordered the negroes not to go to the polls. In no other Southern State do positive orders of this sort appear to have been given, but in few places did the negroes manifest any more interest in the result than in Virginia. The Savannah *News* says that one of the most noticeable features of the election in that city was "the almost total absence of the old-time country darky, who, in days gone by, firmly believed the Government would give him 'forty acres and a mule' if he voted the Republican ticket." As to the colored people generally, the *News* says that they "took very little interest in the election. Although there was a pretty large crowd of them about the polls all day, their apathy indicated that they cared nothing for either candidate. Some of them probably were expecting a distribution of 'boodle,' but if so they were disappointed." Now that the negroes in one Southern State have shown that they will stay away from the polls if a white boss tells them to do so, and in other Southern States have shown that they care little about voting anyway, it is to be hoped that we have heard the last of the nonsense about counting every negro as a Republican voter in every election if he be not bulldozed.

The most striking and encouraging feature of the post-election discussion is the moderation manifested by the victors. As a rule, the Democrats realize that it was not a triumph for narrow partisanship, and that the result imposes upon them serious obligations which must be discharged with an eye single to the public good if they would retain public confidence. This was the dominant note of all the speeches at the great celebration held in Boston on Thursday evening. "We meet," said Governor-elect Russell, "not to exult over a defeated opponent, but to rejoice that Massachusetts, true to herself, her traditions, and her glorious history, has declared to the country in emphatic voice that the people's law shall be used for their interests only, and that legislation shall be free from selfish and improper influences With true Massachusetts spirit, the people have declared that a party to win success must deserve it; must place principle above policy, patriotism above party, promote the public welfare, and serve the people's interests only. Upon this basis we have won success; let us not forget it in the hour of our triumph." In a like spirit Mr. Corcoran, Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, after referring to the fact that his party had carried the State for Governor and elected a majority of the Congressional delegation, said: "But while that is true, we should not forget that it is to the people of Massachusetts that we owe our triumph. It was not Democratic votes that determined this contest, but it was the votes of the people who forgot, or, rather, who did not forget, but realized, that there was a God in Israel outside of the Republican party." Mr. G. F. Williams, again, who defeated the Republican candidate for Congress in the Ninth District, said: "We are on trial. Victory is worse than defeat unless we stand the test." And Sherman Hoar, who defeated the Republican candidate for Congress in the Fifth District, said: "We have shown you what we can do in the campaign, and we have yet to show the people what we can do for their good as legislators. One word of caution. We want to elect Grover Cleveland; and when you hear that your legislators at the State House or your Congressmen at Washington have done a certain thing, don't be too ready to criticise and to sneer. We have got to keep faith, not only with the Democrats, but with the whole people, and we have got to prove that tariff reform, civil-service reform, and election reform are safe in Democratic hands." All of the speakers recognized that the victory had been won upon the issue made by Mr. Cleveland, and the loudest applause was given to every reference to his expected election to the Presidency in 1892.

The bearing of the late elections upon the next Presidential contest is obvious enough to all who are not trying to deceive themselves. As the Democratic victories were won on the issue which Mr. Cleveland forced upon his party and the country, the logic of events makes him the inevitable candidate of the Democrats when the same issue shall be submitted for final decision in 1892. The Philadelphia *Inquirer*, a plain-spoken Republican newspaper, puts the case very clearly when, after frankly admitting that "protection has suffered a tremendous defeat," it says: "The results of these elections draw the lines of battle for 1892. The widespread Democratic victory forces the Democracy into positive advocacy of advanced 'tariff reform.' If Pennsylvania and the other Republican States had maintained their position in the party ranks, the most prominent candidate before the Democratic party to-day would be Gov. Hill. But the Democracy can have little use for Hill now. Cleveland is thrust to the front by force of circumstances to lead the free-trade hosts, and the issue of '92 must of necessity be the same old struggle between free trade and protection." The *Inquirer* suggests the question: "With Cleveland leading the Democratic forces, who will lead the Republican side?" But it only answers it, Yankee-like, with the further question: "Does the situation point to Blaine?"

The *Tribune* of Saturday, in offering its public "things to think about," says that

> "Free raw material, free ores and coal, pig-iron, hides, leather and lumber, free wool and barley and farm products of all kinds, would mean the closing of a great many establishments now in operation, and the discharge of a great many workers in mines or forests or on farms."

The condition of the Republican mind about hides has been one of the curiosities of the late campaign, and fairly illustrates the amount of knowledge and deliberation which was brought to the construction of the McKinley Bill. Hides have been on the free list for about fifteen years, thus fostering an immense and prosperous home leather industry; but somehow many of the protectionists have never been able to reconcile themselves to the spectacle. During the passage of the bill, Mr. Blaine wanted to have a duty put on hides in order to furnish him with materials for his great reciprocity dicker with the South American States, and at one time it seemed as though Congress would gratify him; but the leather-men were too strong for him. Others have never been able to believe that hides really are on the free list. The *Tribune*, apparently, is one of them. The Scholar in Politics is another. He calmly told a Massachusetts audience during the late canvass that the Republicans in the last Congress had lowered the duty on hides. Another wiseacre named Fox, who was put up for Congress against Sherman Hoar in the Concord district, mentioned, as one of the foul calumnies concocted against the Republicans by "the British free-traders," the charge that they were going to reduce the duty on hides. As the audience tittered, some one on the platform had to pull his coat-tails and remind him that hides were now free. In like manner and for a similar purpose, we respectfully pull the *Tribune's* coat-tails, or whatever it is that passes for or serves as coat-tails in that tariff temple

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The "little tin god on wheels" that was circulating around the country starting tin-plate works here and there and hiring thousands of men, women, and children, has disappeared in a magical way. The Pittsburgh *Press* records his exit, and demands that the duty on tin plate, and also on metallic tin, be repealed. It is high time, for the Chicago packers of canned meats have decided to advance their prices one-quarter of a cent per pound to cover the increased cost of cans due to the McKinley tariff on tin plate. The price of tin cans in Baltimore has advanced from $2.35 to $4.50 per hundred. Of course, this is due in part to speculation—the speculation being due to the new tax, which does not go into effect till July 1, 1891. Everybody is trying to "load up" before that event, and the Welsh manufacturers of tin plate are consequently enjoying a phenomenal prosperity for the time being, at our expense.

Paragraph 383 of the McKinley tariff provides that "the duty upon wool of the sheep, or hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and other like animals . . . which has been sorted or increased in value by the rejection of any part of the original fleece, shall be twice the duty to which it would be otherwise subject." When the first importation of carpet wool was made under this law, the Boston customs authorities decided that paragraph 383 did not apply to carpet wool. Mr. Arthur T. Lyman, the carpet-

manufacturer of Lowell, Mass, although his own interests were promoted by the Boston ruling, wrote a letter, which was published in the *Commercial Bulletin* of that city, remonstrating, in the interest of good morals, against such a glaring infraction and defiance of law. He showed that paragraph 383 makes no exception of carpet wool, and that no other clause of the act makes an exception of it. The *Bulletin* concurred with Mr. Lyman. It was supposed that when the matter should come before the new Board of Appraisers, they would overrule the Boston decision. On the contrary, they sustained it. They imported into the law a proviso that was never put there by Congress, and which, as it now turns out, the Committee of Ways and Means refused to put there when their attention was expressly called to it. This action of the Board of Appraisers was certainly freer trade than any tariff-reformer ever advocated, since it went to the length of lowering the tariff in an important particular in the face and eyes of Congress itself. The reason why this was done, the *Bulletin* tells us, was that an *understanding* existed in the Committee of Ways and Means that the Appraisers should rule as they have ruled on this clause, but that it would not be safe to make an exception of carpet wool in the law itself lest the wool-growers should get wind of it and kill the bill. This is the only explanation that has been offered for the extraordinary action of the Appraisers. We do not know whether these cool individuals who have undertaken to alter acts of Congress in order to carry out private understandings, are amenable to indictment or not, but they probably are amenable to impeachment.

The bad turn in Wall Street is evidently the result of the bad turn in London. Engagements had been made in that city to send large sums in gold to Spain and South America to rehabilitate the rickety finances of those countries. The drain on the Bank of England caused an advance in the rate of discount to 6 per cent., and with the probability of even a higher rate. This caused a drain on the Bank of France, and the latter institution stopped gold payments, as it has the right to do under the monetary system of that country, where the double standard exists legally, although silver is no longer coined. The Bank of France, when a drain of gold sets in that becomes at all inconvenient, redeems its notes in silver and then sells its gold at a premium greater or less according to circumstances. The bank cannot be blamed for taking this course, since it is required by law to receive silver at par. It cannot pay out better money than it takes in. Redeeming its notes in silver, however, does not stop the outflow of gold if the exchanges really call for an exportation of that metal. Gold becomes in that case a commodity to be bought and sold in the market along with other French property, and the question is simply whether the commodity gold shall be exported or the commodities wine, silk, sugar, broadcloth, etc.—those which are offered at the lowest prices relatively being taken for export. It is idle to attempt to forecast the present financial disturbance abroad, but it is easy to see that our own present trouble has come from the other side, where tight money has led to the throwing over of American securities in an almost unprecedented manner.

It is to be hoped that somebody's suit will shortly bring the Stanley controversy before the courts, to be made an end of one way or another. The "revelations" which now follow each other in rapid succession are extremely unpleasant reading, and settle nothing in the public mind. Who ranks whom, among Stanley's subordinates, as an authority about the rear column, is something the public outside is incompetent to decide, especially as each actor in the affair, from Mr. Stanley down, says he has not yet told all he knows. There are at least three versions now in the field, besides Stanley's own, namely, Troup's, Bonny's, and Jameson's, besides the version of the Barttelot family. The last touch, that Jameson had a girl killed and eaten in order to provide a cannibal scene for a sketch or photograph, is a slight advance upon a charge made during the Burmese war, that the officer in command had carefully grouped a lot of guerillas condemned to be shot, so that they might be effectively photographed at the final moment. This, we believe, was successfully answered; but "art for art's sake" is a terribly persistent and intrusive agency, and Africa owes it to the civilized world to provide sensations in reasonable quantity.

The Catholic Church in western Europe seems to be more and more definitely committing itself to socialism. The Catholic Congress at Saragossa went considerable lengths in demanding State intervention to settle the labor question, though not nearly so far as the similar gathering at Liége, from September 7 to 10. In the latter body, where many of the highest dignitaries of the Church were present, the advocates of State control were in a large majority, and their utterances and intolerance were decidedly radical. A letter was read from Cardinal Manning emphatically setting forth his well-known views. In one paragraph, where he seems to have inadvertently taken up Herr Liebknecht's pen instead of his own, he wrote: "It will never be possible to establish peaceful relations between employers and workingmen in an effective and lasting manner, until there shall be enacted a just and proper law regulating profits and wages—a law by which all free contracts between capital and labor shall be governed." However, such doctrines are not to be swallowed in France without some struggling. At the congress of Catholic jurisconsults held at Angers a month later, an address was made by Bishop Freppel of that city in which he strongly protested against "that wind of State socialism at present blowing in all western Europe." He specifically referred to Cardinal Manning's ideas, which he repudiated and attacked, declaring that to carry them into practice would be "to lay the hand of the State upon all forms of human activity." "In vain I ask," he said, "on what principle the State can prevent a man from working ten hours a day if he wishes to? Is it on the ground of the common good? But who does not see that in that way the door is opened, without the possibility of shutting it later, to all the demands of contemporary Socialism?"

All the churches are drifting more or less rapidly into the same position. The atmosphere at the late Church Congress in England to which we referred the other day, was full of it. It is one of the most deplorable consequences, humanly speaking, of the spread of scepticism among the working classes—that is, the absolute indifference of the poor, especially in the large cities, to religion and religious worship. They used to accept the promise of a heaven hereafter as a solatium for their earthly privations, but they refuse to do so any longer, and the clergy are forced, in order to have an influence with them or get a hearing from them, to promise them a heaven on earth, for that is what Socialism offers. The mischief which preaching like Cardinal Manning's does—that is, the social disorganization which it is likely to produce during the next fifty years—will probably be very great. The effects of it on the dock-laborers in London have convinced a great many who backed him up in that crusade, of the folly of their ways in that matter; but no man of the Cardinal's age is easily converted. The plan of "a just and proper law regulating wages and profits," like nearly all Socialist plans, assumes, as we have often pointed out, the existence somewhere in humanity of a stock of grace, wisdom, and understanding and of legislative and administrative talent which the world has not yet drawn on. Who is competent to draft such a law, and where are the saints who are to execute it so as to make the earthly paradise? Even Mr. Bellamy, perfect as his arrangements are, does not provide a general superintendent or Board of Control for his phalanstery. Three years ago there was a widespread notion that somehow the Knights of Labor had been specially consecrated for the work of regenerating at least American society, but in a very few months Satan was as busy among them with his varied assortment of deviltries as among the rest of mankind. The chiefs lied and stole, and quarrelled and failed, just like capitalists and brokers. The notion which some of the clergy are helping to spread, that human society can be improved independently of improvements in human character, has just as much promise and potency of social mischief in it as the invasions of the Barbarians in the fifth century. It may overthrow what we have, but it will take now, as it took then, a thousand years to put something decent and bearable in its place.

SLAVERY AND THE TARIFF.

That all political parties which get into power tend to perish through pushing their principle to its extreme, is one of the commonplaces of history. Monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy have all had this bitter experience in some age and some State. We are witnessing now in this country a very interesting double illustration of it, in the curious parallel between the way the Democratic party after it became a pro-slavery party, and the Republican party after it became a protectionist party, rushed on their fate.

The first attitude of the Democratic party towards slavery was an apologetic one, as was the first attitude of the Republican party towards the high tariff. From a lamentable but inevitable fact, slavery grew in the Southern press and platform into an institution with some merits; then into the wisest possible provision for the education and civilization of the negro; then into a divine institution, for his benefit; then into the coming and most advantageous condition for all laborers, white as well as black. At first it was a mistake for the negro to run away from his master; then it became a piece of great wickedness; and finally his desire to run away became a disease, known as "drapetomania," and treated by the plantation doctors with appropriate remedies. First, slavery was a form of property peculiar to the South, and only defensible on the ground of necessity and properly confined to the slave States; then it became property *jure gentium*, sacred everywhere; then it became a form of property which it was the part of political and social wisdom to plant on the unsettled portions of the national territory. The institution, instead of being a relic of the past, became the form which labor was to take in all countries. Not only was the negro well off in slavery, but, as the Southern press preached between 1850 and 1860, the white laborer would be better off in slavery than he actually was, and the labor problem of civilized nations would undoubtedly be solved by his reduction to slavery.

These abstract views were faithfully embodied in legislation as fast as circumstances would permit. Opponents of slavery were treated as criminals hired by outsiders to disturb Southern society, in all the Southern States. The right of petition was denied them in Congress. The Fugitive Slave Law was passed in defiance of growing Northern sentiment against slavery; and, finally, the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was passed, in 1854, violating the Missouri Compromise, and opening over 400,000 square miles of virgin soil to "the peculiar institution." This was the last straw that broke the camel's back, or, in other words, the extreme which brought on the civil war, although the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law perhaps did more to bring home to the general Northern mind the arrogance and desperation of what was known as the "Slave Power." There was one insult to Northern intelligence which, however, no Southern orator ventured upon. No one came from the South to preach, on the stump, to Northern laborers, the new Southern doctrine that their condition would be improved by their being converted into slaves.

Turning to the tariff, we find that in all the earlier years of American history it was thought of and talked of as a convenient means of raising revenue and of encouraging small or "infant" industries already established. It existed in this condition, with various slight ups and downs, until 1861. In that year the Republican party took hold of it, still as protection for infant industries, but also as a means of raising the immensely increased revenue made necessary by the war. But it remained possible all through the war for a free-trader or low-tariff man to be a Republican, and the high duties imposed in 1861 were generally, within the party, thought of and talked of as war taxes, to be got rid of when the necessity which had called them forth had ceased. When the war was over, they became valuable securities for the payment of the enormous public debt. When the payment of the public debt became easy and certain, they were retained and increased as the only defence of the American workman against "the pauper labor of Europe," and the "infant industry" theory passed wholly out of sight.

Then it became discreditable to hold or ever to have held free-trade views. American politicians began to deny (in some cases falsely) having ever belonged to the Cobden Club. Then the Cobden Club appeared on the scene, as a malignant and corrupt organization, having for its object the destruction of American manufactures, and using immense funds for that purpose. Then all tariff-reformers became enemies of the United States, probably hired by foreigners to attack their industries. Then importers began to be treated as smugglers engaged in a disreputable business and proper objects of hostile legislation, and manufacturers as well as office-holders began to be called on (about 1876) for contributions to the campaign funds, on the ground that the Republican party really supplied them with their "bread and butter." Then the theory that protection was a national policy, to be framed by legislators, was abandoned for the theory that protection was a favor to be asked for by the individuals or firms who wanted it for their own products, and to be accorded on their own showing that they should make more money if they got it, and should lose money or go out of business if they did not get it.

At last, in 1888, the parallel with the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was made complete, and the manufacturers were boldly asked for immense sums, virtually as loans, to be repaid by increased duties on all commodities in which they were interested, or in which they promised, as in the tin-plate case, to interest themselves by and by, or at their earliest convenience. This broke the camel's back. It was the last extreme, which in politics so often brings ruin.

We must observe, in conclusion, however, that the protectionists have really gone further than the pro-slavery men. The McKinley Bill is very like the Fugitive Slave Law and the Kansas-Nebraska Act in being an embodiment of extreme views. But the pro-slavery champions never, as we have already observed, came North and took the stump to persuade Northern workingmen that they would be better off as slaves. The equivalent of this absurdity the protectionist orators have actually committed. They have tried on the stump to persuade American fathers and mothers of families that the more they paid for the necessaries of life, the happier they would be, and that the struggle of the human race from the dawn of civilization to obtain comfort at a low cost was a huge blunder. The force of nonsense could no further go. The insult to the popular intelligence was more than the voters could bear.

REPUBLICAN EXPLANATIONS.

It is evident from the excuses and explanations which the Republican leaders and newspapers are putting forth regarding their defeat, that few of them have comprehended the real significance of what has happened to them. The almost unanimous view appears to be that if the McKinley tariff had gone into effect a little earlier, or the elections had not occurred till a year or so later, there would have been no defeat, but rather a glorious Republican victory. Mr. McKinley takes this view, and it is shared by many other party leaders and journals. It is worth while to put some of these utterances on record, both for purposes of comparison and to enable us to see how they will sound a few weeks hence.

Mr. McKinley says: "The people seem to have a wrong idea of the so-called McKinley Bill, as I have often said on the stump. It puts hundreds of articles on the free list, and only increases the tariff where it is necessary to protect American labor. I think in two years from now that its effects on the country will be so beneficial that the people will overwhelmingly endorse the Republican party." Senator Sherman says: "The McKinley Bill was growing stronger as the campaign advanced. It is a measure that is greatly misunderstood. It really reduces taxation, and while it increases the duty in some instances, its general effect is greatly to reduce the amount collected from customs. I think the workings will be found to be beneficial to the country, and when the people find this out, as they are likely to do before the next Congress is chosen and the next President elected, they will cast their votes accordingly." Mr. Lodge takes a similar view, attributing the defeat wholly to the passage of the bill on the eve of election and "the skilfully managed scare about high prices," which he declares "amounted to a panic." But he regards it as an "artificial panic about prices which shows nothing," still has faith in the bill, and expects a reaction in favor of the party when the value of the bill to the general prosperity of the country shall have been made plain. The Chairman of the

Republican Committee of Indiana says that if Congress had passed the bill last June, the "scare would have been over before election," and he "confidently believes that in a year and a half from now the bill will be in high favor."

This is the prevailing view among Republican statesmen, but there are some dissenters from it. Ex-Speaker Keifer, for example, says it was the McKinley Bill that brought about the political revolution, and indicates his poor opinion of it by saying that if he had believed what some of the Republican stump speakers in Ohio said in defence of it, he would have voted the Democratic ticket. A unique view is held by one William T. Henderson, a Republican leader in Baltimore, who has no doubt whatever that the whole disturbance was caused by Republicans who "desired to administer a rebuke to President Harrison for the manner in which he had made Federal appointments," and especially for the way in which he has allowed "Wanamaker to name the men to be appointed." Mr. Henderson seems to have lost a post-office or something else that he expected.

The newspaper explanations are much like those of the party leaders. The most difficult of comprehension are those of the *Tribune*, which vary from day to day, as the editor succeeds in getting the "smoke of battle lifted from the field." On the first day after the election the smoke was so thick that he did not discover which side had been beaten, for he observed: "It is a marvellous thing that the new tariff has been so far sustained by the people, before its beneficial effects could be realized, and while all its real and imaginary burdens were fresh in the minds of men." He was also able to remark that, "in spite of the carefully cultivated scare about rise of prices, the people have shown that they not only adhere to the principles of protection, but heartily uphold Congress in a brave application of them."

After the smoke had lifted a little on the next morning, the editor discovered from the news columns of his esteemed contemporaries that there would be a Democratic majority of 150 or thereabouts in the new Congress, and that it would be difficult to maintain his position that the people wished to show in this manner that they "adhered to the principles of protection," and "heartily upheld Congress in a brave application of them." He admitted cautiously, therefore, on the second day after election, that there had been a defeat, and went so far as to intimate that there might have been scattered here and there throughout the country several Republican voters who, from "sheer laziness and indifference," had failed to vote. He rebuked these sternly for their discreditable conduct. He then admitted that there might have been some voters who "honestly misunderstood" the new tariff, and small wonder that they should, for it had been "carefully misrepresented" by "thousands of importers and agents of foreign firms who have been made angry" by it. After this guarded concession that there had been some effect produced, after all, by the high-price "scare," he concluded by saying that it was of very little account anyway, and that the day was close at hand when the new tariff would become a "very citadel of strength for the party." The awkward size of the Democratic majority in the new Congress was not referred to at all.

On the third day after election enough more smoke had lifted to enable the editor to say that it "does not follow because the good people fail to see the merits of a measure at first, that they will never see it," and then came this bold avowal that there really had been a defeat, of inconsiderable magnitude: "The party has been temporarily defeated, and the control of the next House seized by the Opposition; but the great measures which have been enacted, or are still before Congress, will inevitably promote the welfare of the country and make Republican success two years hence a certainty."

The course of no other Republican newspaper has been quite so cautious and diplomatic as that of the *Tribune*, possibly be cause few of them have editors in the diplomatic service. Nearly all of them attribute the defeat, which they unhesitatingly admit, to the "scare about prices." Some of them call it "working the tin-dinner-kettle racket," and all of them denounce it as a Democratic conspiracy of the lowest order.

It may be said, therefore, in view of all the explanations, that the Republican position after defeat is, first, that the party has been beaten because the wicked Democrats scared the country into a belief that the new tariff raised prices; and, second, that the defeat will not be lasting, because it will be seen very shortly that the new tariff does not raise prices, but does add greatly to the prosperity of the country. How does this agree with the position which Messrs. McKinley and Lodge took during the campaign, that the new tariff did raise prices, and for that reason was a cause for national rejoicing? It will be noticed that Mr. McKinley is abandoning this view somewhat now, and is laying stress upon the claim originally made by him that his bill adds a great many articles to the free list, and thus helps to make things cheaper. How can he point with pride to an enlarged free list after he has declared his belief that "cheap and nasty go together," that the "whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty, for cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country"?

He must stand to his guns, and must maintain that the country will realize the full blessings of his bill when it shall have so forced up the price of everything that there will no longer be anything cheap to be bought. Then the people will realize how mean they were when they went about seeking "cheap merchandise," and will see that he only is a true patriot who never buys save at the highest possible price. Mr. Lodge will stand by him, for he is convinced that the "cry for cheapness is un-American." The country must be brought back to the Republican party by realizing its folly in getting scared at the prospect of high prices; it must be educated to the point of view that high prices are desirable, and that the whole civilized world, from the dawn of history down to the present time, has been insane in thinking they were not. Here is the mission of the Republican party, and it is one worthy of all its powers. On no other ground can the people be brought to a position to "uphold the brave application of protection principles" set forth in the McKinley Bill, for if that measure does not raise prices it is an abject failure, a false, lying, deceitful thing, designed to create a cheap and nasty country, filled with cheap men and women.

THE PENNSYLVANIA VICTORY.

No feature of the late elections is more encouraging than the defeat of Quay, through the rejection of his tool Delamater, in Pennsylvania. Full returns show that Pattison was elected Governor by more than 17,000 majority—and that, too, after allowing for thousands of fraudulent votes counted for Delamater in Philadelphia, where the Quay machine controlled the ballot-boxes.

Pennsylvania is the stronghold of the Republican party, and gave that party a majority of over 80,000 in the last Presidential election. It is a State where partisanship is always very strong, and where the independent voter has uncommon obstacles to overcome. Moreover, it is the commonwealth which has always been the chief beneficiary of the protective policy, and which was believed to have been bound to hearty support of that policy this year by the passage of the McKinley Bill. The Republican managers made every possible appeal to the partisanship and cupidity of the Republican voters. They induced all the leading Republicans of the nation, from Mr. Blaine down, to come out for Delamater and Quay, on the ground that, to use Mr. Blaine's words, "if they can to-day elect as Governor of Pennsylvania as ardent a free-trader as President Cleveland himself, there may be no balm in Gilead that can heal that wound"; and again, in Mr. Blaine's words, "to give you a warning that as Pennsylvania votes on next Tuesday the nation may vote two years hence." They sought to frighten unwilling Republicans into support of Quay by arousing fears that Pattison's success would threaten their very livelihood; that, in the language of the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, "if Robert E. Pattison is elected Governor of Pennsylvania, the fires in the furnaces may as well be drawn and the great manufacturing industries of Pennsylvania may as well close their doors."

Despite all these appeals and "scares," and despite the obvious frauds in Delamater's favor in Philadelphia, the Republican majority of over 80,000 in the election of 1888 has been wiped out, and there is nearly 20,000 majority on the other side. In other words, tens of thousands of Republicans refused to go to the polls at all when Quay sought a "vindication" through the election of a tool, while other tens of thou-

sands went to the polls and cast their ballots directly for the excellent candidate nominated by the Democrats. A more emphatic rebuke has never been administered to an insolent boss.

The most contemptible figure in this canvass has been cut by the Philadelphia *Press*, the leading Republican organ of the State. The *Press* was the first journal in America to tell the truth about Quay. In 1885, when he was seeking the nomination for State Treasurer, it hinted in plain terms at the gigantic thefts which it knew he had committed, and warned the Republicans that his candidacy would "take the lid from off the Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb." Moreover, it knew the personal unworthiness of Quay's tool, Delamater, and told something of the truth about his dishonorable record before his nomination. Finally, it understood perfectly that Quay's forcing of the nomination of Delamater was as offensive an exhibition of bossism as was ever seen in our politics.

All of this the Philadelphia *Press* realized and confessed before the canvass opened. Now that all is over, it makes public proclamation of the fact that it knew all along what the issue really was, and which side every self-respecting Republican journal was bound to take. In a leading editorial article on Thursday morning, entitled "What the Verdict Means," the *Press* declares that "it has but one meaning, and the force of it is plain to all. It is a repetition of that revolution against personal and selfish domination of the party which eight years ago brought the party bosses to their senses and led to many desirable reforms in party methods." It says that a Republican Governor would have been elected by the usual Republican majority "could a Republican have been elected without committing the party still further to the undesirable methods of management which have put personal ends above party principle, and obstructed party sentiment with personal selfishness." It insists that the result "means that the sentiment of the party will prevail in its management, in the creation of its platforms, and the making of its nominations. It is an organization whose traditions and purposes will not permit it to be used for the selfish ends of political traders and bosses; and as in the past, so in the future, if occasion should arise, this lesson is very certain to be taught."

Every word of this is "true as preaching," but in what a disgraceful position does it, by its own confession, leave the *Press*. It knew that Delamater could not be elected "without committing the party still further to the undesirable methods of management which have put personal ends above party principle, and obstructed party sentiment with personal selfishness"—and yet it threw all its influence in favor of thus committing the party! It knew that the defeat of Delamater was essential in order to have "the sentiment of the party prevail in its management, in the creation of its platforms, and the making of its nominations"—and yet it threw all its influence against having the sentiment of the party thus prevail! It knew that "the traditions and purposes of the party will not permit it to be used for the selfish ends of political traders and bosses"—and yet it threw all its influence in favor of these political traders and bosses!

The weak victim of an infirm will who has earned the contempt of all who know him, sometimes confers a benefit on society by serving as a "horrible example." Henceforth, when American journalists wish to cite a "horrible example" of a newspaper's cringing servility to political bosses whom it understood and despised, they will recall the course of the Philadelphia *Press* during the political campaign of 1890.

AUSTRALIAN LABOR DIFFICULTIES.

SYDNEY, October 1, 1890.

THE strike of the laboring classes at present prevailing through all the Australasian colonies presents one feature never before seen in any contest between labor and capital in any part of the world. The workingmen do not ask higher wages or shorter hours. To comprehend their demands, one must understand something of the conditions under which they have been laboring.

Every class of labor has its union, with laws more rigidly enforced than the criminal code of any existing government. A member becomes a unionist first, a citizen afterwards. The immense power of these organizations over their members has but lately been strained to its fullest extent. One of the largest, but perhaps least successful, unions is that of the sheep-shearers, and though in reality the most directly concerned in the strike, it has been the last to cease work. The arbitrary character of its rules leads many sheep-owners to employ only shearers who are not members of the Union. The pay is the same, and the conditions probably quite as favorable to the men, as under the Union. The work is hard and remuneration high—one pound per 100 sheep shorn, whether by hand or by machine (a good man will easily despatch 120 to 150 sheep per day), lodging free, food at actual cost.

To compel all sheep-owners to employ only Union shearers was the open platform of all the labor organizations this year, and to that end the wharf-laborers had decided not to handle, or put on board any ship, a single bale of non-union shorn wool. The large wool firms and shipping agents promised their clients, the sheep-owners, that their wool should be shipped, however shorn. This was the real issue to be fought out, though not the immediate cause of the conflict.

A month before any wool had come down, the officers of the coasting steamers applied for higher pay. The owners were ready to consider their request and make substantial advances, but first required that the officers' union should not affiliate with any labor union, holding that the officers were their agents and representatives, and must be in no way connected with any organization of men whom they had to command. This the officers would not agree to, feeling that only by joining the labor unions could they coerce their employers into conceding what they deemed their rights. They therefore at once left their ships. Other officers, non-unionists, were engaged in their places, with the immediate result that all seamen, firemen, cooks, and stewards declined to work on any ship that carried "blackleg" officers. Complete non-union crews were engaged. The wharf laborers refused to handle cargo. Non-union men were engaged here too. Then acts of violence and intimidation began, and many of the new men were afraid to continue work, being practically coerced into joining the unions.

The most serious difficulty became the coal supply. Nearly all the coal used in the different colonies comes from the mines in Newcastle, N. S. W., and is carried thence by large steam colliers. The coal-miners had a most disastrous strike about two years ago, and then returned to work on a definite understanding that all future difficulties were to be referred to arbitration. When the first of the non-union steamers reached Newcastle, the miners refused to work if the coal they cut was to be supplied to her. The owners immediately closed all the mines. Military protection was required to secure the loading of the coal already at the wharves. When this arrived at Melbourne, the gas-stokers refused to use it, and all were discharged. For three nights the city was in darkness, then the supply was resumed with non-union men, who had to live inside the works to escape violence at the hands of the displaced unionists.

Owing to scarcity of coal, reduced timetables came into effect on the Government railways. Many factories had to be closed, as neither coal nor timber could be supplied, the Broker Hill silver mines had to be shut down and 10,000 men were rendered idle—all Unionists, with no possible interest in the matter at stake.

In spite of all these efforts of the labor unions, work was still going on; a few coast steamers were running, deep-sea ships were being loaded. Sydney had become the central battle-field, and there all the teamsters, in whatever employ, were coerced into ceasing from work. The owners of the produce arriving by the railways (and by this time wool was beginning to come down) themselves drove the carts through the streets, escorted by a guard of mounted troopers, special constables, and police, and accompanied by a hooting mob. Arrived at the wharves, stone-throwing began; the Riot Act was read, and a charge by the troopers dispersed the crowd. So far, this has been the only instance of violence on a large scale, though the delivery carts of many of the private firms, driven by non-unionists, had to be escorted by troopers on their rounds. Euchred again in their attempt to stop all commerce, the committee managing the strike decided to call out all the shearers. In the majority of cases this call has been obeyed, probably 20,000 men ceasing work, and a strange result follows. Those employers who had gone into the Union are the ones to suffer, while their neighbors, who had all along resisted the unions and employed non-union labor, will be as well off as ever. Their sheep will be shorn, their wool shipped, passing through non-union hands only. It will reach a market less well supplied than usual, and probably command an enhanced price for that very reason. In many districts shearing was just beginning, and as the men had signed formal agreements to do the work, legal prosecutions will naturally be undertaken. The loss to the sheep-owner is not merely a year's income: through going unshorn his sheep naturally deteriorate, and in many cases disease will follow at once.

Thus the laborers, or, rather, their leaders, seem to have struck their last blow. If this fails, as in all human probability it will, they have nothing further to try. From its beginning, all affairs relating to the strike have been managed by conferences of labor delegates, one or more from each union, forming

Trades-Hall Committees in each colony. From these, also, delegates have been sent to a central or intercolonial conference which is sitting in Sydney, and takes supreme control as a powerful upper house of the labor government. Shrewd, prosperous, intelligent men these delegates are—seldom mere demagogues; for the most part convinced of the justice of their cause, and ready to risk all they possess in the effort to raise the class they belong to; holding that the laborer is entitled to a larger share of the product of which his labor is an element; blinded to the importance of the element which capital contributes. Always on the side of law and order, they have done much to maintain order while so many idle men were in the streets, angered by seeing their places filled by others.

The power in the hands of these men has been enormous; what wonder if it turned their heads? They have gone much too far. With no just cause for the strike from the first, public opinion is not on their side. Their funds must soon be exhausted, for in their efforts to bring matters quickly to a crisis they have burned their ships, cut off their own supplies. By calling out every class of labor, they have left no one to contribute to the support of the non-workers. Strike-pay so far has been issued at 10s. to 30s. per man per week. Rich though the unions are, they cannot long stand this.

The strength of the unions lies in their organization more than in their numbers. When fear of violence is removed, it proves comparatively easy to fill the places of the strikers. Probably not more than one-quarter of all the workingmen in the colonies belong to unions, and fully an equivalent of this number can be found from those at times unemployed. To prevent non-unionists from working to secure the means of existence, barracks were opened and food and lodging provided for all who would ask for it. Soon all the miserable loafers of the community were living at the expense of the laboring classes. This scheme proved ineffectual, and was too costly to be continued. In Melbourne half a crown a day was paid any non-unionist who would agree not to work.

Seeing the great power arrayed against one class of employers of labor, other classes became alarmed. A union of employers resulted, far more universal than that of the laborers, and far stronger in that it can wait idle indefinitely, without fear of actual physical suffering. Already the workmen are beaten, but they are not likely to give in for some time yet. They are anxious for a conference with their employers. This the latter decline, saying there is nothing to confer about; the men made no demands that can be granted to insure a settlement. To meet them would be to yield the very point at issue, namely, an employer's right to hire or discharge whom he pleases. The employers are ready to take back their old men so far as possible at the same rates of pay as previously, but naturally must decline to discharge those who have come to their help when their old hands left them.

To forestall the sending of contributions from London in return for the heavy subscriptions sent from Australia to the London dock-laborers' strike (nearly £40,000), the employers have had published in the London dailies the rates of wages paid here. All are per day of eight hours. Sailors earn, including over-time, £10 per month; firemen £9, trimmers £7, cooks £10, stewards £9, all "found"; gas-stokers 70s. per week, wharf-laborers 10s. per day, with 50 per cent. advance for overtime; coal lumpers 2s. per hour, with 3s. for over-time, permanent employment. In Sydney there are many restaurants where excellent meals, including soup, roast, and pudding, can be had for 6d.; a good bed, 6d. Thus, one hour's work provides a coal-lumper with food and lodging such as his poorer brother in England never dreams of. In face of these facts it seems hardly likely that much money will come from the older countries to help the laborers here in their efforts to become even greater tyrants than in the past.

Two lessons are clearly pointed by this strike. Labor unions will pay no regard to the engagements they or their members may have made previously, if a strike is mooted—a perfidy they would be the first to complain of on the part of their employers. Shearers and coal-miners each completely broke faith. To have fair promise of success, a strike must not take in all classes of labor, nor as yet can combined labor hope to fight successfully capital combined against it. Doubtless the laborer has taught his master the lesson of combination, but it is one the latter is not likely to forget and is certain to improve on. Never has trades-unionism reached such a perfect stage as in Australia, and never has it, to all appearances, invited such a defeat as it is now likely to receive.

J. E. Bullard.

A SCOTTISH UNIVERSITY LECTURE-ROOM.

Edinburgh, October 24, 1890.

To one familiar with the decorousness of a Harvard class-room, a lecture in Edinburgh University is in strange contrast. It is the custom here for the professor to open his courses with an address apart from the subject of the immediate purpose of instruction, and intended, as it were, to give the collegiate constituency some taste of his quality, preparatory to the enrolment of his classes. I had to choose the other day between hearing Geikie, the well-known author of 'The Ice Age,' and Masson, perhaps even more famous as a Miltonian, for their addresses came at the same hour. I was sitting in the Librarian's office, where I could look across the stately courtyard of the University building to the door which led to Masson's room. As the hour approached, one of the uniformed servitors of the University stationed himself without the doorway, a sort of guardian of the precinct, and a few students had entered when I was prompted to join them. The room was the usual academic theatre, with a steep, uncomfortable, circular range of seats, in which I anticipated much discomfort for an hour, but the interest of the occasion made me forget it. The students trooped in rapidly, making a heavy tramp, with which those in the seats joined. Somebody whistled a tune, and in a moment the whole hall was whistling in unison. As some popular fellow came along he was perhaps chaffed above the tumult. Then the whistle-tune changed into another, and as the number increased, and the tramp of the heels redoubled, the whistlers heaved their breasts to rise above it.

The hall was now nearly filled, and the servitor stationed himself within the door, and pointed out the few remaining seats to the still insurging crowd. Presently the whistling and the thumps subsided before the rising cheers, for the students of the outer ranges had espied the Professor as he left his anteroom across the entry. The rugged, manly form of Prof. Masson, with his Oxford cap atop his close-cut silvery hair and beard, and blue-lined black gown, nearly filled the door as he entered. The redoubled cheers shook the roof as he walked slowly up the steps and along the platform. He laid his cap on the table, and, with his manuscript in hand, leaning across the little desk, his other arm buttressing himself from the table, he looked unemotionally into the room, while the cheers went on. There was the beginning of a lull, and a pretty general hiss tried to suppress the few remaining cheers, and had almost succeeded, when the cheerers rallied, and the unearthly noise swelled once more. At last Masson raised his hand—the signal was enough, and a solemn silence came rapidly over the benches.

"Gentlemen," said the lecturer in a tender, delicate voice, deepened at the same time with a slight Scotch broadness, and every ear was alert. He began by a reference to the loss which the University had sustained in the death during the vacation of Sellar, the eminent Latinist, and, after paying an emotional tribute to his friend, Prof. Masson passed on to the subject of his lecture. This was Scott's diary of his later years, whose publication is now impending, and which, during its passage through the press, had fallen under the scrutiny of the lecturer. Masson's manner is well calculated to elicit the responsiveness of the youthful nature. He gives the sure signs of his culminations, and forewarns his hearers. His gestures are few, and almost always a clinching of the fist to mate his energy, and the swing of it from the front behind. The outbursts of the students' applause, therefore, could be easily foreseen for a minute. When he referred to any blight upon Scott's happiness, the whole room seethed with a sort of wail of commiseration, amid which there was an accentuated *tut-tut-tut*. He referred to the common parallelism which was made in Scott's day between him and Shakspere; and when he cited from the unpublished diary Scott's own comment on this habit, "Shakspere—not fit to brush his brogues," the hall burst into a tumult of applause. The lecturer went on to discuss the fluent methods of Scott and Shakspere, and called them, though different in kind, the most remarkable in literary history; not (he added) that the habit of fluency and speed is safe for lesser writers, or for *you* (with emphasis)—and the students burst into a roar of laughter. It was interesting to remark how, after one of these outbursts, the audience to a man settled down at once into the closest attention.

The straightening of the lecturer's broad figure and the illumination of his face showed that the close was at hand; and as he finished with saying, that with all the difference of the two men, the Scot and the Englishman, and however inferior the modern was in many respects to the earlier, there was no impropriety in leaving in his hearers' mind the figure of the Scottish Shakspere in Walter Scott, a tumult of applause followed. The lecturer slowly placed his manuscript in his portfolio, took up his cap, and, bowing slowly, with but a slight inclination, turned to leave the platform. An eager student rushed for the door before him. "Shame! shame!" and a hurried hiss prevented others from following, and a still and deferential air settled upon the standing audience, as the Professor was allowed to lead the way out.

I stepped for a moment into his anteroom, and there I found him at a table, busily engaged registering the thronging students. It was no time for more than a word, and I left the place with the impression that though we may do this sort of thing with more outward decorum, many an American lecturer would fall behind the Scotchman in the heartiness of the sympathy which he establishes with his hearers. I chanced a day or two afterwards to

mention this scene to Sir William Muir, the chief of the University, and his head began to sway from side to side. "Tradition, tradition!" he muttered; "I wish it were otherwise." I find on further acquaintance that there is more or less repression exercised by some of the professors, but the younger classes are in the main irrepressible. Some of the professors are indifferent to it; others seem to like it. There can be little question, I think, that to lecturers of the emotional kind, who throw themselves feelingly into their subjects, this active responsiveness serves to better their performance. I never chanced to see anything like it in our leading colleges, though I believe that in the Law School of the University of Michigan the uproarious element is under very little restraint. It may obtain in some degree in the less known colleges; and indeed the seemliness of quiet attention was not always observed at Harvard forty years ago.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

Correspondence.

THE LOBBY IN MASSACHUSETTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While the tariff is the absorbing feature in the political campaign, a tempest has also broken out in this State on the subject of the lobby. Hon. William E. Russell, the candidate of the Democrats, has forced the fighting, Gov. Brackett has been compelled to take up the issue, and two members of the Legislature, a Republican and a Democrat, have joined in the fiercest denunciation of the "third house." As this may be the first gun in the conflict with an enemy who has taken possession of the whole country, and will require a tremendous struggle before he can be dislodged, it may be worth while to consider some features of the situation. Of course the lobby is the same in Washington, in every State, and in every city hall in the United States; but as it has, I believe, first had in Massachusetts the honor of a special investigating committee and a report of the same, and as it is there that the first note of resistance has been sounded—a far-off echo of Lexington and Bunker Hill, and in a no less important cause—it may be best to place the local specimen of the *genus* under the microscope.

In doing this we must first examine the organization of the State Government. When the Legislature assembles, the House consists of 240 members, of whom the majority come there for the first time and very few have been there for more than one previous session. They are for the most part strangers to each other, ignorant of the forms and history of parliamentary business and of the affairs of the State, suspicious and liable to panic—in short, just in a condition to fall a prey to cunning manipulators. The first thing which this incoherent mass of units has to do is to elect a Speaker, the most powerful man in the Government, because he has the power of appointment of the standing committees which control all business. The career of Mr. Thomas B. Reed of Washington shows what the office may be made. The Speaker knows as little of the members as they know of him, and the natural course is to give the best places to those who have secured his election. Here the lobby steps in at once. If it can get a Speaker elected, it can get such committees as it wants. If it can get such committees, the game is in its hands.

The standing committees are now appointed and the work begins. Observe that not one single item of business has been got ready for the Legislature, so that the whole body has to sit idle for six weeks to two months (awaiting the proverbial tactics of Satan), while the committees are preparing some business for it. Every kind of measure on any subject, which any member may wish to introduce for himself or his friends, from the most important business of the State to the application of an individual for a change of name—all are sent to the committees without distinction and without precedence. Bills are piled up by hundreds and thousands, and the committees fairly stagger under the rush of people wanting to be heard. Around them has grown up a class of men, largely past members and Senators, who are not new or inexperienced in the business. The greater the confusion and turmoil of business, the greater their opportunity. They make it a point to acquaint themselves with every member, his proclivities and his weaknesses. They play into each other's hands. Not only is it their profession to promote legislation of the kind which is paid for, but to block legislation of any kind unless the parties seeking it employ and pay for their services; and they laugh at any unsophisticated person who imagines that he can get through any bill, even of purely public interest, without their help.

Their efforts are powerfully seconded by another circumstance: the State of Massachusetts is absolutely unrepresented in the Legislature. Neither the Governor nor any State official ever has any voice there as to policy or legislation. Whatever is done is the result of a struggle as to what interest or measure shall secure the greatest number of votes. There is no official leader, speaking on behalf of the State, around whom independent members can rally. When the reports of the committees come tumbling in at the end of the session, there is no State authority to guard the public interest. The lobby has only to work up one after another the local members, who have no direct interest and no authority at all to undertake the defence of the State.

What is the executive branch of the Government doing all this time? It is difficult to imagine a more false position than that of the Governor. The candidates are supposed to be nominated by two conventions of something like one thousand members each, but in reality are so by a small knot of politicians, who might just as well do it without troubling the convention to assemble. The candidates are called a Democrat and a Republican—names which have about as much meaning as the "greens" and the "blues" in the faction fights at Constantinople when the Eastern Empire was tottering to its fall; but the people have no choice except between these two. After election, unless the Governor chooses to join in a game of intrigue with the lobby, he remains a complete figurehead. He has no voice as to policy or legislation. He can send messages to the Legislature, but they are sent to the standing committees, and receive no more attention than the proposals of any member or even of any average citizen. He has the veto power, but it is as absurd as it would be in the hands of the general of an army who had a veto on tactics of the line officers. What sort of a government is that which has no power to say what shall be, but only what shall not be, done?

If the Governor has no control over policy, he has also none over administration. The chief officers of the State are all elected separately, and are wholly independent of him and of each other. As administration under such circumstances is impossible, the Legislature has set up a number of commissions, which are the real Executive of the State. They never come in contact with the Legislature, can never enforce or even urge a policy, they receive little or no pay, and their doings are shrouded in complete secrecy, except as to what they choose to tell. Impotence in the Executive, anarchy in the Legislature, and no responsibility anywhere—these are the ideal conditions for the development of the lobby.

The immediate cause of the present outbreak is as follows: There came before the Legislature last winter a number of petitions for a charter for an elevated railroad. That of the West End Company, the most powerful of the applicants, was progressing under full sail when Mr. Williams, member of the House from Dedham, charged that it was being carried by bribery on the part of the lobby. Both houses appointed committees of investigation, which were not very anxious to discover anything. The West End Company admitted that they employed the lobby, since that was the only way to get anything done. If it was a bad way, the Legislature ought to provide a better; but as it was, they must use what methods were before them. The report of the investigating committees said substantially the same thing. The West End Bill passed both houses and the Governor signed it. At the same time was rushed through both houses an act requiring all persons employing agents to procure legislation to register their names, to render a sworn account of expenses incurred thereby, and not to make payment dependent upon the legislation obtained—an act which will be about as effective for its purpose as would be an act forbidding men and women to marry.

As the campaign waxes warm, more and more light of a very curious kind is thrown upon the internal working of the lobby. While all the speakers join in denouncing and trying more or less to make party capital out of it, no one of them seems even remotely to suggest any practical remedy. If the causes are in the conditions I have indicated, relief must be sought in reversing those conditions by giving greater and more concentrated power to the Executive, introducing more of order and system into the Legislature, and enforcing more direct and individual responsibility in both. Without, however, dwelling upon that now, I have thought the incidents worth recounting as touching a matter of the deepest importance if not interest to the whole country, and which may occupy a large place in its future history.

G. B.

BOSTON, November 1, 1890.

A SLIP CORRECTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to correct a serious arithmetical error in your comments on the census of the population in the current number of the *Nation*. A "gain of 59.51 per cent. for twenty years" is obviously not "at the rate of 29.75 per cent. in ten years," as you have it. In fact, a gain of only 26.30 per cent. per decade produces a gain of 59.51 in two decades. This correction very greatly reduces the discrepancy you point out between the average rate of increase in the two decades 1860–'80, and the rate of increase shown by Mr. Porter's figures for the decade 1880–'90.

Of course, this correction leaves quite unaffected the strong points you make against the result, resting on the checks to the natural growth of population, and still more to immigration, caused by the war and by the long period of industrial depression following the

panic of 1873; checks which have had nothing corresponding to them in the decade just closed.

Yours very respectfully, F.

BALTIMORE, November 9, 1890.

Notes.

B. WESTERMANN & Co. will publish immediately Part i. of Volume ii. of Karl Brugmann's 'Elements of a Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Languages,' treating of wood-formation, root-formation, and inflection, with additions by the author since the German edition appeared, and with elucidations from the Anglo-Saxon contributed by the translator, Dr. Conway, of Cambridge, England.

The Seeger & Guernsey Co. of this city have in press a Spanish edition of their 'Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States,' for circulation in Mexico, Central and South America.

Worthington Co. have nearly ready 'A Boy's History of the United States'; and 'A Sister's Love,' from the German of W. Heimburg, by Margaret P. Waterman.

Chatto & Windus in London and the United States Book Co. in this country will bring out Mr. Moncure D. Conway's editing of Washington's "Rules of Civility," concerning which he has already written in these columns.

For the forthcoming volume on the Centennial Celebration of Washington's Inauguration (1789–1889), Mr. Clarence W. Bowen, Secretary of the Committees on the Celebration, desires information respecting portraits of the following members of the first Congress under the Constitution. Mr. Bowen's address is No. 251 Broadway, New York:

Theodore Bloodworth, North Carolina; Benjamin Bourne, Rhode Island; Jonathan Elmer, New Jersey; Theodore Foster, Rhode Island; George Gale, Maryland; Benjamin Goodhue, Massachusetts; William Grayson, Virginia; Samuel Griffin, Virginia; Jonathan Grout, Massachusetts; Thomas Hartley, Pennsylvania; John Hathorn, New York; Daniel Heister, Pennsylvania; John Henry, Maryland; Samuel Johnston, North Carolina; George Leonard, Massachusetts; George Mathews, Georgia; Andrew Moore, Virginia; Josiah Parker, Massachusetts; Thomas Scott, Pennsylvania; George Partridge, Massachusetts; John Steele, North Carolina; Joseph Stanton, jr., Rhode Island; Michael Genifer Stone, Maryland; Jonathan Sturges, Connecticut; John Walker, Virginia; Alexander White, Virginia; Paine Wingate, New Hampshire.

The Leonard Scott Publication Co., New York, add henceforth to the eight original editions of English periodicals which they supply to their subscribers, *Blackwood's Magazine*, by arrangement with the Edinburgh publishers.

A welcome awaits the new one-volume edition of the 'Poetical Works of Matthew Arnold,' just published by Macmillan & Co. in a style uniform with their one-volume Wordsworth. As the print is admirably large and the paper solid, a certain bulkiness could not well be avoided, and the poems fill 500 pages. A steel portrait of Arnold is prefixed, and his own notes are placed at the end. Doubtless, in time we shall have notes by another hand, and then we may hope to have the dates of the several pieces determined. This is often of no little consequence, and always of interest. Here and there in this edition the year is either given or inferrible.

Paul Hervieu's 'Flirt,' translated by Hugh Craig, as published by Worthington Co. in a handsome quarto volume, is embellished with numerous illustrations by Mme. Madeleine Lemaire. Her graceful designs partly mask, and also, it must be said, partly reinforce, this disagreeable story, on which a woman's art ought not to have been expended.

Possession without ownership may be exemplified for the thousandth time by any one who will purchase 'The Christmas Carol' of Dickens (New York: Brentano's). This edition, a fine quarto, reproduces in facsimile the novelist's original MS. of his world-famous story, for which MS. $1,500 was paid on its last change of ownership. The public of 500 admitted to share in the facsimile (250 copies being reserved for America) is all but as well off as the present owner of the MS., so far as the mere aspect of the handwriting is concerned, and better off by virtue of having the whole history of the 'Carol' interestingly related, in connection with the facsimile, by Mr. F. G. Kitton. Both Leech and Linton were associated with the first edition of 1843. The proceeds of it disappointed Dickens, but the popular favor continued, and the latest cheap edition has sold enormously at a penny. Dickens's "copy" is furiously rewritten and interlined.

'The Song of the Passaic,' by John Alleyne Macnab (New York: Walbridge & Co.), is a sincere tribute, in correct and respectable verse, to the chief river which heads in New Jersey, and whose meanderings bespeak the geological revolutions of the tract through which it wanders. The author justifies his love and praise of the stream by well-chosen photographic views, and has supplied a map of its course and tributaries, with statistics of elevation, besides a formal description and sundry useful notes to his own verse. The little book recommends itself to all who know the manifold loveliness of the Passaic watershed.

Mr. H. E. Krehbiel has now issued five volumes of his useful 'Review of the New York Musical Season,' containing the full programmes of all important entertainments, together with selections from the author's criticisms in the *Tribune*; and the success has been sufficient to warrant their continuance (Novello, Ewer & Co.). The issue for 1889–90 contains lengthy articles on "Parsifal," "The Flying Dutchman," "The Barber of Bagdad," "Don Juan," etc. The essay on "Don Juan" embodies some original matter relating to the American career of the librettist Da Ponte, the value of which has been recognized abroad. A novel feature is a list of choral works performed in forty American cities during the past season, and in connection therewith Mr. Krehbiel's article on "American Conductors and Choral Societies" is reprinted from *Harper's Weekly*. One of the most interesting chapters in the book is, as usual, the retrospect of the opera and concert season. The statistics provided show that Wagner maintained his superior popularity over other composers, the average receipts on Wagner nights being $3,582, as against $3,056 on non-Wagnerian nights. Speaking of the Patti performances, Mr. Krehbiel says: "The audiences were largely composed of curiosity-seekers, impelled by the desire to be able to say in the future that they, too, had heard the greatest songstress of the last generation of the nineteenth century. Considerable as the receipts were from the Patti representations, it is scarcely open to question that they were nearly or quite devoured by the 'off nights,' which were wofully neglected by the public (I was told on good authority that when Mme. Albani sang in 'Rigoletto' only $150 was taken in at the box-office), notwithstanding that, aside from the singing of Mme. Patti, they were far and away the most interesting and delightful entertainments of the season."

Among the large number of new books on musical topics which have lately been put into the market, none deserves a more cordial welcome than Mr. L. C. Elson's 'Theory of Music as Applied to the Teaching and Practice of Voice and Instruments' (Boston: New England Conservatory of Music). The first thirty pages are devoted to a condensed but remarkably clear summary of the principal phenomena of musical acoustics. Then follow fifty pages on the compass and functions of all the important musical instruments, with many interesting side-lights on the peculiar use made by great composers of certain orchestral combinations for producing definite emotional results; and the rest of the book is devoted to an elucidation of musical notation, the various forms of composition, etc. Mr. Elson is often very happy in his definitions, as in the following: "Counterpoint is the support of melody by *melody*, while harmony is the support of melody by *chords*." The concluding chapter contains some useful hints to musical students, *à la* Schumann; and on the subject of woman in music the author has this to say: "We have spoken of the musician throughout this book in the masculine gender; there have as yet been no leaders in the musical field among women. The chief cause of this may have been that they have studied music too entirely with the intention of *pleasing*, merely."

Mr. Frederick J. Crowest's 'Musical Groundwork' (F. Warne & Co.) is a book of about the same scope as Mr. Elson's, and it is well written and interesting, although a beginner will hardly find it as clear and logical as Mr. Elson's treatise. More attention is paid by Mr. Crowest to the historic side of the various musical topics, and the book in fact begins with a brief chapter on ancient music. His remarks on instrumentation and musical forms are too brief to serve as a useful guide. On p. 174 the misleading statement is made that "all ancient music appears to have been an unwritten art," whereas Mr. Crowest surely must know that the Greeks had two kinds of notation, one for vocal and one for instrumental music. But the chief fault of the book is that, like most English works on music, it treats the art as if everything of interest to be said about it came to an end with Beethoven and the period immediately following him. Thus, there is a special chapter of ten pages on "Progress of Orchestration," in which Berlioz, Wagner, and Liszt are not even named! Then there are four pages on the Symphony, while the symphonic poem, the most important orchestral form of our period, is entirely ignored. On page 230 occurs this extraordinary sentence: "Among modern *German* musicians, the most notable are Wagner, *Rubinstein*, *Liszt*, *Gade*, Brahms, Raff, and Joachim." The italics are ours. Has Mr. Crowest ever heard of Robert Franz, generally regarded as one of the three greatest song-composers the world has ever seen?

The involved character of the game and fish laws of the various States and of the Dominion of Canada is a source of vexation to those whose function it is to consult them frequently. Until the appearance of the comprehensive compilation called 'Book of the Game Laws' (Forest and Stream Publishing Co.), it has been necessary to be equipped with a large number of distinct volumes. It is proposed to issue in connection with this brochure, which will be published annually, three supplements, which will contain any changes in the laws that may occur during the year. The book contains the fish and game statutes of every State and Territory of the Union, where such are in force, and of the Dominion of Canada.

The first calendar for 1891 to reach us is the Whist Calendar (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.), compiled by Robert Fuller. It consists of the customary ornamental backing, with a pad for the several days of the year. The selections are all pertinent to the game, and mostly from well-known writers upon it, but occasionally the Scripture, Marcus Aurelius, or Shakspere is levied upon with good effect.

The October *Bulletin* of the Boston Public Library contains a list by centuries of the purchases made for that institution at the sale of the Barlow Library last February, beginning with the great prize which caused so much discussion, the Latin edition of Columbus's letter to Raphael Sanchez announcing his discovery of the New World "supra Gangem" (1493). This eight-page letter is reproduced at the end of the *Bulletin* by the heliotype process, accompanied by Major's translation.

In the *Bollettino* of the Central National Library at Florence of October 15, mention is made of a new 'Guida della Stampa Periodica Italiana,' by Nicola Bernardini, to which Prof. Bonghi furnishes an introduction. The work embraces the journalism of the peninsula, past and present, the press legislation, the features of provincial journalism, and Italian papers published in foreign parts.

We learn from Dr. Murray that reading may yet be done on this side of the water for the Philological Society's 'New English Dictionary,' of which he is the controlling spirit. He instances Fynes Moryson's 'Description of Ireland' which we lately cited in Prof. Morley's reprint in the "Carisbrooke Library." He adds that his monumental enterprise is hampered by the want of funds to buy books to be read for quotation. It would be honor cheaply earned for some wealthy American to bestow $500 or $1,000 annually by way of endowment for this purpose.

Mr. H. H. Johnston, the well-known African traveller, has contributed to the London *Graphic* two illustrated articles on "Nyasaland," which have some points of peculiar interest. He draws a charming picture of Blantyre, the home of the Scotch missionaries in the Shiré Highlands. A part of the elevated plateau between the two lakes, now nearly depopulated by the native wars, he regards as well adapted to European colonization. It is an "African Devonshire, with its red soil, its rounded hills, covered with short green turf, its many rills and rivulets," the only un-English sight being the banana groves. "At night the temperature is cool and crisp; even during the day the heat of the sun is only that of an English summer." Mr. Johnston's account of the East African Arab is especially noteworthy, as being contrary to the general impression that he is always a slave-trader, and chiefly responsible for the decimation of central Africa. He believes that though the most of them buy slaves from the negro raiders, the Masai or the Angoni, for instance, they would cease to do so if a legitimate commerce was opened to them. In fact, they would readily join the European in subduing and taming the savages whose raids are the cause of most of the misery and bloodshed in Africa. Mr. Johnston characterizes them as an "eminently sober people, industrious, enterprising, and in many respects not unreasonable," who as colonists and soldiers may prove very useful allies in the development of the Continent.

The *Bulletin* of the Société de Géographie contains an article by M. E. Blanc, which is important as indicating the policy of France with relation to the Sudan. A detailed description of the great commercial routes from the Mediterranean to the south is preceded by a short account of the physical difficulties to be surmounted by the caravans. The only parts of the desert which are practically impassable are the great plateaus or hamadas. These are elevated plains covered with hard, angular stones, apparently of the same size, and forming a bed generally as thick as the diameter of a single stone. These curious formations, resulting entirely from the action of the wind, as he claims to have proved from actual experiment, are the only parts of the Sahara absolutely without water. From M. Blanc's description, aided by an outline route map, it is evident that both Algeria and Tunis have very few ways of reaching the south, while both Morocco and Tripoli are well provided with them. The French possessions are practically cut off from the south, partly by the nature of the desert on their frontier, and partly from the fact that all the natural routes beyond these frontiers are in the hands of the Moors and Tripolitan Turks, or of natives hostile to the French interests. Within the past twenty years Turkey has consolidated its power in Tripoli and extended the limits of the province far to the west. In this way it has absorbed the whole of the "Hinterland" of Tunis, and thereby diverted all its trans-Saharan trade to Tripoli, where three or four caravans, numbering sometimes 2,000 persons, arrive every year, besides smaller fortnightly caravans coming from a less distance. While disclaiming any intention on the part of France to possess itself of Tripoli, M. Blanc protests against this extension of her frontiers, and asserts that the two important points of Rhadames and Rhat, lying to the south of Tunis, and now garrisoned by Turks, France must and will have in order to sustain commercial relations with the Sudan. But it is inconceivable that any appreciable amount of trade from the rich Mohammedan kingdoms of the central Sudan, except that in slaves, which now constitutes practically the whole of the traffic between the Sudan and Morocco and Tripoli, would cross the desert in preference to seeking the vastly nearer route by the River Niger; and the most important of these kingdoms have lately concluded treaties with the Royal Niger Company for a monopoly of trade.

— The new Library edition of 'Milton's Poetical Works' (Macmillan), by Prof. Masson, in three beautifully printed octavo volumes, contains some new matter, and exhibits some changes in arrangement. The poems are printed in chronological order for the first time; a memoir is introduced, admirably adapted to its purpose; the minor introductions are revised, and a short paper on Milton's handwriting is added. The most important change is the insertion, in the introduction to 'Paradise Lost,' of a full discussion of the indebtedness of the poet to previous writers upon the same or allied subjects, and in particular to Vondel. We reviewed the question in our notice of Mr. Edmundson's monograph on Milton and Vondel at the time of its appearance, and Prof. Masson's searching examination of the alleged parallelisms can only strengthen the opinion then expressed. He does not find any evidence of Milton's direct borrowing, nor any proof that the poet had read Vondel; but, in deference, apparently, to Mr. Gosse's opinion, he will only admit at worst that Milton had read the Dutch author, and that some echoes remained in his memory. He quotes, however, in a foot-note, Vondel's latest editor, Van Lennep, who says that he does not regard Milton's acquaintance with Vondel or his tragedy as proved. In our own judgment, Prof. Masson has gone further than he had any editorial warrant, in acknowledging the very slight obligation of a vague remembrance of Vondel by Milton as at all likely. The futility of the hope of editorial exhaustiveness is illustrated by the fact that this discussion of Milton's sources takes no account of the latest "precursor" of the poet, Avitus, whose claim probably had not been heard of when the essay was written. Prof. Masson adds also a translation of the Latin poems, meant to show their rhythm and substance, but not pretending to poetical excellence. Such a version is useful to the unlearned student, but it very faintly represents the beauty and grace of these poems. The notes are sufficient, and have been well-restrained within practicable limits. They are most full on geographical points; if more space could have been afforded anywhere, it would have been most welcome in the citation of the classical sources, where Milton's obligation is direct. Here the editor, we think, might have allowed himself more latitude. The description of the youths in 'Comus,' 291-302, for example, justifies a reference to Euripides's "Iphigeneia in Tauris," 267, *et seq.* In such matters, however, scholarship may indulge its own tastes too much. The edition is a very admirable one, and is much perfected by its revision. It takes rank in accuracy and care with the unsparing labor of the editors of Shakspere.

—It is a wonderful sort of enlightenment that one occasionally derives from popular purveyors of the *omne scibile*. For instance, in the 'Dictionary of Phrase and Fable,' by the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer, LL.D., we read, under the title "Juggernaut," of "King Ayeen Akbery"; the 'Â'în-i-akbarí,' or 'Institutes of Akbar,' a work of the celebrated historian Abulfazl, being thus hominified and accorded royal rank. Again, in the anonymous 'Dictionary of Every-day Difficulties,' published by Ward, Lock & Co., for which we are assured that "the best authorities have been consulted," the account given of Brahmans is a gem of the first water. "They take their title," we are told, "from Abraham, whom they called Brahma, and affected to imitate the life of the patriarch by living in deserts." To return to Dr. Brewer: according to him, the Brahmans "claim Brahma as the founder of their religious system," and a Brahman is "a worshipper of Brahma"—statements which the veriest smatterer in Hinduism, as set forth by writers of any credit, knows to be mere moonshine. Far from the least of the evils inseparable from the cheap multiplication of books is the spawning, by sciolists, of manuals professing to impart miscellaneous information. That, as a general rule, these artists produce no vouchers for what they advance is, of itself, a pretty evident proof that, provided it hits their fancy, whatever they have read, or otherwise picked up, if not, in their estimation, authentic, is, at any rate, considered by them as quite good enough to offer as fact to those who resort to their pages for instruction.

—We have once or twice heretofore made reference to a society formed a few years ago in England called the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching. It was a kind of organized rebellion against the tyranny of Euclid, who, from the revival of learning down to the middle of the present century, had reigned supreme in all English schools. This heretical conspiracy, which included some of the ablest mathematical teachers in England, originated in the conviction that the human race had made some progress, not only in the dis-

covery of new geometrical truths, but also in the methods of teaching and in the construction of text-books, since the days of the Greek geometers. The Society first published a 'Syllabus of Plane Geometry,' which it afterwards expanded into a complete text-book covering the same ground as the first six books of Euclid's 'Elements.' To what extent this has been adopted in English schools we are not informed. That the Society has been in some measure successful may, however, be inferred from the fact that it is now extending its sphere of operations beyond the limits of pure geometry. Its last publication is a 'Syllabus of Elementary Dynamics,' Part I., treating of Linear Dynamics, with an appendix on the meaning of the symbols in physical equations. It is a small 4to of 39 pages, divided into chapters and sections, and containing the definitions and propositions of a regular text-book, and a designation of the places where explanations, illustrations, examples, and exercises should be inserted.

—The manner in which this syllabus was prepared will serve as a specimen of the method adopted by the Society in the construction of its publications. The Syllabus was first drawn up by Mr. R. B. Hayward, M.A., F.R.S., late President of the Association, formerly Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, and now the Senior Mathematical Master of Harrow School. He submitted it to the members of the Association, and it was referred to a Committee, who, after due examination, reported it in what they considered the most satisfactory shape. Next it was discussed in full session by the Association, and finally adopted and ordered to be published as an authoritative exposition of the views of the Association as to what should be the form and substance of a text-book on 'Linear Dynamics.' Our readers will at once see the complete analogy of this process to the course of a bill in a legislative body from its introduction to its final enactment. We are not yet prepared to form an opinion as to how far this method of constructing a text-book will prove satisfactory and therefore successful. Mr. Hayward also prepared and submitted to a committee of the Association a 'Syllabus of Solid Geometry,' which met with their approval. Instead, however, of seeking what might be called its "passage" by the Association, Mr. Hayward preferred to develop out of it and publish on his own responsibility a regular treatise on 'Elementary Solid Geometry' (Macmillan). Heretofore nearly all the English schools have contented themselves with the first twenty-two propositions of the eleventh book of Euclid. Mr. Hayward's book is a 12mo of 130 pages, and is much more in accordance with modern modes of thought and methods of teaching than the portion of Euclid hitherto used. The first chapter, written rather for teachers than pupils, will prove of interest to advanced mathematicians, as will also the appendix to section v, "On Symmetry in a Plane and in Space."

—The *Levant Herald* of September 22 quotes a curious letter from Bjelina, in Bosnia, which discloses a state of things among the Bosniaks that recalls some of the old stories we used to hear about China. It appears that numbers of Bosniaks had recently applied to the authorities for permission to be beheaded in the place of Baron de Rothschild. The authorities at once set themselves to investigate the matter, and found that a rumor had been spread abroad among the rural population that Baron Rothschild had been sentenced to death for some crime or other, and that he would pay a million florins to any one who would become his substitute and undergo the penalty for him. Clubs were speedily formed among the peasants who desired to share the million, and each member bound himself to sacrifice his life for the benefit of his fellow-members if he should draw the fatal lot that designated one of the club as the victim. The money, of course, was to be divided among the rest as a prize. In this manner several substitutes for the Baron were provided, and they offered themselves to the authorities ready to fulfil their bargain to the last. No explanations were sufficient to convince them that the story was a hoax, and at last accounts new postulants for decapitation were still coming in, and still going away grieved and unhappy in their disappointment.

—The *Temps* of October 5 had something to say upon a question which has lately been touched in our columns—the lack of originality in the architecture of the present century. Laymen attribute it, the *Temps* says, to a lack of genius in the architects; architects, to the crude ideas of their clients, which are imposed upon them in a way that deprives them of all initiative. This last assertion may be held to have less weight when it is remembered that the French Government gives its architects much liberty of design in the construction of public buildings, and yet does not get markedly better work from them than individuals do. At any rate, both private and public buildings often show *banalité* even when they escape ugliness. The Exposition of 1889, notoriously, has given hope to some by attracting attention to the use of iron as a material. The group of architects who, under the direction of M. de Baudot, "keep up in the *Encyclopédie d'Architecture* the traditions of free research and independence of Viollet-le-Duc," are convinced that in this way distinction lies, and they have sent out an appeal to all French architects, and invited them to a free competition. Designs for buildings of any sort whatsoever, and of any material whatsoever, are asked for. Architects are to be constrained by no considerations but those of art, and may go wherever fancy leads the way. The jury is made up with a perfect eclecticism. All the designs are to be sent in before November 15; and when they are exposed, there will, no doubt, be an exhibition worth seeing for many reasons. One would say that whatever qualities it lacks, it is sure to have one which possibly its projectors did not most ardently seek: it is sure to be very *fin de siècle*.

A RUSSIAN TRACT.

Labor. By Count Lyof Tolstoi. Translated by Mary Cruger. Chicago: Laird & Lee; and New York: The Pollard Publishing Co.

Toil. By Count Leo Tolstoi and Timothy Bondareff. Translated by James F. Alvord. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.

THERE is very little choice between the above three editions of the work under review. The translations were made from the same French original. Miss Cruger's is the more easily read, the more flowing. Mr. Alvord's is angular, awkward, and inelegant, but keeps closer to the text, and retains phrases which Miss Cruger has omitted. Mr. Alvord's translation is also to be commended because, although, like the others, his wrongly bears Count Tolstoi's name before Bondareff's, it omits from both cover and title-page the false statement that the book has been or is "suppressed" or "interdicted by the Czar of Russia." The admission in the French translator's preface that the tract was printed in the journal *Russian Wealth* settles that question. The manner in which Count Tolstoi's name and this false statement are employed upon the covers and title-pages furnishes sufficient proof of the factors which were relied upon for success in the light of recent experience. Assuredly, nothing short of the factitious interest which at present attaches to the name of Tolstoi could ever have forced into print these utterly incoherent ravings of an uneducated, uninspired peasant. Count Tolstoi is in no sense the author. He has corrected the peasant Bondareff's orthography, and written a short explanatory preface, while the French translator devotes about the same amount of space to eulogy of the peasant's "simplicity" and "profundity," and to an elucidation of this simplicity in the peasant and in Tolstoi.

The doctrines of love, brotherhood, and the dignity of labor have been inculcated constantly since the opening of the Christian era. They have been admitted, in theory at least, by nearly every one who has meditated upon the subject. Count Tolstoi has been ripening towards them all his life; and such preaching is, moreover, his special inheritance as a Russian. At the fateful moment, he made the acquaintance of the sectary Sutaeff and of the peasant Bondareff. The three met at the cross-roads of theory and practice. In the argumentative works which Tolstoi has written since that time, he both claims that he is himself the discoverer of the hitherto unknown road to salvation, and confesses his obligations to his humble teachers. Hence there is nothing new in his remarks, and the sole interest lies in the date appended—that of March, 1888. As Tolstoi has already, in a later work, announced his change of belief as to woman's mission, one half of the immutable Scripture decrees, as interpreted by Bondareff and himself, is annulled. The other half may have been also abrogated in the same easy, infallible manner ere this. The reader cannot be blamed if he bears this fact in mind during his attempts to reconcile Bondareff's lucidity and profundity with prevalent standards, and to comprehend Tolstoi's statement that he has banished all repetitions and digressions to the appendix.

When one reads the dictum, "Labor for bread restores intelligence to those who have lost it," he will probably query a moment why Count Tolstoi himself wrote his best things before he labored with his hands instead of since. When he reads that Bondareff's words "are as obligatory to the believer in the Old Testament as to him who accepts the Gospel, to the man who rejects Scripture and relies on his own reason as to him who comprehends the truth of the doctrine," and reflects that these words inculcate the "labor for bread"—*i. e.*, raising grain solely—the reader is struck dumb with amazement. We may excuse the ignorant peasant, but can hardly excuse the educated noble, for not taking into consideration the inhabitants of the Arctic regions of dense forests and of deserts, where neither the thirty to forty days' labor which he pronounces sufficient (nor any other amount of time) would raise a crop. He should have explained that the forty days cover the peasant's period of work—haying, harvesting, ploughing, and sowing—in Russia. He should have prescribed rye as the grain to be sown, and sour black bread as the divinely instituted medium of salvation. The inevitable cucumber, fresh in summer, salted in winter, is also most unaccountably omitted.

But we must turn to Bondareff. Passing over the question as to how he came to be in Siberia, one may inquire: If he allows himself

to be the righteous possessor of a small cottage and a bit of ground, as the result of forty days' work per annum, why does not he accord to others who are willing to take only eighty festival days' rest, and work 285 days a year, the right to own a larger house and more land? Surely, if labor constitutes salvation, the more labor the more salvation. Or should a Protestant, who may toil on Sundays also, and observe imperfectly only the four or five legal holidays imposed by the tyrannical American Government (all governments being tyrannical according to this theory), be forced to content himself with Bondareff's cot and plot? He lays great stress upon the fact that his text, "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou knead bread," occurs in the beginning of the Bible. Certainly, every one who is familiar with the peculiar reasoning of "inspired" ignoramuses will agree that it could not have occupied a more dangerous and inflammatory position—unless it had been at the other end of the Bible, in the Apocalypse, which also affords exceptionally fine opportunities for miscellaneous raving. If there be any force in this argument, everything between Genesis and Revelation may safely be disregarded. But what becomes of the permission accorded to Adam, in a still earlier verse, to eat freely of all things which had grown without the bestowal of labor?

Bondareff says that labor is perfect joy. But his rallings at the rich, his demands to have restored to him his "stolen fortune" (his 11,500 rubles for twenty-three years' labor), his confessions of envy and hatred, lead one to the conviction that he would jump at a chance to renounce this joy and the salvation which, like all fanatics of his class, he is positive that he has secured, and embrace the vileness of wealth, like other preachers of labor and poverty before him. "Man is a hypocrite," he cries. "I now hate all men, and that is why I will not have them touch my coffin after my death." He declares that if a poor man sins, it is because he has shirked this *divinely* imposed toil; and he furnishes the corollary: "But educated and intelligent people avoid this labor. . . . *They* have *imposed*" (the italics are ours) "all labor upon the poor and weak, but these, in retaliation, do not sleep or lose their presence of mind: they steal, kill, burn, and defraud each other." Very true. And the moral?

After insisting that no one shall do anything but raise bread crops, and that nothing shall ever be sold or bartered, which evidently debars him from purchasing the fruits of unhallowed labor, he says: "The merchants raise the prices of their merchandise, and so make us pay the amount of the taxes"! He also forgets that no one forces the peasants to sell their surplus grain to the rich and so furnish the latter with a weapon of "oppression." His manner of suggesting that "the poor martyrs, laborers, should be delivered from a wearisome labor," does not seem to indicate profound faith in the joy or sanctity of Adam's curse. And he more than once intimates that he expects praises and rewards for fulfilling his divine joy, although he declares, "This labor is not difficult, but easy and useful."

He mixes up the condition of affairs before and since the emancipation of the serfs in the way which will best suit his own purpose. Three days a week was the legal maximum of labor for the proprietor before emancipation, and rarely enforced even then. If the peasant raises his finger for any one but himself nowadays, he gets the equivalent in arable land, pasturage, money, or what firewood he cannot steal. He admits that they all "work against their will." Paragraphs 124–5 are fine specimens of arithmetic, misstatement of conditions, and argument. According to Bondareff's own showing, from sixty to eighty days are amply sufficient for the support of a family for two years; hence, if it were true that he had but 155 days, he has twice as much as he requires. And the dozen children are not obligatory. Such exclamations as, "What brigand has stolen my fortune?" (money being accursed and useless), and "Oh! if the wrong they do us were only temporary, but it is eternal!" sound more like the inconsistent grumblings of a commonplace Socialist than the elation of a man condemned to perennial joy and everlasting salvation at the cheap rate of from thirty to forty days a year. "You see the effect this commandment can have," he says again. "Thanks to it, the old man becomes young, the feeble strong" (not true of your disciple Tolstoi, good Bondareff!), "the idle industrious, the imbecile intelligent" (not true of yourself, Bondareff!), "the drunkard sober" (not true of the peasants), "and the poor rich. . . . If the poor knew their own strength, they would not submit to such outrages. Man would then deliver himself from the indigence and misery which strangle him." Evidently, "the poor would become rich" by violence. And again consistency seems, to the ordinary intelligence, to be lacking.

Some of the other unexplainable mysteries are how Bondareff arrived at the peculiar etymology which makes *muzhik* mean 'beast' (one translation makes it 'stupid'), when it is simply the diminutive of *muzh*, a *man*, with literally not a letter of the other words in it; where he gets his allusions to the 'Arabian Nights,' Caligula, Darius's daughter with her serpents, and so on; and why he should acknowledge the right of the Czar, as an equal with God (after previous denunciation of all superiors), to judge the righteousness of his cause, when he insists that "God, bread, and the laborer" form the real Trinity. He admits that Christ did not labor himself, and "did not give precedence to the law of labor, because, from his infancy, he saw in it little virtue, and considered it to be a great misfortune"—whence he draws the deduction which might have been expected, viz., that he himself is the true and only Messiah, who has been preordained since the foundation of the world to discover the truth and preach it. Count Tolstoi, who holds the same conviction with regard to himself, as stated in 'My Religion,' neglects to comment upon this view of the New Testament doctrine.

We admit the dignity of labor, but we demand a broader interpretation than either Bondareff or Tolstoi supplies. The majority of people read carelessly, as a sort of "mental dram-drinking," or in obedience to the dictates of temporary fashion. Therefore, we have devoted valuable space to showing up a book which deserves no mention from its intrinsic merits. The conclusion of the matter is that discriminating persons have, in all probability, already arrived at the decision that the Czar of Russia must be a man of good judgment, whose condemnation, real or fictitious, is a sure indication of the bad quality of a book; and that Count Tolstoi's praises are equally final in the same direction, when the book deals with social questions.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

In the second edition of Mr. Justice Stephen's 'General View of the Criminal Law' (Macmillan), the original work, which appeared in 1863, has been thoroughly rewritten, and with the result, rare in the career of law books, that the new treatise (although it contains, as we are told in the preface, the essence of what the writer has learned during a long and greatly varied experience of thirty-six years as a barrister, a member of the Indian Council, an author, a draftsman, and a judge) is brought within two-thirds of the compass of the first edition. This condensation is due, in large measure, to the learned author's ability to make frequent reference, for a fuller statement of his views, to his well-known Digests of Criminal Law and Criminal Procedure and his 'History of the Criminal Law.' But apart from this gain in proportion, the new edition is an improvement throughout upon the original treatise. The historical introduction remains, as before, the least satisfactory part of the book. There is a certain vagueness in regard to several matters, and there are some inaccuracies, as, for example, the remark that the appeal of theft was soon disused; and the statement that the judges in 1482 made a rule of their own authority that persons indicted for murder should not be tried for a year, so that the party's right to bring an appeal of murder in the meantime might not be interfered with. This rule of the judges was not the result of judicial legislation, but the affirmance of a doctrine as old as the time of Britton.

But the distinguished writer was chiefly interested in dealing with the Criminal Law as it is or ought to be, and here he is eminently successful. The dogmatic portion of the book is conspicuous for the arrangement of the subject, for clearness of statement, and for vigorous and wholesome criticism. An illustration of this last quality is found in the remark that the maxim "Non est reus nisi mens sit rea," is "neither more nor less valuable than the other scraps of Latin which have found their way into the law, and which are generally used when counsel do not clearly know their own meaning." The book as a whole seems to us to be the best of the author's works, and must be of very great value to the student, the legislator, and the intelligent general reader.

Not much is to be expected of a law-book which is intended neither as a text-book nor a digest, but rather as a series of compact statements of the law, substantiated by very numerous citations of the important English and American decisions relating thereto. But in the 'Law of Trusts and Trustees,' by James H. Flint (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.), the author has fallen far short of his limited ambition. The book is marked by much repetition, many erroneous or misleading statements, and a general lack of discrimination. In a word, the subject, and not the writer, has proved the master. As a book of reference for authorities the publication may have an occasional value as a supplement to Perry's treatise on the same subject.

'Bank-Officers, their Authority, Duty, and Liability,' by Albert S. Bolles (New York: Homans Publishing Co.), is a large treatise for so limited a subject; but bankers, for whom, as well as for lawyers, it was intended, will doubtless not find it too voluminous. The book shows the marks of careful study, is well written, and seems to be generally a safe guide. But an exception must be made as to the statement, on page 15, that "officers are justified in lending to a trustee on the pledge of trust stock, unless they have reason to believe that he intends to misapply the money." This slip arose from a failure to distinguish between an executor and a trustee.

'Dillon on Municipal Corporations' is deservedly regarded by the legal profession as a

work without a rival on the subject of which it treats; and as it is nine years since the third edition was published, the fourth edition (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) will be gladly welcomed by the bar, especially as the author assures us that he has gone personally over the book, section by section, and changed and added to the text when it seemed necessary. In fact, so great has been the development of this branch of the law in the last nine years that the author might well have said that he had rewritten the work which has played so large a part in that development. The typography, from the University Press, is a model for law books.

In this respect a striking contrast is afforded by 'The Law of Railways,' by Charles Fisk Beach (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.), which has been published in two volumes in the "Pony Series." It is to be regretted that a better form was not given to it. The book is not intended as a substitute for others on the same subject, but to be used as a supplement. It is in regard to the management of the internal affairs of railroad corporations, as distinguished from their relation to the public as carriers, that Mr. Beach's treatise will be found useful. Here the author goes more into detail, although it should be said that he has paid particular attention to the Inter-State Commerce Act and the decisions thereunder.

Early in the present year we called the attention of the bar to Mr. John D. Lawson's 'Rights, Remedies, and Practice' (Bancroft-Whitney Company), of which two volumes had then been published. Volumes iii., iv., v., vi., and vii. of this important and highly meritorious work have since appeared, thus completing the author's great task, with the exception of an index volume, which is promised. They have been prepared with the same care that characterized the first two, and more we need not say.

JAPANESE POTTERY.

Japanese Pottery, with Notes describing the thoughts and subjects employed in its decoration, and Illustrations from examples in the Bowes Collection. By James L. Bowes. Liverpool: Published by the Author. Pp. 576.

A GLANCE at the opening pages of Mr. Bowes's sumptuous book shows that the author claims to have brought together a collection of Japanese pottery so complete, as representing provinces, makers, and marks, that he ventures to imply that the Japanese themselves will in the future be obliged to appeal to it to learn about their own pottery. It devolves upon us, therefore, to determine, if possible, how far his claim is justified, and first of all by answering the question, What should such a collection include?

In any comprehensive study of the potter's art in Japan one must collect and study the common ware made for kitchen utensils, the vessels used by the better classes, and the brilliantly decorated and even gaudy vases, plaques, and grotesque figures made expressly for export. A museum of art or an ethnological museum would be justified in excluding the latter class of objects—a museum of art, in that the decoration would not represent the true art feeling of the people; and the ethnological museum, in that the objects are not such as the Japanese find use for. Pieces of this nature might find a home in some industrial art museum, though even here their influence, on the whole, would be pernicious.

Any complete collection of Japanese pottery which is to furnish material for a work on the subject, should include only those objects made for the Japanese, and representing, of course, only things in accordance with Japanese taste and traditions; and these products should cover the whole range of fictile ware. A collection, even for an art museum, would not be true if it included only pieces having great intrinsic beauty; or, to put it in another way, if an art museum were to preserve only the beautiful pottery of any country, nine-tenths of the objects of this nature from England, Belgium, Holland, and Germany, and a goodly portion of the pottery of other countries, would have to be banished. Applying the same rule throughout a museum of art, other collections would suffer in the same way—rusty iron-work, rough glass and begrimed wood-carvings, faded fabrics and fragments of ancient sculpture, pewter dishes and roofing-tiles, patina-covered coins and indistinguishable paintings of mediæval age—all would be discarded. The idea is at once so monstrous that no museum of art yet founded would listen to such a scheme for an instant. In the minds of many it has been found difficult to draw a hard-and-fast line between the collections proper for a museum of art and those for an ethnological museum. An acute student of classical antiquities regards as proper for an art museum all objects from nations which have been conspicuous as producers of art work in any line, and in these lines the collections should be exhaustive. The ethnological museum finds it still more difficult to draw the line, but its material comes usually from savage and barbarous peoples. This division does not, of course, exclude from the museum of art objects of savage and barbaric art.

Returning, then, to what a complete collection of Japanese pottery should be, a collector finds the following groups to study. First, the common ware of the masses, such as kitchen utensils, jugs, pans, etc. A few of these might well be got together to show how tasteful even common pottery is in an artistic country. This pottery, when of fair age, is usually the rarest to get, for, being in daily use and without value, it is when broken thrown away. Second, pottery for table use; objects used by the more refined classes for the tea ceremonies, for the writing-table, for the serving of wine, for flowers, and for house adornment generally, and for heating and illuminating purposes. The work of the amateur should also be collected, as showing a curious phase of the art, nor must be overlooked pieces noted for their age or ugliness, but which excite the admiration of the tea-lover, not for their beauty (for they have none), but because they come from the site of some famous kiln, or were used by some celebrated man in past times. Such specimens are breathlessly examined by the *chajin* in Japan in much the same way that an American, if it were possible to induce any reverence in him, might examine the boots of Christopher Columbus or the jack-knife of George Washington. The collection would not be complete without examples of the pre-historic and early lathe-turned pottery of the country.

If a collector were to limit himself to any portion of this scheme, he would obviously select the pottery made for the better classes—the poet, the artist, the scholar, the lover of tea and flowers—just as in collecting pictures he would not care for the painted signs, the pictorial advertisements, and least of all for the stuff painted for the foreign market, but would collect paintings which had adorned the houses of cultivated people. Above all, no collection would be worthy the name that did not include as far as possible the marks of the various potters. In every important work on pottery, silverware, and the like, the marks have been assiduously collected and recorded, for, after all, if the piece is genuine, the mark is the first and last source of appeal.

With these brief suggestions as to what a collection of Japanese pottery should embrace, let us examine the beautiful work before us We are not concerned with the statement on the title-page that the author is "His Imperial Majesty's Honorary Consul for Japan at Liverpool," but we are with the statement that he is joint author of 'Keramic Art of Japan,' for, in the ten years that have elapsed since the publication of that work, he should have awakened a sadder and a wiser man. A casual survey of the objects figured prepares one to understand why he is at variance with nearly all collectors and artists who have been fascinated by the intrinsic beauty of genuine Japanese pottery. Not only does he find their tastes in this respect unaccountable, but he criticises a little manual issued in 1878 by the National Museum in Japan as being singularly deficient in information in regard to the brilliant development of the artistic taste of the country at an epoch to which he assigns many of his pieces. In his preface he acknowledges his indebtedness to a number of Japanese friends for assistance in verifying or correcting his classification, and he thanks them for specimens, some of them heirlooms, which were necessary to complete the sequence of several of the groups; Government departments even aiding him in this.

From these positive statements one prepares himself to enjoy a book which for the first time is to ascribe Japanese pottery to its rightful dates, makers, and provinces; to expect, also, that all the important makers at least, and all the provinces in which pottery was produced to any extent, are to be represented either by figures, marks, or descriptions. It is true, the author has never been in Japan, has never come in contact with Japanese connoisseurs, or spent days poring over the treasures in some musty *kura;* has never sat down with the amiable Rokubei, the dignified Dohachi, the good-natured Yeiraku; has never had the opportunity of gathering words of wisdom from the lips of Kohitsu, Machida, Tanemura, Maida, Ninagawa, and other experts. It is amazing to learn, however, that this not only makes no difference, but that such an experience is rather a hindrance to the proper forming of a correct judgment in regard to the subject. According to this dictum, then, we are to believe that Prof. Fenellosa's profound knowledge of Japanese art would have been more trustworthy had he obtained his information by roaming about England and the Continent; and that Dr. Anderson's collection of kakemono in the British Museum would have been far better if he had picked it up from bric-à-brac shops and auction sales.

Let us see the result of this confidence on the author's part as affecting the proper identification of the specimens he figures. The following corrections we make with the kindliest—nay, the most sympathetic—feeling, knowing the insuperable difficulties one must encounter so far away from the "base of supply." We pass over for the present Mr. Bowes's numerous mistakes in confounding the name of the kiln with that of the potter, the marks which have been wrongly read, and, above all, the erroneous dates assigned to so many specimens, and come at once to the vital question as to whether the attribution of many of his pieces is correct or not. If correct, then his book may be taken as a guide, as far as it goes. More than a third of the specimens figured come under the category of export goods, many of them exceedingly beautiful, but we

are concerned only with such as truly represent native pottery. And here we might apply the author's own words, which are quite just in regard to the old Japanese porcelain in the Dresden Museum, made, as every one now knows, by the Japanese expressly for export. Mr. Bowes says: "Turning, now, from this old Japan porcelain, which, as regards the form of the objects and their decoration, is at variance with the taste of Japan," etc.

Fortunately for the student, the plates, some of which have done service before in 'Keramic Art of Japan,' are marvels of the chromo-lithographer's skill, and the book is also illustrated by many excellent heliotypes. The pieces are so well depicted that one can tell at a glance the character of the specimen figured. On the plate lettered as Satsuma are specimens from three other provinces, a bottle from Tamba, a square bottle of old Kiyomidzu (called *amamori* by the Japanese, from a peculiar staining which resembles the rain stains on the paper *shoji*), and a *choku* from Higo. On the plate marked Province of Higo there are figured six specimens, only one of which belongs to that province; two and probably three of them are Chikuzen, and two of them Satsuma (Mishima, white on gray). Of the nine specimens figured and described as Higo, only three are from that province, and one of these has been defaced by subsequent decoration. On the plate marked Suruga not one of the specimens figured was made in that province. The two specimens figured as Awaji of the eighteenth century were made within thirty years at Shido, Sanuki. (This will add an important province to Mr. Bowes's list, and if he can get examples of the beautiful work of Minzan and Nawohachi and of the Tomita, Yashima, Takamatsu, and other ovens, the province will be fairly represented.)

Nine specimens are catalogued as belonging to the province of Nagato, four of which appear on Plate lviii, one on Plate lvii, and one on Plate lxvi. Following the catalogue numbers in the description, we find No. 1 is Shino, Owari. No. 2 is an exceedingly rare and old specimen of Onohara, Tamba. (The figure of this specimen is so accurate that we venture to say its bottom is unglazed and bears the impression of cloth on a dark-red clay.) No. 3 is Mishima Satsuma obscured by subsequent decoration. Nos. 5 and 6 are not Nagato. No. 7 is questionable, and Nos. 8 and 9 from the description alone should be recognized by the novice as Kiyomidzu, Kioto, and if further proof were needed, the mark is given which, though unintelligible to the author, is that of Kitei, one of the typical Kiyomidzu makers.

Why go further? Yet it is impossible to pass over such a glaring error as in the case of the specimen figured in Plate lxvi, as belonging to the province of Kii, and made by Sanrakuyen. Shades of Zengoro! It was not made within three hundred miles of that province, and there is no such maker as Sanrakuyen. On the decline of a ware made at an oven in Kii, a potter was hired to revive, if possible, the ware in Tokio, Province of Musashi. The oven was called by the poetical name of Sanrakuyen. The essay of this oven proved such a dismal failure that, after a few years, it was abandoned. The pieces bear either the large or small mark, and sometimes the painted mark of Sanrakuyen. As this specimen was figured in a plate that has already done service in the work of Audsley and Bowes, published nearly ten years ago, time enough has elapsed to have corrected the error.

On Plate xl. a piece is figured as Omi, whereas it was made in Ofuke village, Owari. A plastic figure is described as made by Nagami Iwao, Province of Yamashiro, whereas it was made by a potter named Nagami in the village of Yamashita, Province of Iwami. (This will add another province to Mr. Bowes's list.) With the exception of two tea-jars, the ten specimens described as Idzumo are all of the yellow, buff, and mottled brown glazes. The example No. 981 was not made in the early part of the century, but within thirty years, evidently under Government direction, as the decorated model may be seen in the National Museum, Tokio. There is not a suggestion in Mr. Bowes's collection of the vigorous work of Zenshiro, the beautiful productions of the Rakuzan oven, or the remarkable white glaze and blue decorated wares of two hundred years ago. Similarly, under the province of Settsu, the poverty of his collection is shown by cataloguing eleven pieces of Sanda celedon, mostly modern; one piece of Kikko; a trap for cuttle fish, and two pieces made in Kobe for export. Not a word, however, about the brilliant glazes of the Sakurai oven, the pure white and quaintly decorated pieces of Kosobe, the varied and remarkable products of Kiuzan, and the æsthetic work of the early Niniwa oven. Mr. Bowes's estimate as to the artistic quality of the pottery of Tamba, Totomi, and certain other provinces is invalidated because his material, as revealed by his catalogue, is altogether too meagre and imperfect upon which to base an opinion.

The work, for what relates to the identification of pottery, is a striking example of how far one may go astray who undertakes to study the products of a country from just the opposite side of the globe.

Emin Pasha and the Rebellion at the Equator: A Story of nine months' experiences in the last of the Sudan Provinces. By A. J. Mounteney-Jephson. With the revision and coöperation of Henry M. Stanley. With map and numerous illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890. 8vo, pp. xxiv., 490.

MR. MOUNTENEY-JEPHSON'S work is more than a mere narrative of personal adventure. It gives an account of the downfall of the Equatorial Province, and furnishes, as well, an important chapter in the history of Mr. Stanley's expedition. There is nothing in it of the dry, official tone of a report, but it is an unaffected, straightforward statement of what the author saw, told with more than ordinary descriptive power. Evidently Mr. Jephson is a good observer and a shrewd judge of men, as his life-like portraiture of Emin and his principal officers plainly shows. Endowed with great courage and a high spirit, which, however, he kept carefully under control, and a warm heart, he won the confidence and affection of his companions, both white and black. The simple words with which he tells what enabled him and his fellow-officers during all the "darkness and misery" to be "steadfast and comparatively cheery," best show what manner of man he is. "First, the love and interest we all had for our work. Second, the implicit trust and confidence we have ever had in our leader. And third, and I think not least, the strong friendship which has always existed between Stairs, Nelson, Parke, and myself." Referring to Barttelot's death, he says:

"The hardest part of the experiences a man travelling in Africa has to go through, is not the physical hardships, starvation, or disappointments, but the sufferings and deaths of his comrades, European or negro. The hardships and starvation may be forgotten; but the deaths of such men as Barttelot and Jameson, and of our faithful Zanzibaris, must ever remain fresh in my memory as the saddest of the many sad memories which rise in my mind whenever I think of these past three years. That Barttelot had done his duty bravely and honestly I never for a moment doubted. He may have been injudicious, he may have been hasty. The story of that terrible time will never, I fear, be correctly known; but whatever may have happened, any one who really knew him must intuitively recognize that he was honorable and upright and brave, and that, like Lawrence, he tried to do his duty."

Mr. Jephson wisely confines himself to a narrative of what took place during his absence from the expedition, and his book should be read before one reads the second volume of 'In Darkest Africa,' for the clear understanding of that part of Mr. Stanley's story. He was detailed, it may be remembered, to accompany Emin Pasha to his province to aid him in preparing his people for their removal. His first impressions were decidedly favorable. The "exquisitely clean and neat" stations; the smartly dressed officers and soldiers; the contented and happy people; the numerous flocks and herds; the vegetable gardens, the cotton fields and banana groves which lined the lake shore and the river bank, all presented a most attractive picture. Had he been a mere passing traveller like Dr. Felkin, he would doubtless have written as enthusiastically as this gentleman of what Emin had accomplished for his people and his province. The whole credit, however, does not belong to him, for Mr. Jephson says: "I could not help being struck with the fact that nearly all the good and lasting things had been brought into the province by Sir Samuel Baker." Many of the old soldiers often spoke with affection and pride of him and of Lady Baker, or Nyadué, "the Morning Star, by which name she was called in admiration of her fair-haired beauty."

But it was not long before the true condition of the province was revealed to Stanley's officer. He found that one of the Pasha's two battalions had been for four years in open rebellion. They garrisoned the northern stations, and their discontent arose from his attempt, after the first Mahdist invasion, to evacuate these stations in order to concentrate his forces near the lake. Although the remainder of the soldiers were still loyal, they not only were unwilling to leave the province, but were also exceedingly sceptical as to Stanley's having come from Egypt. This was owing in part to their persistent disbelief in the fall of Khartum, the wretched condition of Stanley's people, and to the fact that, by a strange oversight, he brought them no letters from their friends in Egypt. As to the natives, although about the stations immediately under Emin's influence they seemed to be well-disposed, nevertheless, as he journeyed northward he "could see by the many marks of deserted villages, and the almost entire absence of cattle or goats, that the soldiers evidently robbed the natives to such an extent that they were forced to leave their villages and cattle and remove their goods away from their thievish influence." This had caused the "Turks" to be regarded with a most intense hatred, which showed itself in uprisings and massacres before Mr. Jephson's escape.

Gradually the conviction was forced upon him that the province was in fact only a miniature of Khedivial Egypt, with its thin veneer of civilization overlaying an unbounded corruption, and with the same grinding oppression of the people—with this important exception, that Emin was no Ismail. Rigidly upright in his conduct of affairs, not one of the many accusations brought against him was found to be true. This state of things was not unnatural, considering the fact that of his fifty-six Egyptian officers and clerks there

was scarcely one in the province "who was not at that moment undergoing a sentence of banishment from Egypt for such crimes as murder, rebellion, or highway robbery." His other officers were mainly Sudanese, entirely under the influence of the Egyptians, while the soldiers were natives from the various tribes in the surrounding region. It is not surprising, then, that these men were unwilling to leave a country where they lived in luxury unattainable in Egypt, nor that the arrival of Stanley was made the pretext to seize their Governor and Mr. Jephson, on the ground that they were to be removed by force and enslaved to the English. The judgment of the author's Niam-Niam servant was a just one: "Master, these are a rotten people; the good material in them is not sufficient to make a hut, but there is enough evil in them to build a palace."

The story of the imprisonment and the proceedings of the rebel council is exceedingly interesting. During the whole time it is evident that Mr. Jephson conducted himself with great tact and courage. He did not hesitate on one occasion to bitterly reproach the rebel officers for their treatment of him, so contrary to the strict law of Mohammedan hospitality, thereby compelling their admiration and assent. "By Allah!" exclaimed their leader, "he has spoken truly and he shall join his people." It is impossible to say what would have been the ultimate fate of Emin and Mr. Jephson at the hands of the Egyptians—both finally condemned to be hung—if an invasion of the Mahdists, or Donagla, as they were called, and the capture of the important station Rejaf, had not caused the rebels, stricken with fear, to set them at liberty. The province had become thoroughly disorganized and well-nigh defenceless, while the officers spent their time in wrangling and in drunken carousals. Emin was entreated by them to resume the government and to rescue them from the impending danger, as the Mahdists were only awaiting reinforcements from Khartum to overrun the whole province. It was under these circumstances that Emin joined Stanley and that Mr. Jephson's story comes to a close.

Our author had comparatively few opportunities for observation, but he made good use of those which he had, and his book is full of bright descriptions of the stations and the lake and river scenery. Especially successful is he in conveying vivid impressions of his companions, the false-hearted Egyptians, fawning and obsequious to-day, treacherous and insolent to-morrow. Here is a warning given by one of the worst of them to him: "In this country there are only Sudanese and Egyptians. If a Sudanese comes at you with scowls on his face and a loaded gun, while on the other hand an Egyptian comes to you with a carpet and a friendly salutation, turn to the Sudanese; he with his loaded gun will do you less harm than the Egyptian with his smiles and carpet." Far different were the three Peacock Dervishes, "fine-looking fellows of the Arab type," who came with a letter to Emin from the Mahdist leader, Omar Saleh. They were dressed in white shirts of native-made cotton cloth, which reached nearly to their knees and were "patched all over with bits of red, blue, green, yellow, and spotted calico. . . . Slung across their backs were thongs of leather, to which were attached numerous little round, oblong, and triangular leather cases, containing different verses from the Koran. Each man had a small volume of the Koran," while for arms he had a large, straight, double-edged sword, and three immense spears from twelve to fifteen feet long. They were manly fellows who, though cruelly tortured by the Egyptians, refused to reveal any information in regard to the strength of the Donagla. Eventually, "they were taken down to the river and beaten to death with clubs, and their bodies were thrown to the crocodiles."

Among the curious customs which Mr. Jephson noticed was this of the Sudanese on the occasion of a marriage: "On the evening before the wedding, a number of young Sudanese gathered in front of the bride's hut, and, forming a circle, began to sing and whip each other with hippopotamus hide whips until the blood came. This, it appears, was to show the bride what a plucky race her husband was sprung from." The natives of whom he saw the most were the Baris, who name their boys after animals and their girls after flowers. They decorate their pottery slightly, and pave the floors of their huts with little triangular pieces of broken pottery, so that they "resemble black mosaic floors, so beautifully, evenly, and closely are they fitted together." The Baris have large herds of cattle which are kept principally for their milk. "Women are never permitted to milk or to meddle in any way with the cows." When Emin and Mr. Jephson reached Wadelai after their release from captivity, "a sheep was killed, and we were made to step over the blood; some of the blood was also dashed against the lintels of the doors of our houses for luck"—a curious reminiscence of Israel in Egypt.

Mr. Jephson has comparatively little to tell of the fauna of the province, but he mentions that, on one occasion, while going down the bank of the Nile, he saw "an immense herd of nearly 200 elephants. . . . This great number of huge black bodies moving slowly along with their long white tusks gleaming in the sun, was perfectly overpowering. Wherever you looked, for the space of half a mile, nothing was to be seen but elephants marching sedately along at the foot of the mountains. The very face of the plain seemed moving."

The central figure of Mr. Jephson's book is, of course, Emin Pasha, and the man is brought before the reader with almost photographic distinctness. His fine qualities, his generosity, his integrity, his devotion to the welfare of his province, his care for his people and faith in them, his scientific ardor, are all faithfully delineated. So, too, are his weaknesses, his unmanly sensitiveness, his vacillation, his inability to tell unwelcome truths, his lack of moral courage, his moodiness and ingratitude. The Pasha evidently strongly attached his young companion to him, and only a sense of duty has impelled the latter to write as plainly as he has done. His book, with the exception of the closing chapter, was all written before Emin showed his hostility to his rescuers. The last chapter, in refutation of recent German insinuations and accusations, adds other proofs of Emin's "causeless resentment" and base ingratitude towards men who had perilled their lives a thousand times to help him. "Emin can dream noble things," says Mr. Jephson, in conclusion, "but he cannot act them, because, unfortunately, he is nearly always below his best self."

Mr. Stanley, of whom there is a fine etched portrait, writes a warmly appreciative prefatory letter, in which he takes occasion to refer strongly to the want of an international copyright law. There is an excellent index, with a map and many interesting illustrations. Among these is a charming group of "African ragamuffins" and a dwarf with bow and arrow, by Mrs. Stanley.

A Boy's Town, described for *Harper's Young People*. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros. 1890.

THE defect of Mr. Howells's description of his boyhood, as a book for boys, is that he writes of it from a man's point of view. He has so disillu-ioned himself that he seems constantly to patronize his small self, to apologize for him, and in more than one passage he is frankly ashamed of him. This critical temper, which is constantly turning the boy round to see what an incomplete creature he was, and to show off his weak points, interferes with the pleasure of the perusal; and the criticism is not confined to the little fellow, but takes in the whole life of the village as far as Mr. Howells remembers it, and in particular the religious and moral ideas in which he was bred. What we have is only incidentally a boy's book; essentially it is a study of a Western town and its life from the materials which have survived in the author's memory and which he has reflected upon. It is true that the matter of the volume is mainly anecdotes and reminiscences of the town and its features, the boys and their sports, studies and pets, the family life, the printing-office, the holidays, and such heterogeneous things as sometimes come into a boy's purview, and, by some trick of their own, stick in his memory; but the binding element in all this, the continuous strain, is an unfavorable criticism of it all, to the effect that the life of the people was very limited, and the boy in an embryo state of foolishness, crude ideas, cruelties, ridiculous errors, and so on. There is a lack of cheerfulness, of spirits, of wholesome enjoyment, which makes the whole rather painful. There is so much self-pity for the boy that one thinks he must have had a very unhappy time; and yet it appears that he had his share in most of the things that are good for boys, and suffered only as a sensitive nature does in companionship with rougher spirits. One can see through the cloud of comment, nevertheless, the principal elements in the life of boyhood on the Miami forty years ago, and if he can bring out of his own boyhood some sympathy for the children, he may counteract the author's unfortunate pessimism.

My Study Fire. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

THE title of Mr. Mabie's volume is apt, and suggests that vein of reverie which distinguishes it and classes it at once with books of literary sentiment. The fire is described in all its stages, with the eye of a lover who turns from it only to see the books whose titles it lights up, or the autumnal and wintry views outside to which it stands in cheerful relief. Wife and children also necessarily sit in its glow; the scene is that of the student's quiet home and paradise. The seasons, as they pass, bring Christmas and New Year's and the first snowfall, the earliest flight of returning birds; and with these well-worn motives of reverie the text unfolds its story in a loitering and desultory way, touching on nature and on genius, on Goethe and Alexander Smith, Amiel and Méryon, Lowell and the 'Imitation of Christ,' changefully and irresponsibly, without emphasis and without weariness. It is especially an indoor book, though once the author wanders out from his fire to tell of the delights of a journey on snow-shoes; and once he interpolates a kind of story of a sort that we have long ceased to meet with, and whose absence in current literature has not been greatly lamented. Mr. Mabie's thought is not exacting of the reader's attention; it is very smooth-flowing, and one has only to float on

the stream; his fancy is pleasantly active, and his style equable, refined, and clear. He writes at leisure and must be read at leisure, for entertainment of a quiet sort; he succeeds in finding a middle way between poetry and prose, reflection and sentiment, books and life, and he brings with him much cultivation of taste and real regard for the great work of the past; but his vignettes of winter weather and of fireside seclusion are the most charming part of his labors, or, perhaps we might more fitly say, his recreation.

The Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson. The Century Company. 1890.

"THE reason why so few good books are written," said the late Walter Bagehot, "is that so few people who can write, know anything"; and by this he meant that the literary class, leading a retired existence, has little experience of life in its broader aspects. Unfortunately, those who are in the thick of the struggle, and who are, therefore, in a position to know something, cannot write—most of them. When, by any accident, the man who knows something can write, we get a book we take to our hearts: this is one reason of the success of Grant's 'Memoirs.' During the past year the readers of the *Century Magazine* have been delighting in two series of articles, neither of which was written by a professional author, the brilliant "Letters from Japan," of Mr. John Lafarge, a painter, and the "Autobiography" of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, an actor. The latter is now before us complete in a book by itself, and a rereading of its chapters confirms one in the opinion that the distinguished comedian belongs among the people who know something and who also can write.

Mr. Jefferson's style is easy and flowing, like that of Mr. Booth (in the two brief papers written five years ago for 'Actors and Actresses'). It is that of a man who has kept good company all his life, who has spoken every night the chosen words of the dramatists, from Shakspere to Sheridan. The actor's enforced and daily familiarity with the vocabulary of the masters of speech ought in itself to be a training in the apt use of words. Mr. Jefferson's style has the cadence and the color of good dramatic writing, with a charm which seems to be his own. There are no purple patches anywhere in this book; there is much quiet and playful humor, and an ever-present kindliness of tone. Mr. Jefferson reveals here what Bagehot called "one of the rarest of artistic charms, that of magnanimous autobiography." Quaint and odd as were many of the personages whom he recalls for us in these pages, he sketches them with unfailing charity, with never a hint of acerbity, and with very remarkable skill. Some of his full-length likenesses are worthy to go in the gallery with Colley Cibber's incomparable reproduction of Mrs. Bracegirdle, one of the most marvellously life-like pen portraits in all literature.

It is with Cibber's 'Apology' that Mr. Jefferson's 'Autobiography' is to be classed rather than with the merely amusing 'Wandering Patentee' or Tate Wilkinson, the 'Reminiscences' of Michael Kelly, and the 'Retrospections' of John Bernard in England; or, in America, with the 'Recollections' of William B. Wood, the 'Thirty Years' of Joe Cowell, or the 'Theatrical Management' of Sol Smith. Quite as amusing as any of these, and quite as abundant in anecdote, Mr. Jefferson's book, like Cibber's, is something more than merely amusing. It has a stronger backbone, a wider philosophy. We find in it not a little of the quality which gives value to Fromentin's discussion of the old masters. We see here the judgment of an expert with broad sympathies and a chastened taste. Any discussion of the principles of an art with an intelligent artist is fertile—with an artist, that is, who has intelligence beyond what is needed for the exercise of his profession. This is what we gain in reading Cibber on the one side and Fromentin on the other; and a like profit can be had from this book of Mr. Jefferson's. It is a book that most people will read with pleasure, and one from which those who seek light can learn much.

Note, for example, the author's description (pp. 108-9) of the way in which Burton and Burke played into each other's hands, and the account (p. 384) of the discussion with the late Charles (James) Mathews about the necessity the actor is under of enlarging his manner when acting in a larger theatre than he is accustomed to appear in. Compare this last assertion with the criticism (p. 153) of Mathews as *Charles Surface*, which was a failure because the comedian could not rid himself of his modern air and of the trifling manners of the man-about-town of to-day, quite out of keeping with the more robust character of Sheridan's hero, and remark that Murdoch succeeded where Mathews failed, because he gave color, dignity, and picturesqueness to the older characters, playing them in the spirit in which they had been conceived. Only less instructive is the criticism (p. 138) of the amateur actors who—like Hackett and Mrs. Mowatt in the past—have gone on the professional stage after they were mature, and when they had acquired faults almost ineradicable.

Especially worthy of careful consideration is the whole of chapter XVI., containing Mr. Jefferson's "Reflections on the Art of Acting." M. Coquelin, Mr. Irving, Signor Salvini have lately talked freely about their calling, but no one of them is shrewder in seizing the elemental principles of the histrionic art than Mr. Jefferson in these pages, nor is any more adroit in the selection of apt illustrations. Evidently Mr. Jefferson's opinion on Diderot's "Paradox" is closely akin to M. Coquelin's: "For myself, I know that I act best when the heart is warm and the head is cool"; and it is pleasant to find the foremost comedians of France and America in accord. Equally interesting is the American comedian's elucidation of "dramatic action" (pp. 185-7), of its vital necessity, and of the impossibility of moving an audience without it, whatever may be the merely external "literary merit" of the play. Elsewhere Mr. Jefferson discusses the disappearance of the old "stock companies," and makes a strong plea in favor of the present system of travelling "combinations," not quite as convincing as his argument in favor of the right of an actor to modify the text of an old play in accordance with modern taste. Here we think Mr. Jefferson is quite right. Good-naturedly he quotes the late William Warren's jest that the autobiographer's recent performances of the "Rivals" recall Buchanan Read's line, "And Sheridan twenty miles away." But the physical conditions of the theatre are always changing, and, to keep the stage, a play must needs be modified to meet these changed conditions. Mr. Jefferson has done to Sheridan only what is done to Shakspere every time "Hamlet" is acted.

For the benefit of those who may not have seen any of the articles which make up this book as they appeared, month by month, in the *Century*, it may be said that Mr. Jefferson tells the story of his life from his earliest appearances on the stage, in a little village called Chicago, to his triumphant success as *Rip Van Winkle* in Australia, England, and America, going on to the more recent revival of "Rivals," and ending with a humorously pathetic account of some of his neighbors when he retires to rest at his plantation in Louisiana. As we follow the adventures of the actor, we meet with quaint characters, we hear good stories, we learn much about the art of acting, we have many portraits of prominent actors and actresses of the past, and we find ourselves more and more drawn toward the author as he stands revealed before us in his own pages.

The book has been beautifully printed at the De Vinne press; and its illustrations are of the variety and excellence to which the Century Company has accustomed us in its publications. The cover is a most successful novelty, recalling that of Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Robin Hood' by its decorative quality, at once rich and simple. The design (by Mr. G. W. Edwards) is embossed on veritable vellum, "blind-tooled" on the sides and touched with gold on the back.

On the Hills. By Frederick Starr. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1890.

THIS work consists of a series of elementary essays on geological topics, in a style fitted to attract young readers, although there is no preface to tell us that such is the object of their preparation. The best part of the book is the good-humored personal element, with narrative of the author's field experience, by which the essays are brought down to a form of statement that boys may easily appreciate. The brighter readers of such a book may be led to the excellent result of going out on the hills themselves, and discovering that they too can find stories that are worth telling, for they will be flavored with the delight of personal effort.

Some of the pages are too lightly written, and at times the difficulties of the subject are too greatly simplified; a more advanced teacher might hesitate where Prof. Starr asserts without qualification, but such assertion seems to be regarded as an essential of "popular" scientific style. The chapters on fossils describe so many species that are far beyond the success of the ordinary collector that the beginner will be disappointed if he attempts to follow them out doors; indeed, they represent the author's experience in the museum or with his books rather than on the hills, and for this reason they have less value than the others. The chapters on physical geology will lead the youthful investigator to better hunting-grounds. The glacial moraines, the waterfalls and gorges, the ringing rocks are accessible to all who live in their neighborhood; but the hadrosaurus, the ichthyosaurus, and the rest are to be found only in museums by most of us. Occasionally the author's personality is a little too prominent, as in the excursion to Kittatinny Mountain up the Delaware Valley. The painful experience of the younger members of his walking party is in such contrast to his own success that the story can hardly serve except as a discouragement to the "lower-class men;" and when Prof. Starr calls Kittatinny "my mountain," he must arouse many Pennsylvanians who love it with him to assert their claims to partial ownership at least. This fine mountain wall was well called endless by the Indians, but it can hardly be said to extend "1,500 miles as one great ridge from Massachusetts to Alabama." It does not reach Massachusetts, and in parts of its course it is too much doubled on itself to be called "one great ridge." Indeed, the real personality of Kittatinny is not clearly brought out; it deserves

further study and fuller history. We hope Prof. Starr will write more books, and carry his work on the hills further towards a scientific end.

The Women of Turkey and their Folk-Lore. The Christian Women. By Lucy M. J. Garnett. With an Ethnological Map, and introductory chapters on the Ethnography of Turkey and Folk-Conceptions of Nature by John S. Stuart-Glennie, M.A. London: David Nutt. 1890.

MISS GARNETT is already favorably known to students of popular literature by her 'Greek Folk-Songs,' in which she likewise had the co-operation of Mr. Stuart-Glennie. The present work is of more general interest, and is a more valuable contribution to folk-lore. The prefatory material cannot be examined here at any length, especially as we recently (in a review of Taylor's 'Origin of the Aryans') considered one of the topics treated by Mr. Stuart-Glennie, the European origin of the Aryans. Of Mr. Stuart-Glennie's theory of folk-lore we can now say only that it is a compromise between the views of those who hold that mythology is the outcome of the civilized mind, and the views of those who believe that it is the creation of the savage mind.

The most interesting and valuable part of the work is Miss Garnett's, and of it we can speak with the highest praise. The present volume is devoted to the women of the Christian nationalities; the one which is to follow will treat of the Semitic and Moslem women. The author takes up in turn the Vlach, Greek, Armenian, Bulgarian, and Frank women, and describes the social status and activities, family ceremonies, beliefs and superstitions, and folk-poesy, which last includes national traditions, religious legends, animal stories, folk songs, etc., of each nationality. Some of the material relating to popular songs and tales has already appeared in other collections; but that pertaining to customs and social observances is entirely new, and constitutes the chief value and interest of the work. Miss Garnett gives a very encouraging account of the Christian women of Turkey, and the advance which they have recently made in education; if the next volume shows any similar advance on the part of the Semitic and Moslem women, we need not despair of the future of the country, which meanwhile presents a most attractive field for missionary labor.

Notes on Military Hygiene, for Officers of the Line. A syllabus of lectures at the U. S. Infantry and Cavalry School. By Alfred A. Woodhull, Major Medical Dept., Bt. Lt.-Col. U. S. Army. John Wiley & Sons. 1890. Pp. 150.

MAJOR WOODHULL has made an admirably clear and succinct presentation of the principal hygienic rules applicable to soldiers gathered in barracks and encampments. He has aimed at providing a manual for the pocket, which every line officer may carry, and which shall give brief but definite instruction in everything that pertains to the health of the men and the sanitary condition of quarters. Among other things there are chapters on clothing, food, habitations, sewage, water, etc., all so full of valuable suggestions that not only every army officer, but every officer of a hospital, a school, an asylum, and even every head of a family, may greatly profit by familiarity with this little book.

Modern Ghosts. Harper & Bros. 1890.

THIS collection of gruesome tales, translated from Maupassant, Alarcón, Kielland, Kompert, Becquer, and Magherini-Graziani, is introduced by Mr. George William Curtis in an agreeable preface; but after these preliminary pages the way of the reader is through horrors, the charnel-house, and that panic of the mind which is always fascinating in fiction, however fearful in reality. The first tale, by Maupassant, is the most powerful and the most original in its motive, though the terrors which it holds in suggestion are not so well worked out as those which it embodies physically. The second tale, by the same author, is more artistic, and has one scene of the true weird in it, while the analysis of the state of the mind in the actor, and the study of the river as a source of vague fear, are in the best style of Maupassant's minute and slowly elaborated art. A third story of a tall woman blends the ghastly and grotesque with success, and secures the effect aimed at. Of the remaining tales none reach a very high excellence. In all the series one cannot but observe the peculiar opposition of the Latin feeling for the horrible to the English feeling. The stories are more in earnest than our own race-genius tolerates. There is lacking that flash of humor which relieves the terrible and transforms it into a less shocking and intolerable aspect. The purely physical element is absorbing in it; and although the mind is struck with fear, it remains principally a bodily fear. Consequently, one must acknowledge that these tales are foreign in the sense that they do not appeal to us with their full native force; they are exotic; and though they satisfy the universal crude craving for the horrible, they do not seem sufficiently within the pale of nature to have our credit, and be accepted temporarily by the imagination. They are rather to be read as examples of foreign art.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. Outings at Odd Times. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Blake, H. G. O. Thoreau's Thoughts: Selections. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Gaspé, P. A. de. The Canadians of Old. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Harte, Bret. A Ward of the Golden Gate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Holmes, O. W. Over the Teacups. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Jephson, A. J. Emin Pasha and the Rebellion at the Equator. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3.75.
Klauser, J. The Septonate, and the Centralization of the Tonal System. Milwaukee: William Rohlfing & Sons.
McCann, J. E. Songs from an Attic. Brentano's. $1.50.
Perry, Nora. After the Ball, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Petit, Rev. J. L. Architectural Studies in France. New ed. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Reading, J. H. The Ogowe Band: A Narrative of African Travel. Philadelphia: Reading & Co.
Reeves, A. M. The Finding of Wineland the Good: History of the Icelandic Discovery of America. London: H. Frowde; New York: Macmillan. $11.
Richards, Laura E. Captain January. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. Princess Sunshine. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Riggs, J. D. S. In Latinum. Chicago: Albert & Scott. 50 cents.
Roberts, M. In Low Relief. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Roberts, S. In and Out of Book and Journal. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Robinson, W. C. The Law of Patents. 3 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
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By order of H. L. D. Lewis, Administrator of the Estate of Mrs. Lorenzo Lewis, Dec'd. To be sold Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, Dec. 10, 11, and 12, commencing at 3 o'clock each evening, at the Auction Rooms of Thos. Birch's Sons, 1110 Chestnut St., Phila., Pa.

This is the most important sale of the belongings of Gen. Geo. Washington ever held in this country, and we may say the last that will ever be held, as it includes all the relics kept by the Family, the balance having been sold to the Mount Vernon Society some years ago. In this collection will be found Washington's Personal Account-Books wherein he has enumerated with his own hands the various items of money expended from time to time, and for what purpose. His Original Autographic Survey-Books, his Original Ledger of Mount Vernon Distillery and Fishery, with his vouchers throughout of his Secretary's (Tobias Lear) correctness of the accounts.

The collection of documents and letters is extraordinary as well as of the greatest interest, containing his Autograph List of Slaves, on eight folio sheets; his List of United States Loan certificates; his Prophetic Letter in relation to the Abolition of Slavery; his letter to Lawrence Lewis mentioning what he has left him in his will, and numerous Autograph Letters, Deeds, Releases, Surveys, Plans of Towns, Estimates, and in fact all his private papers which were kept by his executors in settling his estate, together with their original Letters Testamentary. The Personal Belongings consist of his Punch Bowl of Rose China and Silver Ladle; his Secretary Candlesticks, which shed the light to write his letters; his Mantel Clock, Music Books (the score of which he drew and words in his handwriting); about seventy five pieces of elegant Cut Glass, China Cups and Saucers; Indian Pipe presented to him by Indian Chiefs; his Books, and a great variety of other articles.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1890.

The Week.

THE currency scheme (known as the "interconvertible bond") which, it is said, Secretary Windom is considering as a possible feature of his forthcoming report, has been mooted several times since the close of the war. It proposes that the Government shall make a new issue of bonds bearing a very low rate of interest, say 2 per cent., and sell these to the public at par, and that whenever thereafter the depositors shall want to have their money back, they can get it by simply passing the bonds back to the Treasury—the interest to stop when the reëxchange is made, and the process to be repeated *ad libitum*. The principal objection to the plan is, that it creates a permanent national debt, and to some extent engages the Government to find profitable employment for the money of the people. It is true that 2 per cent. is a very low rate of interest, but it is also true that six or seven hundred millions is now invested in Government bonds at about 2½ per cent., counting the premium that the bonds command in the market. This 2½ per cent. is the rate that investors are willing to accept when they get a satisfactory security running not more than seventeen years. For a bond running indefinitely, 2 per cent. would be an attractive investment. It would absorb an immense sum of money, and the question would immediately arise what to do with it to make it earn its own interest If it is locked up in the Treasury, it produces contraction at once—that is, it produces the very condition which the interconvertible bond was intended to prevent or allay. But the Government has no use for money except to pay its own current obligations and its funded debt as the latter matures. It cannot buy railroad securities with the proceeds, nor can it invest in bond and mortgage, as savings banks do. It can do nothing but keep the money till the bondholders call for it. For these reasons, which every banker and business man will appreciate, we think that the interconvertible-bond scheme will prove a failure, whether recommended by Secretary Windom or not.

Mr. W. D. Foulke, Chairman of the Civil-Service Reform League's Executive Committee, has addressed a letter to Robert P. Porter, Superintendent of the Census, which puts that functionary in a very unpleasant light. Mr. Porter had taken the high ground that a national census could not possibly be partisan, but that a police census taken in New York might very easily be such, and probably was such. Mr. Foulke very pertinently asks why a national census may not be partisan when its chief officer refused to have the census-takers chosen by the civil-service rules, but insisted that they should be selected by partisan "boss" methods. The heinousness of this method of taking a national census was made all the more glaring by the fact that the Republican national platform promised an extension of the civil-service rules to all branches of the public service where it was applicable. To no branch of the service could it be more applicable than to the national census, where accuracy is the first requisite. No census can be of any value unless it commands public confidence. It may serve for the mere purpose of apportioning members of Congress, but that is a small part of the information that we look for in such a work. We expect to find in it statistics of every description, which shall serve for business men to make calculations upon, for Congressmen and public speakers and journalists to appeal to, and for historians and scientists to build upon. With subordinates of the best training and of proved fitness, errors will creep into such a work, but they will be small and will not impair confidence in the work as a whole.

What sort of riff-raff was gathered up by Porter for this immense and costly work may be learned by one example. There is no reason to suppose that the census-takers in Indiana were worse than those in the country generally, since they were all chosen by the same method, the Republican Congressmen being allowed to make patronage and loot of the whole body. The *Civil-Service Chronicle* and the *Journal* of Indianapolis gave us some account of these interesting people last June. The Supervisor of the Census for Indiana selected Mr. Merrill Moores, an active politician and a member of the Republican City Committee, to take charge of the work in Indianapolis. Mr. Moores naturally gave the jobs to the party workers. The work was so shockingly done that Mr. Moores himself cried out against it, and declared that some of his appointees had turned out miserable failures. Out of forty compositors working in the *Journal* office twenty were missed by the census-takers. "The trouble," said the *Journal*, "grows out of the inexperience of enumerators and slipshod, unfaithful performance of duty on their part." Exactly so. You choose a parcel of ward "heelers" to do a work requiring education, character, and experience, and then complain of them for slipshod, unfaithful performance of duty.

The official figures of the Pennsylvania election afford an interesting study. They show that Pattison had a clear majority of 222 over all candidates, and a plurality of 16,554 over Delamater. At the same time, Pattison's total vote was about 3,000 smaller than that of the Republican candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, and over 4,000 smaller than that for the Republican candidate for Secretary of Internal Affairs. While the Republican vote this year is 78,000 smaller than that cast for Harrison in 1888, it is 35,000 larger than that cast at the last election for Governor, in 1886. In fact, it is the largest vote which the party has ever cast for a candidate for Governor. The vote for Pattison is the largest vote ever cast for a Democratic candidate for either Governor or President, being 18,000 larger than the vote cast for Cleveland in 1888, and 94,000 larger than that cast for the Democratic candidate for Governor in 1886. The total vote cast for all candidates, including Prohibition and Labor, is 69,000 less than that cast for all candidates in the last Presidential election, and nearly 109,000 greater than that cast in the last election for Governor. Delamater ran about 20,000 votes behind the other Republican candidates.

While it is very plain that nearly all the sworn statements of expenditures during the campaign, which the candidates at the last election in this State are filing under the Corrupt Practices Law, are more or less direct violations of the spirit of the law, they are still not entirely valueless. They show several things very clearly, one of which is that the practice of assessing candidates is pretty general by both parties throughout the State. Moreover, all the candidates are minute and exact in giving the sums spent for postage, railway fares, and the like, but in every instance in which a large sum has been disbursed, the amount is put down as a lump payment to a campaign committee or organization. One candidate for the Assembly, Mr. Mase of Dutchess County, declares that he paid $819.15 in getting elected. As the salary of the office is only $1,500, it is difficult to see how Mr. Mase is going to be able to pass the winter at Albany without being out of pocket. His case is typical of many others, for one of the most striking things brought out by these statements is the proof they furnish of the widespread craze for office at any price.

An amusing difficulty has been created by the sworn return of his expenditures filed by the Democratic candidate for Congress in the Thirty-third District, Mr. Bunting. He declared that he had paid $750 to the Democratic County Committee. The Chairman and Treasurer of the Committee says he never received more than $500. Mr. Bunting says he paid the other $250 to the Secretary of the Committee, Mr. Weatherwax. The latter says he did receive some money from Mr. Bunting, declines to remember the precise amount, and asserts that he paid it over to the Treasurer of the Committee, who declares that he never received it. The matter is likely to get into the courts for settlement unless somebody's memory is made more definite by some means or other. We should advise Mr. Bunting to keep close upon the track of Mr. Weatherwax, until he finds out precisely where that $250 went to when it was supposed to be in transit from the hands of the Secretary to those of the Chairman and Treasurer. This business

of accounting strictly for campaign funds is a new one among campaign workers, and it is not surprising that some of them should get into complicated states of mind in trying to execute it.

Every additional statement of election expenditures which is filed by a Tammany candidate confirms the fact, already sufficiently disclosed, that the "assessment" evil flourishes with slight check under Gov. Hill's Corrupt Practices Act. The statements filed on Thursday of last week by Mayor Grant, John J. Gorman, Tammany candidate for Sheriff, and James M. Fitzsimons, Tammany candidate for City Court Judge, show that each of them paid an assessment of $4,000 to Tammany Hall as the price of his nomination. The Mayor rather ingeniously disguises the payment in his case by dividing up the amount into items for printing and circulating of "pasters" and documents, but the others reveal the payment openly. The statement of Col. Fellows confirms the previous view that the regular assessment for a Tammany Congressional nomination was about $1,000. The Colonel gave $150 of his amount to the Voorhis Democracy, thus disclosing the proportionate size of the return which Tammany made to that speculative organization for its "endorsement" of the Tammany ticket. The assessment on candidates for the Assembly seems to have ranged from $150 to $500, and on candidates for Aldermen from $100 to $200, according to the ability of the victims to pay.

An estimated table of Tammany's total receipts through "assessments" upon candidates, assuming that there has been no falsehood or evasion in the sworn statements, shows the following results:

Mayor	$4,000
District Attorney	4,000
Sheriff	4,000
County Clerk	5,000
Comptroller	2,500
President of the Board of Aldermen	2,000
Superior Court Judge	10,000
City Court Judge, two candidates	8,000
Coroner (not yet filed)	2,000
Civil Justices, two candidates	4,000
Congressmen, six candidates	6,000
Assemblymen, twenty-four candidates	7,500
Aldermen, twenty-four candidates	3,500
Total	$62,500

The price which Judge McAdam paid for the Superior Court nomination emphasizes the well-known fact that Tammany has for years obtained a higher price for its judicial nominations than for almost any other within its control. The long term and the high salary which pertain to the more important judgeships are considered sufficient reason for this. It has happened frequently in the past that as much as $25,000 has been paid for a Superior or a Supreme Court nomination. In fact, the "assessment" evil has always assumed its most extreme as well as most dangerous form in reference to judicial nominations. Nothing but explicit legal prohibition either to levy or pay any price for the nomination will suffice to break up the practice.

The banquet to ex-Senator Thurman of Ohio at Columbus last Thursday, on the occasion of his seventy-seventh birthday, was a merited tribute to a man who is highly honored throughout the country, as well as in the State where he has spent nearly his whole life. It was essentially a tribute to robust integrity, for that has been the distinguishing characteristic of the man, and the general recognition by the nation of his high qualities evoked by the occasion should go far towards compensating him for the ingratitude which the Democratic Machine in Ohio has more than once shown toward him of late years when it had a Senatorship to dispose of. It was natural and proper that the honors of the evening should be shared by ex-President Cleveland, who embodies the same sturdy qualities which characterize Mr. Thurman. It was inevitable that the speeches should take their tone from the recent great victory of the principle for which Cleveland and Thurman stood two years ago; and the ex-President's remarks upon the new Republican doctrine regarding "cheapness" illustrate afresh the absurdity of the position which the party has assumed.

The following interesting despatch comes from Kansas City:

"J. A. McKay, the Farmers' Alliance candidate who was elected Judge of the judicial district composed of Barber and Comanche Counties, Kansas, never studied law, never was admitted to the bar, and never was in a court in any official capacity. His Alliance will send him to Ann Arbor to study law for sixty days and prepare himself for the bench."

But how can his Alliance do this for him without expelling him after his studies are completed? Under its rules and regulations lawyers are excluded from membership because of their unfitness to promote the public welfare. Resolutions have also been adopted repeatedly by the Alliance declaring that farmers alone should be elected to fill judicial positions. Sixty days' study of law, therefore, while it might not make a farmer enough of a lawyer to unfit him, from the Alliance point of view, for the bench, would certainly unfit him for a member of the Alliance. Why "poison" his mind with sixty days' study of what is sure to be bad for him as a promoter of public interests? If precedent is wanted for putting Mr. McKay upon the bench in the present condition of his legal knowledge, it can be found in this city. We have eight or ten police justices on the bench here, each drawing a salary of $8,000, who were in that condition when they were put there, and have remained in substantially the same condition ever since.

It is not the tariff issue alone on which prominent Republican newspapers at the West insist that their party must back down. The Force Bill also is recognized as a case of kicking against the pricks. "The McKinley Bill," says the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, "has cost us a majority in Congress. The Lodge Elections Bill, if its passage is insisted upon, is more than likely to cost us the Presidency." Referring to a report from Washington that it would not be surprising if the bill should be quietly abandoned, the Omaha (Neb.) *Bee* says: "Undoubtedly that course would be heartily approved by a very large majority of the Republican party. Whatever may be said in defence of legislation of this kind as an act of justice to a large body of the people who are deprived of the franchise, and therefore are not properly represented in Congress, or indeed are not represented at all, the fact must be owned that the masses of the Republican party do not believe such legislation to be expedient, while many thousands of them hold the opinion that it would fail of its purpose. Under existing circumstances it is obviously the part of wisdom to allow the Election Bill to quietly die."

The attempt to call in question the validity of the McKinley tariff because of the omission of a paragraph in the engrossed copy of the bill submitted to the President for his signature, has attracted some attention abroad, where the McKinley Bill is regarded with greater interest than has perhaps ever before been bestowed on any enactment of Congress. The Berlin *Nation* recalls a similar accident in the passage of a military penal code for the German Empire in 1872, but there is really a vast difference between the two cases. In the German case there was also, it is true, an unintentional dropping of a clause from the bill as first drafted and as intended to be submitted to a vote; but the omission had occurred before the bill had gone to a second reading. The law was passed by the Reichstag, approved by the Emperor, and officially published in its erroneous form. The error was then discovered and was corrected in a characteristic manner. The Government announced in its official journal, in the following year (1873), that *by a misprint* a clause had been omitted from the law, which should read as follows—giving the version which the Government assumed that the Reichstag had meant to pass. So arbitrary a proceeding would never be tolerated in any country which possessed a valid tradition of constitutional or parliamentary government. The only proper way of correcting the error would have been for the Legislature of the Empire to pass a supplementary bill, or an amendment to the code, setting forth the correct tenor of the law. By the course actually pursued, the law officers of the Crown took it upon themselves, by a simple official rescript, to usurp legislative functions. One can imagine how promptly all parties in the British Parliament would lay aside their differences in a unanimous rebuke of any attempt to set so dangerous a precedent. So great, however, is the German docility, and so accustomed are the German people to acts of this kind, that they accept them as a matter of course. In the present instance it would seem that a law has been upon the statute-book for eighteen years without ever having been legally enacted by any competent authority.

The excitement in Europe over Dr. Koch's

discovery continues to increase, which is not surprising, considering that it promises the extinction, or at least great diminution, of one of the scourges of the human race. Medicine has for the last twenty years lagged behind surgery, and threatened the physician proper with the loss of a portion at least of his old pre-eminence, in the popular mind, over the surgeon. Bacteriology, however, seems now to promise a great renewal of his ancient fame, and to raise the bottle once more high above the knife. For even if the Koch discovery be only half as successful as it now promises to be, it opens up a field of possible remedy for some of the more serious human ills the importance of which it would be difficult to exaggerate. The bacillus as a cause of disease has been found out beyond question, and Dr. Koch's even partial success in destroying it in the case of consumption will of course infuse fresh energy and activity into the search for the means of attacking it in cancer and many other maladies. So that we may fairly expect the next ten years to be the most fruitful in the annals of medicine.

The European papers are indulging in much appropriate lamentation over the extinction, in the male line at least, of the glorious House of Orange—the House which produced William the Silent, and Maurice of Nassau, and William III. of England, and which won the Dutch Republic, foot by foot, both from the ocean and the tyranny of Spain. It has at last come to an end in the person of the present King, who has been pronounced hopelessly insane, and has consequently been deposed, his place being taken by a Council of Regency pending the majority of his daughter. No royal house in Europe—in fact, no existing European family—has had such claims on popular respect. It is the only one which, from its first appearance on the scene, has been associated with the cause of civil and religious liberty, and has defended it through good and evil fortune, in peace and war. It has given shelter and security to many of the greatest masters of modern thought—to Descartes, to Spinoza, to Jurieu, to Arnauld, to Bayle, to the French Jansenists and Huguenots, as well as to the English Puritans. It delivered England from the Stuart tyranny and confusion and discredit, and made a bulwark for the Protestant cause when Protestantism was the sole refuge of free thought and free speech in the world. To have it end in a lunatic is a melancholy commentary on the evanescence of all human greatness.

The usual parliamentary struggle in Denmark has begun with the presentation before the lower house of the budget for 1891 1892. The statement of the Minister of Finance estimates the income for that period at 54,889,874 kr. (say $15,100,000), and the expenditures at 59,166,508 kr. (say $16,300,000), leaving a deficiency of over a million dollars. Among the proposed expenditures are 1,000,000 kr. for the civil list, and 223,240 kr. for the appanages of the royal house. The interest on the public debt will amount to 6,866,280 kr.; 10,683 413 kr. is requested for the army, and 6,794,508 kr. for the navy. It is interesting to note that, while the railroads in charge of the State show a profit of over two million kroner, the telegraph system is run at an annual loss of over a quarter of a million. The items in the budget that will attract most attention and afford material for the hottest debate are those connected with the army and navy. In addition to the amounts already mentioned, 3,598,800 kr. is requested for fortifications around Copenhagen and for certain special needs of the army, and 500,000 kr. for the construction of new war-ships. The request for 400,000 kr. for an art museum in Copenhagen, to contain the collection of statuary recently presented by the brewer Jacobsen, will also doubtless meet with fierce opposition on the part of the Radical majority in the lower house.

The chief bone of contention between the two parties is, however, the question of the defences of Copenhagen and the increase of the army and navy. The Conservatives, bearing in mind Nelson's bombardment of 1807, insist upon the necessity of providing against a similar attack on the part of Germany, while the Radicals claim with equal obstinacy that Denmark's only safety lies in a policy of unarmed neutrality. In the meantime the royal will is executed by means of the provisional law, against which the protests of the majority are of no avail. How this strange conflict will terminate it is impossible to foresee. That it cannot last for ever is self-evident, and before many years some compromise will undoubtedly be made. The influence of Berg, the early leader of the Left, is undoubtedly on the wane, and his party are beginning to doubt the wisdom of Brand's motto in Ibsen's drama of that name, "All or nothing." The Ministry, too, have for several years shown a willingness to meet their opponents half way. Under a less popular king and a less honest and capable ministry, the people would long since have asserted their opinions by force of arms; but of such violent measures there seems at present to be no fear.

Parnell's political career may possibly be closed by the verdict of the jury in the O'Shea case. This catastrophe has long been impending. His prolonged and mysterious absences from London during the Parliamentary session have been a source of great anxiety both to his Irish followers and his English allies during the last two or three years. They have never felt certain that there might not come any day out of these dark places some damaging explosion. The anxiety would probably have been greater but for his peculiarities of temperament, particularly his great reticence, not to say secretiveness, and his general disposition to solitude and isolation. It is a little difficult, for this reason, to foresee how he will take this final blow. His leadership only covers the Irish party in the House. The English and Scotch have neither followed nor consulted him, but they will now find it difficult or impossible to act with him or stand up for him, even if the Irish are willing to continue to serve under him. But it is just possible the Irish may be willing to serve under him as a sort of defiance to English public opinion. They will not feel as much responsibility for his private morals as if he were a Catholic, and they may resent English indignation over his fall as a piece of hypocrisy. For the truth is that the English public, of the upper class at least, only resents these lapses from virtue on the part of a public man when they are found out by the complaint of the injured husband. They have condoned, and are now condoning, far longer and more persistent and more conspicuous wrongdoing than Parnell's, of a similar character, on the part of a prominent politician; but then it has not been dragged to light in a divorce court. It must be admitted, too, that the rule on which they act, that no public man shall be damaged by charges of this kind unless they are proved in court, has the merit of great convenience and decency as well as of fair play. It saves them from being deluged with filthy scandal during their electoral contests, besides saving innocent men from having their private lives laid bare every time they seek a seat in Parliament. But the Irish, who are very indifferent just now to the *convenances* of English political life, may refuse to acquiesce in this arrangement, and may assume a defensive-offensive policy in Parnell's behalf.

That Parnell's downfall will have much if any effect on the political situation is very unlikely. The "Irish question" is too old and well established to be dependent either for its continuance or seriousness on any politician's life or character. It has survived a great many leaders, and will doubtless survive Parnell. The Irish as a people have earned the appellation which a distinguished historian has bestowed on them of being "the most persistent of races." That is, they, like the French, display, as a community, qualities which their character as individuals does not lead one to expect. A score of things have occurred in the ups and downs of Irish agitation during the past century to lead the English public to believe that the eternal Irish bother was at last over, but the turmoil has always begun again, the Irish demand, after each collapse, rising higher than before, and the difficulties of the situation becoming greater. Dillon is very likely to take Parnell's place, in case the latter is deposed. He will not impress the British public as much as Parnell has done, but he will do, for the eighty-six votes will follow him as steadily as they followed Parnell, and it is these votes, and not Parnell, which make the trouble. There are among them, too, Mr. Morley said recently—and he appealed to all who had served with them in committees to corroborate his statement—at least six who in quickness of perception, in readiness in debate, and in capacity for business are the equals of every one in the House except Mr. Gladstone.

THE ORIGIN OF THE TROUBLE.

THE regularity with which Lombard Street goes into wild foreign speculations and loses its money is one of the striking phenomena of British history. Some people are still living to whom the present difficulties in London will recall the crisis of 1825. "All the gambling propensities of human nature," said the 'Annual Register' of the period, "were constantly solicited into action, and crowds of individuals of every description, the credulous and the suspicious, the crafty and the bold, the raw and the experienced, the intelligent and the ignorant, princes, nobles, politicians, patriots, lawyers, physicians, divines, philosophers, poets, intermingled with women of all ranks and degrees, spinsters, wives, and widows, hastened to venture some portion of their property in schemes of which scarcely anything was known except the name." The speculations of that period began with Mexican and South American mines, but they soon ran into the wider field of Government loans. "No sooner," says Professor Leone Levi, in his 'History of British Commerce,' "was it understood that the State of Peru had consented to borrow, than the utmost anxiety prevailed to lend. The contractors, with scrip in hand, had difficulty in checking the eagerness of a crowd of applicants. Portuguese and Mexican, Greek and Brazilian, Peruvian and Buenos Ayres loans were in equal favor, purchasers little knowing and caring less about the financial or economic condition of the States to whom such money was lent. The loans contracted between 1821 and 1825 amounted in all to £48,000,000."

This is a very apt description of what has been repeated half-a-dozen times since, and is especially descriptive of what has been going on during the past three or four years, not only in England, but on the Continent as well. The London *Statist* has kept close watch of the Argentine speculations, and has repeatedly raised the cry of warning, and has as often been censured by the great houses that were promoting them. The crisis which the *Statist* foreshadowed has come, but, fortunately, means have been found to save the great house of Baring, the principal offender, from suspension. Probably the steps taken for this purpose are sufficient to include all the other derelicts, for it would be idle and useless to stop the crevasse at one place only. Undoubtedly the $55,000,000 clubbed together will take care of everything. Undoubtedly it was necessary that the house of Baring should be saved, lest, as in the case of Overend, Gurney & Co. in 1866, the fall of one mammoth institution should carry down a multitude of others.

The South American speculations which have come to such a disastrous close have consisted chiefly of loans to governments, provinces, and cities, for every conceivable purpose, for railways, harbors, street paving, public buildings, school-houses, markets, tenement-houses, bridges, theatres, hospitals, boulevards, public squares, and drainage, besidesbanking and farm mortgages. They began as long ago as 1881. Prior to that time the Argentine Government proper had been a moderate borrower. It negotiated loans through the Barings to the net amount (*i. e.*, exclusive of conversions) of £19,169,000 between the years 1866 and 1889, besides a net amount of £7,455,000 through other houses, English and continental. In addition the Government had guaranteed the interest on railway capital to the amount of £1,382,390 per annum. The interest on the national debt proper was at the average rate of 4¾ per cent.

In addition to these there were loans to the separate provinces amounting in the aggregate to £20,148,836, all negotiated since 1882, all bearing interest at 6 per cent., and municipal loans to the amount of £18,201,056, all negotiated within the past three years and bearing interest at the average rate of 5½ per cent. Adding the capital sum of the railway loans to the Government, provincial, and municipal loans, the *Statist* foots up £100,000,000 of foreign borrowings by the Argentines, nearly all since 1882. But that is not the end. There is a mass of "insecurities," issued by Argentine companies at home, estimated by the Buenos Ayres *Standard* at $600,000,000 silver, plus $500,000,000 of land mortgage bonds, guaranteed by the Government, known as Cedulas. All this mountain of debt rested on a population of only four millions, and not the very best kind of population, although remarkably puffed up with a sense of their own importance, as people are apt to be when they have a rage for internal improvements which they are gratifying with the money of foreigners. The situation is very like that of our own Western States in 1837.

Of course such a situation could not last. Interest could not be paid except by further borrowing, and there must come an end to borrowing some time. Last spring we began to hear of negotiations for a fresh loan of ten millions sterling. The great houses, and especially the Barings, were eager to make this loan, provided the money should be left in London to pay the interest on past borrowings. But this did not suit the Argentines. They wanted the money "to go on with," but were told flatly that they could not have it. Then they talked about leaving half of it in London and taking the other half to go on with. While this sort of chaffering was in progress, the revolution in Buenos Ayres broke out, and it became pretty generally known that the head of the Government was a corrupt rascal, and that the local banks were rotten. Argentine securities fell on the London Stock Exchange, but not so much as might have been expected. The great houses could not afford to see a heavy decline. They were obliged to sustain Argentines, and to do so they had to sell Americans. This was in the month of August. The pressure on our market soon became serious. The *Statist* of October 25 says that this selling of Americans in anticipation of the Argentine crisis began in June, that "it caused a persistent fall, and that every fall, by augmenting differences and wiping out margins, compelled fresh sales."

In September, President Celman having resigned, the new Government was authorized to add a new issue of $60,000,000 of irredeemable paper to the existing stock of $260,000,000, although the premium on gold was 190 per cent. It became more and more apparent that if a new gold loan were made for any purpose whatever, the great houses would have to furnish the money themselves, since the public would not buy a share or a bond. On the contrary, the shopkeepers, the clerks, the country parsons, the widows, and the small speculators were selling at every favorable opportunity. As security for a new loan of $20,000,000 gold the Government offered to turn over the Andes Railway and its own claim on the Buenos Ayres Waterworks. Simultaneously the Government assumed the debts of the provinces and took over the property represented by the debts; but as the Government could not pay its own debts, this confession that the provinces also were bankrupt did not help matters. The situation became so strained in October that rumors began to circulate on the Continent that the Barings were in difficulties. These rumors were published in a Paris newspaper, and although the publication was ascribed to blackmail, it nevertheless obtained a certain amount of credence even in London, where the house of Baring has been a synonym for stability for more than a century. About ten days ago it was reported by cable that a large sum in gold had been taken in London for export to South America, and that the Bank of England had raised the rate of discount to 6 per cent. It is doubtful whether any gold was really sent to South America, for the cable now tells us that Dr. Plaza, the Argentine expert, who is now in London, is treating with the Barings and other firms regarding immense operations, involving a loan of £4,000,000, besides the settlement of the national, provincial, and Cedula loans, but that he has not yet formulated proposals acceptable to the financiers. This means that the great houses are still hovering about the corpse of Argentine credit, but are unwilling even yet to look facts in the face and to acknowledge that it is a corpse. The true cause of the crisis on both sides of the Atlantic is there.

THE REPUBLICANS AND SCIENCE.

WHEN the Republican party was founded thirty-five years ago, it either then, or very soon after, comprised the great bulk of the intelligent and educated men in the Northern States. It was not very long before it absorbed most of the teachers, the professors, the ministers, the literary and scientific men in all parts of the North. It became par excellence the enlightened party—the party which had the mind of the country at its back, and from which all forms of mental activity were surest of encouragement and protection. The way in which, as soon as it became simply a tariff party, it hastened to lay aside this distinction and sacrifice all the higher civilizing agencies to money-

making for manufacturers, is one of the most interesting episodes in its history.

We cannot in an article like this follow step by step its conversion into an enemy of nearly all the instruments of knowledge and scientific progress. Suffice it to say that, in its rage for useless money, it taxed books, and pictures, and scientific instruments, in fact nearly every leading agency of intellectual advance besides steadily refusing to give foreign authors the benefit of copyright on their books, and to make any effort to secure for American authors similar protection abroad. An assembly of Gauchos from the South American pampas could not well have been more indifferent to or more contemptuous towards the claims of science and literature and art to recognition or encouragement than the Republican majorities in both houses for the last twenty years. Within that period experts in nearly every department of human knowledge have become a butt for the ridicule of Republican politicians, under the general name of "bookmen" or "littery fellers"; and scorn for their opinions has, during nearly the whole of that period, been one of the notes of party soundness.

In the McKinley Bill this scorn has found remarkable expression. The bill may be considered as the dying declaration of the party touching its attitude towards civilization, and as such its sincerity cannot be questioned. The branch of medical science known as "bacteriology"—that is, the study of the minute organisms to whose agency many of the worst diseases which afflict the human race are now known to be due—has during the past twenty years assumed immense importance, culminating in the discovery of Professor Koch which is now making so much sensation. The result of this of course has been to raise the microscope from the rank of a toy into the most valuable and important—we do not think this is an exaggeration—of all medical instruments. It occupies the highest place in pathological study and in the diagnosis of the most serious diseases. One has only to ask the first doctor one meets about its uses, to conclude that there is no product of human ingenuity more important to human welfare, that no civilized government could do too much to encourage the multiplication of microscopes and diffuse their use, for through their agency the humblest worker in the remotest village may light on some fact or indication of the utmost value to the scientific explorers of the highest rank. Well, this precious instrument the Republican party has for years been taxing *45 per cent.* ad valorem—that is, every American who has bought a microscope for the past twenty years has had to pay nearly one-half more for it than it would have cost him without the interference of the Government.

This was bad enough, but when McKinley came to look over the tariff this year, after the great importance of the microscope to humanity had been fully demonstrated, he determined to increase this tax by raising it to *60 per cent.*, so that a microscope which can be had in Germany for $94 would now cost here $150.40. This increase was made, too, in the teeth of a touching appeal read to the House by Mr. Fitch of New York, from Dr. Northrup, the eminent pathologist to the New York Foundling Asylum. Dr. Northrup further added that, to procure an oil emersion lens costing in Germany $80, he had to pay here at the custom-house $112. We must extract textually what he said about another instrument necessary to microscopic investigation, called the microtome:

"Hermann Katsch of Berlin makes an instrument called microtome, for cutting infinitely thin sections of shavings from the surface of a piece of an organ of the body hardened in alcohol. Herr Katsch is the only man in the world who makes this particular variety of the instrument. To prepare a section thin enough for careful study under the high powers of the microscope, this mechanism is necessary. To get this microtome from the Custom-house, I had to wait two weeks and pay a duty of 40 per cent. on its factory price.

"The celebrated Dr. Koch of Berlin published a report of the Cholera Commission, conducted under the auspices of the Government. At most, twenty men in this country could require this work, and they must needs pay 25 per cent. duty to get it from the Custom-house after paying in publisher's price and freight. What use would this report be to these scientists? To aid them in maturing methods of recognizing the disease when it appeared on shipboard in our harbors; to devise means to suppress it; to protect the country.

"It was to the expert work of one such scientist that the city of New York must give its gratitude that a certain steamship just developing cholera among its steerage passengers was detained at Quarantine, and the city escaped overwhelming infection.

"For Koch's report he paid 25 per cent. duty and never received anything from the city or Government."

Not content with the attack on the microscope, McKinley increased the duty on mathematical glass instruments from 45 to 60 per cent. ad valorem. Everybody knows the importance of glass tubes in laboratory work; well, the brave McKinley increased the tax on them from 40 to 60 per cent. Every one knows the value of telescopes in astronomy and navigation. McKinley has increased the duty on them from 45 to 60 per cent. His keen protective eye also fell on "raddle," a substance used in polishing lenses for microscopes and telescopes, so he put the duty on that at $1.50 per ton. What rate per cent. this is we are unable at this moment to say, but nobody but an ignorant barbarian would have taxed it at all. Every one knows the value of spy-glasses on shipboard. McKinley has raised the tax on them from 45 to 60 per cent., and to prevent cheap navigation he has raised the tax on compasses from 35 to 45 per cent. Glass disks for optical instruments he has also raised from 45 to 60 per cent. He has done the same thing by glass tubes for thermometers. Lest the scholar should burn the midnight oil too freely, McKinley has raised the duty on glass lamp chimneys from 40 to 60 per cent., and on the shades from 45 to 60. To prevent cheap worship of God, he has raised the duty on stone altars from 20 to 40 per cent. On eye-glasses, in order to hit the student in his tenderest point, he has raised the tax from 45 to 60 per cent. On all lenses he has raised the tax from 45 to 60 per cent. On hydrometers and hygrometers, "as philosophical instruments"—mark the distinction—he has raised the tax from 35 to 45 per cent. On philosophical instruments of metal he has raised the tax from 35 to 45 per cent. Noting the use made of papier-maché skeletons in instruction in physiology, he has raised the tax on them from 30 to 35 per cent.

We might increase this list, but what would be the use? There is enough here to make any intelligent stranger ask whether it is possible that the men who did these things were really nineteenth-century Americans, or Gothic or Arab conquerors, playing tricks with a subject population whose civilization they despised and wished to hinder or destroy.

THE OFFICIAL EXPLANATION AT LAST.

AFTER an unusually long silence, Speaker Reed, who was the only person really competent to explain the recent disaster to the Republican party, has told to a Portland correspondent of the *Sun* exactly how the matter stands. When one reads the explanation, one is reminded once more of Columbus's egg. It is so simple that any one might have thought of it, and yet it remained a secret until the Speaker gave it out to the press. Here it is:

"You know that when we have a really big tidal wave on this earth, it is not one thing alone that brings it about. The sun and moon happen to be in just such a position in regard to the earth, and other conditions come in to help. In the same way this political tidal wave was caused by a peculiar conjunction of circumstances. For one thing, the Democrats began their campaign in the close districts on an average at least a month earlier than we did. Republican Congressmen had to stay in Washington until the last moment, and in such a campaign as this a month's start meant a great advantage to the other fellows. Then the course of many manufacturers was to the great disadvantage of the Republican party. After the Tariff Bill was once passed and they had obtained just what they needed and wanted at the hands of the majority in Congress, what did many of them do but turn around, and, for the sake of a little temporary advantage, help to set the people into a panic about the McKinley Bill. Again, in hundreds of cases the drummers were, intentionally or unintentionally, missionaries to preach Democratic doctrine. They went all over the country with their stories of advances in prices that were to be made next week or next month on account of the McKinley Bill. But I am inclined to think that the most important factor in the result of this election was the women of the country. It is the women who do the shopping, who keep the run of prices, who have the keenest scent for increased cost. They heard in every store the clerks behind the counters explain how this article or that could not be sold hereafter at the former price because of the McKinley Bill; they went home and told their husbands and fathers, and their stories had a tremendous effect at the ballot-box."

Now, what are all these admissions but admissions of the incompetency of Republican legislators, including Mr. Reed himself, who led the majority in the House and guaranteed the success of the McKinley Bill? In the first place, it must have been known to the Speaker, and to many if not most members of the majority, that the McKinley Bill would raise prices. In fact, it was a matter of common rumor in all the newspaper offices of the country that the raising of prices was the chief object of the bill. If it did not raise prices, how was it to benefit the manufacturers, and enable them to pay higher wages and keep out

foreign goods? There is no occult virtue in a tariff. Its mere existence on paper does not benefit the community. It has to be an *opus operans*, that is, a tariff that works by enabling good Americans who have things to sell to get more for them than they would get if there were no tariff.

In the second place, Mr. Reed's personal experience of manufacturers and dealers must surely have prepared him for their readiness to get a "temporary advantage" when they can—that is, to watch the market and put up prices the moment they think the market will bear the advance. He must have noticed this disposition even around his own home from his earliest boyhood. The only way to prevent this, and to give the better element in the storekeeper's character a chance to assert itself, would have been to insert in the bill a clause forbidding the prices of articles affected by it to be raised before a certain date. He ought not to have relied, as he has relied, on the better angels of the manufacturers' nature, to keep prices down till the Republican party was ready to have them go up. He ought to have helped to protect these men against their own weakness by positive statutory prohibition.

Thirdly, let us ask, in no carping or unkindly spirit, how was it that the Speaker, with his knowledge of the world, expected the drummers to stop "going round the country" and talking about the bill, or, as he expresses it with pardonable bitterness, "acting intentionally or unintentionally as missionaries of Democratic doctrine"? Drummers are proverbially a migratory and loquacious class. There is no corner of the country to which they do not penetrate, and they let their tongues rattle about everything they can think of and especially about prices. Was there a word said to them by the Speaker or any one else, impressing on them the duty of treating the effect of the McKinley Bill on prices as strictly confidential? Not one, as far as we know. This effect was the subject of prediction and denunciation in all the Democratic and Mugwump papers for six months before its passage. The Speaker must have known that the drummers would hear of it, and blab about it to their customers. Very few of them, indeed, confine their newspaper reading to the *Tribune*. They read all sorts of papers in their long journeys in the train, and are the last men in the world to be relied on to keep secret anything about prices which will help them to get orders at an advance. We do not defend their conduct towards the Republican party at this crisis. We simply say that it was folly to expect anything better from them.

Another class which has disappointed the Speaker is the women. It appears that he did not foresee, when he was pushing his bill, that the women would go shopping after its passage, and go home and tell their husbands and fathers that prices had gone up in consequence of the bill. Now, how, in the name of common sense, could he have expected anything else? Was there one word in the bill, was there one word uttered in debate or on the stump, even by Mr. Reed himself, warning the women to stop shopping, or not to chat with clerks in stores about prices, until after the election? Did any one warn them of the probable political effect of their telling their fathers and husbands and brothers of the increased cost of articles of household use? Mr. Reed knew that women, as well as drummers, were talkative. He knew that they, as a rule, did the household shopping. He knew that they lived in relations of close confidence with their fathers and husbands, and got from them nearly all the money they handled; and yet he made not the slightest provision, either in the bill or in his rules, for the mischief their gossip might work.

The sum and substance of his explanation is, that if the manufacturers had not taken a mean advantage of the bill to raise prices suddenly; if the drummers had not told storekeepers that prices were going to be higher in consequence of the bill; if the storekeepers had not told the women, and the women in turn had not told their husbands and fathers—then the Republican party would never have been defeated at the polls. Why not, however, produce the blanket explanation which will cover the whole ground, by saying that if the bill had never been concocted, or pressed with diabolical and yet crackbrained persistency and blindness, the party would still be in a majority? This would have also the merit of relieving the drummers and the women from their present heavy load of responsibility.

BALLOT-REFORM IN THE ELECTIONS.

In thirteen of the States which took part in the recent elections, ballot-reform laws were in force, in a few cases for the second time, and in the remainder for the first time. From all these comes the same report of satisfactory results. There are a few complaints about unnecessary complications in the details of the law in some States, and it is noteworthy that nearly all of these are in reference to laws which are defective applications of the Australian system. More complaints are heard, in fact, from the working of the New York and Connecticut laws than from all others combined, and these two contain provisions which are to be found in none of the others, and which were added to them to meet the objections of professional politicians who refused to accept the new system without them.

The States which voted under the new system for the first time in a general election were New York, New Jersey, Maryland, Indiana, Minnesota, Missouri, Wisconsin, Tennessee, and Washington. Those which used it for the second time in such an election were Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Montana. Ten of the thirteen laws provide for a single blanket ballot for each voter, upon which are printed the names of the candidates of all parties. Under one of these, that of Missouri, the voter indicates his choice by striking out the names of all candidates save those for whom he wishes to vote; under nine, those of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Tennessee, Indiana, Montana, Maryland, and Washington, he indicates the candidates of his choice by placing a mark after their names, or at the head of a group in cases where party grouping is allowed. The Indiana and Maryland laws provide a stamp for the purpose. The other laws simply provide pencils. Under the New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut laws each party is provided with a separate ballot. The New York law requires each of these ballots to be folded separately, and those not used to be deposited in a box provided for the purpose. The Connecticut and New Jersey laws require no accounting for unused ballots, and permit the distribution of official ballots outside the polling-places. The New York law is the only one of the thirteen which provides for the use of a general "paster" ballot, and which uses the stub or coupon attachment for the official ballots.

From no State are more enthusiastic reports of the successful working of the system received than from Indiana, which has one of the best and most thorough applications of the Australian method to be found in this country. The newspapers of all parties, with scarcely an exception, echo the verdict of the Indianapolis *Sentinel*, that the "election was altogether the quietest, honestest, and most satisfactory ever held in the State," that "the 'floaters' generally stayed at home," that "the 'trusted men with the necessary funds' cut no figure worth mentioning," and that the "law worked liked a charm and has ushered in a new and better era in the politics of Indiana." A system which can accomplish a reform like this in Indiana, whose elections have hitherto been the most corrupt in the Union, and which were made famous in the last Presidential election by the "blocks of five" exposure, needs no other test to have its efficacy established. Summing up the reports from Wisconsin and other Western States, which, like it, tried the new system for the first time, the Milwaukee *Journal* says: "The popular approval of the system wherever it has been tried shows that it is a valuable one, and one which will reduce to a minimum the abuses which have grown up on our political methods." From Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Montana, after a second trial of laws equally as thorough and excellent as these Western laws, come unanimous reports that the system is more heartily approved and more completely successful than on the first trial.

In every instance, under the blanket-ballot provision, the voter must use some intelligence in the exercise of the right of suffrage, must be able in some way to distinguish the candidates of his choice. He has succeeded in doing this so easily and satisfactorily in ten States that no serious complaint is heard. In Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Minnesota, Montana, Tennessee, Wisconsin, and Washington, the names of candidates are arranged in alphabetical order, and the voter must be able to read in order to mark his ballot; yet no complaint comes from those States. Even in cities like Boston, Providence, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Milwaukee, and Memphis, the system works smoothly and there is no complaint that

voters are disfranchised. There is provision made in nearly all these laws for aid to illiterates who take oath that they cannot read. Far less harm is shown to come from that provision than from the New York "paster" and separate party ballots.

The plain fact about the New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut laws is, that they were amended by the enemies of a secret and honest ballot for the express purpose of preventing such a ballot. Gov. Hill's contention has been that thousands of voters in our larger cities would be disfranchised under a law which required so much intelligence on the part of the voters as these ten successful laws mentioned above demand for their operation. He opposed the blanket ballot, even with the names of candidates arranged in party groups, and would only sign the Saxton bill after the "paster" and separate-ballot provisions had been substituted. All our troubles and annoyances on election day came from these provisions. They are certain also to be the basis upon which trickery and bribery at the polls will be attempted in future elections. Neither the New Jersey nor the Connecticut law can be said to belong to the Australian system. They simply provide for the furnishing of ballots at the public expense and for the isolation of the voter while preparing his ballot. They undoubtedly accomplish much good in securing more orderly elections, and in preventing bulldozing and espionage at the polls; but beyond that they do not count for much as reform measures. The Connecticut law is the poorer of the two, and it is mainly to its slipshod and inadequate provisions that the present post-election muddle in that State is due.

It is the opinion of careful observers of the working of the new laws that they were of perceptible assistance in securing the recent defeat of Republican Congressmen on the tariff issue. There were gains of Democratic Congressmen in every one of the thirteen States which have these laws, aggregating forty in all of them. If there had been such a law in Ohio, the manufacturers in McKinley's district who have been reducing the wages of such of their workmen as voted the Democratic ticket, would never have known whether they voted it or not. No such persecution is reported in any of the States with ballot-reform laws. It is significant that loud demands are heard in Ohio since election for the enactment of such a law there. Similar demands are heard also in Illinois, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Maine, Alabama, and in fact in nearly every part of the country in which the reform has yet to be adopted.

THE FUTURE OF FOOTBALL.

Football is obviously gaining in popularity, and bids fair soon to become an established national sport. A few years ago it was played only in two or three of the leading colleges; now it is established in all the colleges and in the preparatory schools. Moreover, it is getting a hold outside the college circles; athletic clubs in the cities have their elevens; and every year the game attracts a larger and larger audience from the miscellaneous public. The combination of discipline, individual skill, and brute strength which it calls for; the splendid fierceness of the game; the element of personal combat, which delights the savage instinct lingering in the breasts even of the most civilized among us—these qualities account for its growing popularity, and promise a vogue even wider than it now enjoys. There would be little rashness in predicting that within ten years we shall have in the great cities professional elevens, like the professional baseball nines, and that thousands will gather to shout themselves hoarse at the exploits of hired rushers and backs.

This prospect suggests some questions as to what will be the quality of the game when it is no longer exclusively in the hands of the gentleman amateur. It differs from sports like baseball and cricket in some important respects. In the first place, violations of the rules of the game are easy, and give distinct advantages to the side that practises them. Thus, if you violate the rules by running ahead of a comrade of yours who is carrying the ball, and harass the member of the opposing team who tries to tackle him, you help most effectively towards scoring. If a rusher "holds" his *vis-à-vis* in the rush line—*i. e.*, not merely blocks him by getting in his way, but grabs him and holds on—he enables his own half-back to get through so much more easily without being seized. This is "foul play," in the technical sense; and, unfortunately, there is also abundant room for foul play in the literal sense. If your opponent in the rush line is an effective player, it is a fine thing to disable him, by "winding" him, or gouging in the stomach, or strangling viciously when you tackle, or giving him a smart blow on the nose if you happen to know his nose is very sensitive (this illustration is from a notorious case). There is a constant suspicion by each party that the other side is trying to "lay off" its good players; sometimes the opposing rushers fall into regular fisticuffs, and in any game a brutal fellow has abundant opportunity to abuse its possibilities.

Further—and this is another distinguishing feature of the game—the foul plays, technical and literal, are very difficult to detect and prevent. When the ball is put in play, there is a confused mass of running, rushing, blocking players, with heads, arms, legs, heels intermingled; and it is impossible for any umpire to see more than a small part of what goes on. The unfair or brutal player has more than an even chance of escaping detection; and at worst, he will only be disqualified, and a fresh, unfatigued hand takes his place.

Given these peculiarities, and given also the extraordinary feeling which the college public, graduate and undergraduate, has about the success of the college teams, and it is easy to see why the game, even in the hands of the gentleman amateur, tends to degenerate into a competition of underhand play and of "slugging." Not infrequently it is tacitly understood that the referee is to close his eyes to fisticuffs, and to let the opposing rushers fight it out to their hearts' content. To such a pass had the sport come a few years ago that the Harvard Faculty prohibited its undergraduates from engaging in intercollegiate matches, and removed the prohibition only when certain changes were made in the rules with the design of removing the objectionable features. The most important of these changes was the addition of a second umpire or referee, whose special duty it is to watch the players; an acknowledgment of the absence of honor among gentlemen which gives the strongest evidence of the temptations to unfair play in the game. The immediate result was some improvement; but the improvement was not great, and promises not to be permanent. The spirit of the American youth, as of the American man, is to win, to "get there," by fair means or foul; and the lack of moral scruple which pervades the struggles of the business world meets with temptations equally irresistible in the miniature contests of the football field.

Transfer these conditions to contests between professional athletes, before the sort of public that now goes to the baseball games, and the development is not likely to be in the direction of moderation. There is so much of the savage left in the average citizen that nothing draws like a prize-fight; and if we permitted gladiatorial shows, they would be enormously profitable. If football reaches the stage in which baseball now is, it will be the slugging matches that draw, and the managers will respond to the demand. Possibly in the end its brutalizing effects will become such that, like the prize-fight, it will have to be prohibited by law. Meanwhile, the game grows apace; and the world is treated to the curious spectacle that the one absorbing question for the graduates and undergraduates of two great institutions of learning is whether eleven Yale boys can beat eleven Princeton boys at football on Thanksgiving day.

TARIFF PROBLEMS IN SPAIN.

The existing tariff laws of Spain date back in their main outlines to the revolution of 1868. Some advance out of the ancient fiscal barbarities had been made by amendments to the customs laws enacted in 1849, and other changes were proposed in a parliamentary report of 1855, and in an administrative report of 1865. A decree bearing date November 22, 1868, had put an end to the old differential duty on goods brought in foreign bottoms. But it was the triumph of the revolution that brought about sweeping tariff reforms in the revenue laws of 1869-70. The maximum duties had been at the rate of 50 per cent.; they were lowered to 30 per cent. More than that, the fifth article of the bill provided for a gradual reduction of even the latter rate, after periods of six years, until a rate of 15 per cent. should be reached. Finally, in 1883, came the so called law of raw materials, greatly lowering the duties on some forty classes of imports used in manufactures. With this step, the movement for free trade seems to have spent itself, though the negotiation of seven or eight

commercial treaties, under the same impulse, should also be reckoned in.

But the Conservatives were steadily opposed to carrying out the fifth article. They were in power when the date came for the first reduction to take effect, that is, 1875, and at once passed the law of June 17, of that year, suspending the application of the offensive article. To repeal it was their ultimate purpose, but the political whirligig brought in Sagasta again, under whose administration a bill was passed, July 6, 1882, repealing the suspension, and putting the first reduction into effect. By the terms of the same bill the second reduction was to be made in 1887, and the final one in 1892. But as the fatal date drew near, so much opposition was displayed to the enforcement of the law, the protectionist sentiment of the country having risen rapidly, that the Liberals themselves were forced to suspend the article in their turn, which they did by the law of August 5, 1886. At the same time the whole tariff question in all its bearings was referred to a Royal Commission, to be appointed before 1890, to take the entire matter into consideration.

This Commission was appointed by a royal decree, October 10, 1889, and was specifically charged with investigating the probable effect of the second reduction called for by the famous fifth article, the wisdom of renewing the commercial treaties which expire in 1892, and the question of commerce with the colonial possessions. Named before the fall of the Liberal Administration, this Commission naturally had a majority of sympathizers with the Liberal policy; yet the progress of its discussions shows that its recommendations are nevertheless to have a strong protectionist color. Even Señor Moret, who, as one of Sagasta's ministers, had advocated measures tending to greater freedom of trade, is found voting for the most extreme measures of protection. The Commission is in session as we write, but there can be no doubt that it will recommend to the Cortes the repeal of the fifth article, the denunciation of the commercial treaties, and the entire exclusion of any foreign flag from the commerce between the mother country and any of her colonial ports.

This last point, the commercial relations of Spain with her colonies, is one which has given no end of trouble. The good old way was to hit the colonists both going and coming by prohibiting them from sending their goods to Spain in foreign bottoms, on the ground that the trade was essentially the coasting trade, and yet compelling them to pay duties just the same. However, for a long time now the customs laws have made discrimination in favor of colonial imports. For example, sugars coming from the Antilles were dutiable, under the law of 1869, at only half the rate applicable to those coming from foreign countries. The persistent demands of the Cubans at last secured them even better treatment, a law of 1882 providing for gradual reductions on Cuban exports until all of them but tobacco should be admitted free in 1892; and the process being hastened in the matter of sugars by a law in 1884 exempting those from all duties. In respect to freedom of navigation, however, the colonists have not fared so well. At present, the trade between Spain and the colonies is effectively reserved to the Spanish flag by means of a differential duty laid upon goods brought in foreign bottoms. Under the law of 1882, by which all duties are to be abolished in 1892, the trade is to be regarded as coasting trade, and so exclusively to be carried on in Spanish ships. The Cuban member of the Royal Commission referred to made strenuous efforts to obtain a recommendation of free navigation, but his proposal was overwhelmingly voted down.

Our own concern with the attitude of the Spanish Government in regard to changes in its customs laws, has chiefly to do with our trade with Cuba. There is no doubt that Spain is ready to negotiate a treaty of commercial reciprocity with the United States. The personal organ of Premier Cánovas has recently so declared. The trouble is, as Mr. Blaine fully realizes, that the McKinley Bill, with its admission of sugar free, has pretty effectually kicked over the kettle of reciprocity fish. We have nothing to concede to Cuban products now, except in the case of tobacco, and there is no likelihood that a treaty based upon that article alone could get ratification in the Senate. There remains the wonderful McKinley scheme of reciprocity: President Harrison can threaten to tax Cuban sugar unless the Spanish tariff on flour and petroleum is lowered. It may be partly in prevision of this move that Cánovas is getting ready to raise the tariff on flour and our other agricultural exports. Certainly the Spanish Tariff Commission is recommending great advances in the rates on those articles. Then Mr. Blaine's dicker will not gain him much. More likely, however, the Spanish Prime Minister will act in the spirit of his remark of some weeks ago, that it would be wise to wait and see if the people of the United States themselves approved the McKinley Bill. It is probably clear to his mind by this time that they do not, and that he need live in no fear of our tolerating increased taxation by Presidential proclamation.

SARDOU'S "CLEOPATRA."

PARIS, October 31, 1890.

THE great success which Sardou achieved with his "Theodora" induced him to try his hand at a "Cleopatra." I confess to have been much amused and interested by "Theodora." The plot was dramatic, many details were ingenious, and Sardou had a fine opportunity to display his great love for scenery. He gave us a real circus, real gladiators, Christians, Greek philosophers, a Gaulish prisoner, etc. There was more life in "Theodora" than is generally found in a play which is in reality a succession of great tableaux.

Before going to see "Cleopatra," I prepared myself by reading Shakspere's "Antony and Cleopatra." I had somewhat forgotten it, and I was struck by its beauty. At the same time, I could not help feeling all the while how little the play is fitted for the modern spectator —I mean the French spectator, supposing this ideal Frenchman to understand English in perfection, but to have all the habits of mind of the average Parisian playgoer. We have in Paris an expression which is very characteristic: you will often hear a person say of a play, "There is much style, much spirit in it, but *cela ne passe pas la scène*," which means that what is too refined in language, too delicate, too poetical in expression, is lost on those who are not on the stage—the public, in fact. I shall perhaps surprise you by telling you that for a long time the directors of our French Theatre hesitated to play Alfred de Musset's pieces; and the reason of their hesitation was the delicacy, the poetic character of the style, the delightful developments which do not help the action. It is only by degrees that the public became accustomed to "On ne badine pas avec l'amour," "Il ne faut jurer de rien," etc. Musset is perhaps the only French writer who had in him what I may be allowed to call a Shaksperian vein. In reading "Antony and Cleopatra," I fell constantly upon passages which had an extraordinary lyrical beauty, but which, being useless for the action and the development of the drama, were of the class of passages of which our average Parisian says, "Cela ne passe pas la scène." And, truly, such passages are perhaps better enjoyed when you read them quietly by your fireside, when you have them all to yourself, and when they can evoke in your mind's eye visions far more splendid than anything to be seen at the Opéra or at the Porte-Saint-Martin.

When you have gone through a certain number of operas and modern dramas, you care very little, in one sense, for mere scenery, for costumes, and for decorations. It makes me angry when I hear that in such or such a piece the public applauded a *décor*, much as I admire the extraordinary skill of our modern decorators. I would not go so far as to make war on local color, or on the adaptation of the costumes to the times. We could hardly nowadays see "Phèdre" or "Andromaque" played by actors and actresses in the costume of Louis XIV. But the local coloring, the costumes, the scenic illusions, are, after all, or at least ought to be, only what the frame is to the picture. A beautiful line, a dramatic situation, is more to me than all the false splendor of the stage. What do I care for the costumes or the decorations of an opera if the music is dull, confused, and colorless? The best operas of Mozart were represented first on the most humble stage.

On the other side, and to return to what I said about "Antony and Cleopatra," there is a certain sort of lyric poetry which is hardly fit for the stage. Action is the first element of the drama, and whatever retards it or draws off the attention from the matter in hand is a defect, from the theatrical point of view. A play may be perfect in a lyrical point of view, and produce little effect on a great public; it may be very ordinary in a merely literary point of view—that is to say, devoid of any of those traits which flatter a fine imagination or a delicate mind—and nevertheless be very effective if the struggle of the human passions is well represented, if the characters are clearly drawn and interesting. In the latter case, all the operatic splendor of the stage becomes useless; in the midst of a battle we do not look much at the landscape. Fine scenery is perhaps more necessary when the drama verges on lyrical poetry, when the action is slow, when the situations do not take our breath away.

The new "Cleopatra" belongs to neither of these two classes of dramas; it has not the lyric beauty of the "Cleopatra" of Shakspere, and it is not dramatic. It is a mere succession of tableaux. The scenery is so absorbing that

you have no time to pay attention to the words; and when, here and there, you are forced to follow the conversations, either by the shrill and hard voice of *Antony* or by the silvery and melodious voice of Sarah Bernhardt, you are struck by the unreality, if I may say so, of those conversations. There is no real life or movement in them. *Antony* and the Roman generals are vulgar, and talk very much in the same style as Parisians who meet on the boulevard. The local color is thus merely external. The costumes, the helmets, the swords, the bucklers may be all that could satisfy a member of the Academy of Inscriptions; but, when these Romans open their mouths, they are deplorably modern. If here and there you are agreeably surprised by some passage, you may be sure that it is a reminiscence, almost a translation, of Shakspere.

When the curtain is lifted for the first act, we are at Tarsus in Cilicia. *Antony* is on a throne waiting for *Cleopatra*. Nature has cut for Garnier, who plays the part of *Antony*, the profile which we see on the medals and busts of a Roman Emperor; it is his only title to play the part, as a more detestable actor could hardly have been found. If *Cleopatra* does not come to the interview, *Antony* will condemn to death all the inhabitants of Tarsus who sided with the murderers of Cæsar, and who are hanging about the stage in multicolor costumes. The moment approaches; *Antony* is impatient. *Cleopatra* was to intercede for the people of Tarsus; if she comes not, they are doomed. At the very moment when *Antony* is about to pronounce the sentence of death, we hear the sound of flutes, and slowly approaches the barge of *Cleopatra* on the waters of the Cydnus, filled with her slaves and her musicians. This charming scene is taken from Plutarch, and is perhaps the most striking in the whole drama.

Cleopatra descends with slow steps, supported by two maids. I had not seen Sarah Bernhardt for some time, and her appearance caused me real emotion. How changed I found her from that Sarah who played in "Hernani" and "Phèdre" and "Andromaque" at the French Theatre! Her slender and serpentine form has become more massive. She has kept the wonderful grace which makes a sort of music of all her movements; but her face, covered with paint, is no longer what it was. As *Cleopatra*, she had her face and arms stained brown; her head was covered—almost crushed—by an immense wig of auburn hair, falling in thick locks all over her shoulders. She wore one of those tunics, which I cannot describe, which seem to have been contrived only with a view to making her look as much as possible like a Tanagra statuette. Her voice is still melodious, but there is now in it a certain sort of plaintive monotony. In this first scene, where her object is to seduce the rude and violent *Antony*, the contrast of the softness of her voice with his hoarse organ had a charming effect. She brings him by degrees to her feet; she seduces him by the mere sound of that silvery voice which utters words it is not necessary to comprehend. Racine has a verse:

"J'oublie, en vous voyant, ce que je viens vous dire."

Antony might say to Sarah: "J'oublie, en écoutant, ce que je voulais dire." Her triumph is immediate, complete: "Veni, vidi, vici." *Antony* is enslaved; he accompanies *Cleopatra* to Egypt, forgetting Rome and the Triumvirs.

The second act shows us *Cleopatra* and *Antony* in Egypt, enjoying what Plutarch calls their "inimitable" life. This act is really a mere ballet, and what a ballet! During the Exposition of last year there was a street in Cairo, with small Oriental cafés, in which to the sound of a few instruments Oriental houris danced their national dances. We have ever since been pestered with the famous "danse du ventre"; even at the Opéra it has introduced itself, but in a mild form, as if it were ashamed of itself. Now we have it in "Cleopatra," in all its impurity. A sad spectacle! Fortunately for the great *Antony*, who sits, in a flowing gown, on a couch with his "Serpent of the Nile," some Roman generals arrive and bring him news of Italy. *Antony* is roused. *Cleopatra*, who wants to see him the master of the world, sends for his helmet, his sword, and his cuirass; she helps him to put on his war dress, and sends him to the battlefield.

In the third act we find her moaning and pining for her *Antony*. She is lying (it is to be remarked that throughout the piece Sarah is almost always lying on a bed) on a terrace which overlooks the Delta of the Nile, the distant pyramids, the dark line of the sea. The sky is full of stars. The Queen of Egypt is waiting for a messenger. We have here the famous scene of the messenger of Shakspere. Sarah plays it well. She shows a sort of childish femineity when she learns of the marriage of *Antony* with the "sweet Octavia." She cross-examines the messenger, and from the few words which she extracts from the terrified slave she concludes that Octavia is short, ugly, and stupid. This is the only humorous part of the play. A second messenger sends *Cleopatra*, with the Egyptian fleet, to Actium. We find her there, on *Antony's* bed, where she has been brought secretly, rolled up in a carpet. Hidden behind the curtain, she overhears the conversation of *Antony* with his generals; they all abuse her, and hope that she has not accompanied the Egyptian fleet. When *Antony* is left alone, she shows herself to him, and there naturally ensues a duo of anger and rage, ending in a duo of renewed and passionate love. I am obliged to pass over some details. The generals, for instance, told *Antony* that *Cleopatra* had taken a new lover, in the person of the general of the Egyptian army; to convince him of his error, the injured *Cleopatra* sends for *Cephren*, and tells him that he is accused of having raised his eyes to his sovereign. He must die. She offers him poison; he is ready to drink it, when the generous *Antony*, who has heard the conversation, interferes and saves his life.

The fifth act brings us back to Egypt again. *Cleopatra* has run away during the battle of Actium, with her fleet; *Antony* has followed her. She wished, says Sardou, to have him all alone to herself, conquered, unable to return to Rome. This last act is not written at all on the lines of history; but why should we care? All the public want is to see the asp bite Sarah. The asp is a live serpent, and we have heard much about its education; the papers have been full of it. On the whole, it must be confessed that we have been a little disappointed; the serpent is very small, Sarah merely puts him in a sort of pocket which is inside her gown. She dies, as she knows how to die, and we don't know what has become of the serpent. It is late, very late; we feel that Sarah requires some rest, as we do ourselves, though she has been lying on luxurious beds of every shape, during five acts. We must leave her. We have heard enough of vague, indistinct Arabic melodies, our eyes have been dazzled enough with colors in motion, we are drunk with sensations—and we have not preserved a thought.

DEMOCRATIC ASSUMPTIONS.

I.—Vox Populi.

London, October 17, 1890.

No constitution can exist or flourish unless there prevail among the persons subject to it certain beliefs or assumptions favorable to its existence. The maintenance of a theocracy involves the belief not only in the rule of some divine power interested in the government of the world, but also in the authority of some priesthood to expound the will of the Deity. An aristocracy will not long maintain its hold in any land where men do not believe in the inequality of mankind and in the hereditary transmission of character and capacity. A real monarchy needs for its support faith, if not in the divine right, yet, at any rate, in the necessary superiority and wisdom, of kings. Democracy forms no exception to the general rule: the popular constitutionalism, or republicanism, of to-day has come into being and retains its power because the peoples of the civilized world entertain certain beliefs—for example, the doctrine of human equality and the like—which, just because they are generally received, are, except here and there by the maintainer of a paradox, rarely defined and still more rarely questioned. Things not disputed are thought indisputable, and a dogma which no one disputes passes as an axiom.

In these letters I propose to state, in the character neither of an opponent nor of a eulogist, but simply of a critic, a few of the assumptions which lie at the foundation of the democratic creed as it prevails, at any rate in England; and, further, to show that, amidst the general disintegration of beliefs which is the marked feature of the age, the assumptions of the dominant political faith are being gradually laid open to dispute. They are, through the spread of knowledge and through the influence of patent facts, rendered doubtful not only in the eyes of thinkers, which is a matter of little immediate importance, but, what is a far graver thing, in the view of men whose conduct is guided by the current rules of average common sense.

Let me examine to-day the dogma which may be conveniently designated by the name of the *vox populi;* it is, in substance, that authority rightfully belongs to the voice of the people uttered through the mouth of the majority among the citizens.

Democratic institutions can flourish only in those countries whereof the inhabitants habitually respect the legally expressed will of the majority. Reverence, however, for the will of the majority, though defensible on grounds of expediency or of necessity, rests in the main on the belief that a majority is the organ for expressing the "will of the people"; and this belief, again, involves the assumption that on every matter of importance a distinct will of the people, or *vox populi*, exists, and can, by the use of proper machinery, be discovered. This doctrine, which exerts immense though hardly recognized influence, may be stripped of what I venture to call its mystical form and be reduced to a plain and prosaic shape. The belief in the authority of the majority assumes that on all issues which may demand public decision, the mass of the citizens entertain some one predominant opinion, and that, in favor of or against any proposition which can be submitted to popular judgment, there may be found a majority so overwhelming as to represent the virtually unanimous will of the nation. The expression "virtual unanimity," just because of its inaccuracy,

best expresses my meaning. No person capable of thought really believes that on any of the subjec s which divide nations into parties actual unanimity exists; debate or agitation involves dissent and opposition. But in popularly governed countries most people believe (and not without a show of reason) that on the political questions of the day it is possible to obtain from the citizens, not indeed a unanimous, yet a nearly unanimous, verdict.

That this is often the case no observer of politics or student of history can doubt. In 1789 there must have been among the privileged classes of France thousands who dreaded innovation; but we may fairly assert that the French nation demanded the convocation of the States-General. When the Seven Bishops stood on their trial, perhaps even when William landed at Torbay, the vast majority of Englishmen, or at any rate of those Englishmen who took any interest in politics, condemned the tyranny of James II., and were prepared to curb his power just as, nearly thirty years before, the vast majority of the nation hailed with frantic joy the restoration of Charles II. There were a minority of loyalists —if Mr. Lecky is right, a larger minority than most persons suppose—who wished to maintain the connection between England and her colonies. Yet every one feels that the declaration of American independence was rightly considered the fiat of a nation. In our own days, the expulsion of the foreigner from Italy was desired by the Italians with a feeling as like unanimity as can exist in a country numbering its inhabitants by millions. Pio Nono, it is said, as against the Austrians, entertained even to the end of his life the feeling of an Italian rather than of a Pope. Even in these cases, of which a score more might easily be given, of virtual unanimity, a dissentient minority really exists; but the majority is so large that the voice thereof may rightly enough be considered the voice of the nation. From the knowledge that a voice of the nation may have a real existence, the speculative defenders of democracy, and all men who take an active part in the conduct of popular government, assume its constant existence.

This assumption is shown by the whole language, and by the very "slang" of current politics. In England, or France, or America every politician of every school appeals to the will of the nation. In general he believes in perfect good faith that this voice speaks in his favor. If his party commands a majority, however small, the case is clear enough. If, as may happen, our Tory or Radical does not find that his party is supported by the greater number of votes, then he has recourse to one of two courses. If he is a man of singular coolness and temperate judgment, he admits that the nation has gone against him; but he is convinced that, by force of argument, agitation, and the like, he will soon obtain a real national verdict in support of his views. If, as is far more likely, he be a heated and headstrong partisan, he believes that the nation has been misled by intimidation, by fraud, or corruption, and would speak in his favor were its real voice allowed to be heard; or he asserts, sometimes with and sometimes without reason, that existing constitutional arrangements do not permit the true body of the citizens to pronounce their will. In all popularly governed countries, demands for an extension of the suffrage, or for a new distribution of seats, have in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred been stimulated by the bona-fide, though often quite groundless, belief of a minority, that, were the nation properly consulted, the views of the minority, which to them seem the views of all just and virtuous men, would be affirmed by that *vox populi* which is deemed to echo the voice of God.

This firm belief in the possibility of discovering the will of the people is witnessed to by a curious phenomenon which must strike every attentive student of French revolutionary annals. From 1789 up to the present day every French party—Monarchists and Republicans, Constitutionalists, Girondins, Jacobins, and Imperialists—have all asserted, and have, we need not doubt, all honestly believed, that they were supported by the true people of France. Defeat in representative assemblies and defeat at the ballot-box have been hitherto equally unavailing to shake this faith, which, like all true faith, is its own justification. The various devices by which minorities have persuaded themselves and tried to persuade others that they represented the nation, form a curious chapter of constitutional history. Sometimes it has been boldly assumed that a portion of the people, say the Parisian mob, more truly represented the nation than the chosen representatives of the country. On other occasions a faction in power has, under the form of a so-called plébiscite, submitted the question of such faction's authority to a popular vote under circumstances which made but one answer possible. Another resource has been to enact as a rule of constitutional law that citizens who on a given occasion did not vote at all, must be assumed to have voted in the way desired by the Government. This perverse assumption, which marks at least one of the polities which have been created by the ingenuity and destroyed by the restlessness of Frenchmen during the last hundred years, has the great merit of increasing a desired majority by the very fact that thousands, or it may be millions, of citizens are so indifferent, so hostile, or so terrified that they will not give any expression to their opinions. Hence abstentions from voting which are, or may be, meant as a silent protest against a proposed institution or policy, are so used as to support the very proposal which men who will not vote intend to condemn.

The simplest, however, as well as the most usual and effective method for insuring something like national unanimity, is to treat opponents as bad men, as aristocrats, as oligarchs, as traitors, or as malignants; as persons, in short, whose voice, whose vote, and whose wishes count for nothing. This monstrously unfair course is generally taken by partisans without any deliberate consciousness of its unfairness. This, at any rate, was so during the earlier stages of the great French Revolution. Every candid historian now knows that the French people were split into parties. It is also highly probable that in many cases the faction which obtained most power possessed the smallest number of followers. The Constitutionalists outnumbered the Republicans; the Girondins outnumbered the Jacobins; and the Terrorists were a minority of a minority. The matter, however, which deserves our immediate attention is that each and all of these factions entertained the firmest conviction of being the true representative of the nation. When France, with something like unanimity, execrated the Reign of Terror, Robespierre conscientiously believed that the "good people" of France was with him. Let it be noted, also, that this faith added to the bitterness of the conflict. The triumph at the elections or in the Assembly of an adverse party was a proof to their opponents of fraud, of corruption, and of wickedness. If the Jacobins could not command a majority in the Convention, this was proof to the Mountain that the majority of the Convention were knaves, who either corrupted or cheated the people.

That this mode of argument was unreasonable enough is clear to every candid critic. But this irrational way of reasoning flowed naturally, if not with absolute logical necessity, from the assumption that there existed a decisive will of the nation on the issues which divided politicians. This assumption was made by every party in the State; each party made it because each party felt that its moral authority depended on the support of a practically unanimous people. Every party assumed that, if properly appealed to, the people would express the will of the people with unmistakable clearness. The point in dispute was how that will was to find expression. The idea that no true voice of the people existed, and that the wishes of the nation were as much divided as were the wishes of politicians, was an idea which never occurred to the revolutionary statesmen of France, and which even now is most unwelcome to ardent democrats. It is unwelcome because the notion, if true, strips democratic government of its imaginative impressiveness. The awe with which a king was regarded vanished when kings were felt to be nothing more than magistrates who held a dignified office by an hereditary tenure. We may venture to assert that the halo which in many men's eyes still surrounds a republic, will vanish if ever it is felt that democratic government is merely government by majorities, and not government in effect by all the citizens of the State. The voice of a mere majority is, as regards its effect on the imagination, a very different thing from the august *vox populi*.

Yet in England, at least, it is every day becoming more and more apparent that the will of the nation may be, and often is, divided and uncertain, and that what is called the will of the nation, the voice of the country, and the like, is, and can be, in many instances, nothing more than the wish of a majority which may exceed by very small numbers the opposed minority. The circumstances which force this fact upon popular attention may easily be recognized by any one who looks ordinary facts in the face. The unanimity which has on special occasions characterized the sentiment of a nation is of rare occurrence, and is likely to occur less frequently than in past times. National unanimity is rare because it is created only by those great crises which arise when the fate of a country is at stake, as, for example, when a people rise to shake off a foreign yoke, when a land is threatened with invasion, or when the existence of a community is menaced by some sudden danger. Such crises must be exceptional events, and the more civilization advances, the more exceptional they are likely to become. During the growth of Roman power the total destruction of a city was a calamity which any conquered State might fear. The conquest of England by Spain in the sixteenth century meant a very different thing from the invasion of a modern State by a hostile army.

Nor is it only the infrequency of great crises which renders the predominance of one sentiment throughout the whole of a political society an uncommon event. Till recent times political societies were small, or, to speak more accurately, the "active citizens" (to use foreign terminology) who shared the public life of any State were few in number, and all belonged to a limited class. The electorate, for example, of England, in 1790, represented little else than the land-owners and the traders of the country, and was quite unlike the huge body of householders who to-day control the destinies of England. But it is far more likely

that a small body of men belonging in the main to one class of society should be influenced by the same conviction or passion than that a vast crowd, differing from one another in wealth, in education, and in prejudices, should on any topic of magnitude be swayed by a simultaneous feeling of enthusiasm, of dread, or of determination. We may well doubt whether, should a writer endowed with the rhetorical power of "Junius," or with the genius of Burke, reappear, he could have anything like the influence on the opinion of England exerted by the unknown author of the celebrated 'Letters,' or by the denouncer of a Regicide Peace. Knowledge and education, moreover, are fatal to unanimity; discussion necessitates dissent. It is hardly conceivable that in a country like England, where everything is now discussed, there will ever again exist that unanimity of political conviction which was, apparently at least, displayed by the English people on more than one occasion during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Diffusion of knowledge is, moreover, the spreading of light; but the more light is shed upon the details of history, the more clear it becomes that the unanimity constantly attributed by popular imagination to the wishes of a people has always been more or less fictitious. It is natural to say that England rejoiced at the defeat of the Armada, and it is probably true that the great majority of Englishmen rejoiced in the ruin of the Spaniard. But we may be quite certain that hundreds of English Papists saw in the destruction of the Armada nothing but the triumph of heresy. Historians who talk of the nation supporting Pitt in the war against France, or of the great Reform Bill having been passed in deference to the wish of the country, know well enough that there was in each case a minority, and in the second case a very influential minority, who condemned the policy which was supported by the greater part of the electors. To this we must add that, even at those supreme moments of national destiny when we are glad to imagine that all men felt alike, there always has been found a large body of easy-going persons who are in reality quite uninterested in the political contests of the day. What has hitherto been practically known only to students of history is now becoming common knowledge. The voice of the people, even when it speaks most loudly, is at best the voice of a majority; it is never anything like the voice of the whole people. The *vox populi* is, in short, to a great extent the creation of fancy; the will of a majority is, and is now seen to be, in many cases nothing but the voice of a slightly preponderating number of citizens.

In the facts I have noted there is, let it be observed, nothing which suggests that government by majorities is not, at any rate for the civilized States of to-day, the best form of government which has hitherto been invented. What the facts do suggest is, that the system of government in accordance with the will of the majority will need, as time goes on, to be defended exclusively on grounds of obvious expediency. Democracy will have to part with the dignity and impressiveness which have accrued to popular government from the belief that the decisions of a majority were always, or generally, divine commands uttered by the voice of the people.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I desire to thank "C. A. W.," first for his courtesy, and second for offering a point of resistance which gives a refreshing change from perpetual preaching. He will please to remember that my object was to do in the case of universal suffrage what is occasionally necessary in matrimony—turn the best side outward of that which we cannot help. We are agreed that the mass of the people will take the moral side of any question where their private interests are not especially involved, and I think that the thousands who work for day wages and salaries are much more fitted to do this than the hundreds who are engaged in an eager chase after money, or who, having independent means, are less accustomed to personal sacrifice. It seems to me he does injustice to the Lancashire workmen. They *did* suffer from want of work, and therefore of wages, through the scarcity of cotton, and knew, or were told, that, if the Southern ports were forced open, cotton would be plenty; and yet they stood firm.

We are agreed, also, that while the masses may be counted on in morals, they cannot be in economics. But the inference I draw from that is, that they should not be asked to settle economical questions, but that everything should always be presented to them from the moral side. And the instrument for doing this is personality. The most powerful motor in the world has always been enthusiasm for persons, whether the person was Christ, Mohammed, or Napoleon. Even the dry science of finance would excite popular enthusiasm if identified with a man of pure and lofty character and proved ability. Now, the strongest characteristic of our political arrangements is that they aim to suppress personality in every possible way. Everything is done, by Democrats and Republicans, by majorities and minorities—or, rather, pluralities; by committees and commissions, caucuses and conventions. And yet Quay, Reed, Lodge, and McKinley will thrust themselves into men's mouths in spite of everything. Go among your acquaintances and see how the sparks fly at the mention of Blaine or Cleveland. Before, however, a man can under our system work himself into public notice, he has to do things which forfeit the respect both of himself and others, so that almost every prominent man is tainted in some way, and those who are not merely illustrate how powerless for good personality is.

Take the tariff as an example. McKinley is the accident of an hour—here to-day, gone to-morrow. The bill made him, not he the bill, which was reeking with the influence of the lobby. If his name is in the mouth of every man, woman, and child in the country, it is as that of some mysterious monster. Now, suppose that the Secretary of the Treasury, the official representative and guardian of the national finances, and of the vast interests behind them, were to stand up in Congress to give his views upon the tariff. How the eyes of the whole country would be turned upon him! None but a man of high honor as well as ability could stand the process to which he would be subjected. The weak ones would soon disappear, but by and by would come a man who was proof against attack, and then public opinion would do for him in finance what it did for Lincoln and Grant in war.

"C. A. W." thinks that, if the people showed energy and resolution in time of war, those qualities were also the cause of war and are likely to be so again. In the first place, given an imaginary line, with negro slavery and its consequences on one side, and the freest people in the world on the other, it may be doubted whether any government which ever existed could have prevented war. And yet I believe, and have always believed, that if we had had a previous series of Presidents and Cabinets who were real personal leaders, chosen by and responsive to the people, with a positive voice in policy and legislation, some expedient for avoiding the war might have been found. The trouble was then, as the danger is now, in demagogues forcing themselves to the front in spite of our elaborate checks and balances which suppress honest and able men, and deprive the people of their natural food for enthusiasm. Was there ever a people more peacefully inclined than ours to-day? If they are led into a quarrel, it will be because some Blaine or Reed, the scum of impure materials, and using the same arts which have so far served a purpose, misleads them with a false glitter of personality.

If we do not get the effect of universal suffrage and have not proper organization, asks "C. A. W.," where does the blame lie if not with the people? Can he see no difference between a spasmodic concert of action to arrest a horse-thief, or send relief in a catastrophe, and the contending with an elaborate political network which has been forming around them for a hundred years, which they do not understand and are powerless to deal with? It is just one of those economic questions which are beyond their reach, so long as they are without leaders. The legislatures, which are supposed to act for them, are not *their* representatives, but those of caucus politicians, and are, moreover, themselves in a state of chaos, and just as much in need of leaders; while the executives, who should do the leading, sit with both hands tied.

A real leader will have to make his appearance from the outside, and if he ever does, we shall see whether the people are competent for the work.

G. B.

BOSTON, November 15, 1890.

GERMAN LUTHERANS IN POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The result of the recent election has been studied and commented upon by every observer of public affairs, and the undoubted *causa efficiens* of the Republican defeat is found in the popular condemnation of the course pursued by the dominant party in Washington. This fact should not, however, divert attention from the side-issue which was presented in Illinois, and especially in Wisconsin, and which, though now a cloud no larger than a man's hand, may portend serious future danger to the country.

The appearance of the German Lutheran Church of the Northwest as a compact and united force in politics is an event of great importance, and justifies a closer examination of the new factor, with which legislators and statesmen, considering provisions for the future educational and intellectual development of our foreign population, will have to deal. It would be superfluous now to discuss the famous "Bennett Law," which contained several absurd and unwise provisions, and which should have been amended in any event. But the principle underlying the law, and which was attacked by the German Lutheran clergy, and especially the religious press under their control, with a bitterness and injustice scarcely paralleled in American political strife, is the

duty of an American State to provide for and enforce the *English* education of its citizens. This principle, which was denounced as "paternal government" and "undue interference with the rights of parents" (upon the ground, among others, that the German language was scarcely more foreign in this country than the English), has been assailed, and, so far as the last election was concerned, condemned, by a large majority of the voters of two important States of the Union.

It is an instructive inquiry to ascertain how this majority was made up. Reference is omitted to the Roman Catholics, whose opposition to the public-school system is well known, and who can hardly be called a new factor in politics. The organization which has been most important and active in the late contest, and which in many respects now first emerges into public view, is the "Evangelical Lutheran Synod of Missouri, Ohio, and adjacent States." This body, known and referred to as the "Missouri Synod" by German Protestants everywhere, has now, with its affiliated synods, a membership in this country of nearly a million souls, including about 2,000 clergymen and more than 2,500 congregations. It also controls about 1,500 parochial schools. Its centre of gravity is in St. Louis, Mo., where its chief founder and leader, Rev. Dr. C. F. W. Walther, resided until his death, about two years ago. He was a man of great theological learning and considerable general ability, albeit warped by many amusing sectarian prejudices, and his successors are his faithful disciples.

In home missionary work no church organization of this country has shown more activity and greater results. The poorly paid pastors of the Missouri Synod in the extreme Northwest are to-day spreading Christianity and at least the rudiments of culture among thousands of recent immigrants and others, with a self-sacrifice and a noble heroism worthy of the best days of Christianity; and the benefits which they are thus conferring upon this country are incalculable and should not be forgotten in the criticism of other features of their system. It is, however, not too much to say that the entire spirit of the organization is thoroughly un-American, being German—and German, not of the nineteenth, but, on the contrary, of the sixteenth century.

This spirit is shown in the literary productions of the official publication house of the Synod at St. Louis, Mo., better than in any other way. The statistics of this publishing house would be a great revelation to many of your readers regarding German-American literary activity. Not a book or a pamphlet is published there but shows the intolerant spirit which dominated the Lutheran Church for a short period in the sixteenth century. The theology of Luther, and in fact everything that he ever wrote, is treasured with a fetish-like worship, differing but little from the Roman regard for tradition, and it is carried so far that in the new great edition of Luther's works, in twenty-five quarto volumes (each about half the size of 'Webster's Unabridged Dictionary'), now publishing in St. Louis, the 'Colloquia' (or 'Table Talk') is published with such completeness that all puerile and filthy remarks are preserved among the gems of thought. Thus, with all reverence for the great reformer, his most devoted disciples seem to delight in pointing to the more vulgar features of his mind, and to furnish a treasure-house for his opponents and detractors.

A series of school-books, notably Bible histories, is published, wherein the artist of the nineteenth century represents the Deity according to the spirit of the sixteenth, as an old, rather benevolent-looking gentleman, with a full beard, dressed in a long, loose gown; and this conception is logically carried out in other books of the series. Perhaps the most characteristic proof of what I may call the un-American tendencies of this great body of citizens is given in their most popular book of devotion, to wit, the Bible, with prefaces, summaries, and final prayers for each chapter, by a few Lutheran court theologians of the year 1560, commonly known as the 'Altenburger Bibelwerk.' Of this work, in three volumes, large octavo, upwards of forty thousand copies are said to have been printed, and certainly a very great number is now used in the daily devotional exercises in the families of church members. I will quote a few extracts showing clearly the extent to which this book helps to make worthy American citizens. The summary to the tenth chapter of the Second Book of Kings, verses 18 to 36 (Volume i., St. Louis edition, 1860, page 518), is as follows:

"This is an example of a particular and princely virtue which pleases God and is rewarded with rich blessings—that Jehu slew all false prophets who had assisted in the idolatrous worship of Baal, and that he made the house of Baal a draught-house. For such action appertains especially to secular government: it should restrain idolatry with all seriousness and without any mercy (*ohne alle Gnade*). For since God's honor and the salvation of our neighbor are concerned, one should not be lazy or negligent about it. God will thereafter pay (*bezahlen*) for this by a happy reign. Thus Jehu reigned for twenty eight years, and his children to the fourth generation. The Papacy needs such a Jehu, even to this day, with all its establishments and monasteries, in which just as horrible (*greuliche*) idolatry is practised as was then by the priests of Baal (*Baalspfaffen*)."

From the summary to chapter xi., page 519:

"Then there is another example, how Jehoiada, the priest, brake down the house of Baal, slew all the priests of Baal, and restored the true worship which had been suspended under Athaliah, verse 18. Such works appertain particularly to government, if good fortune and success are to attend."

Page 525-526, chapter xv.:

"Let us learn that secular government commits a grievous sin if it does not restrain idolatry with vigor, even if it [government] be not itself guilty of personal idolatry."

From the preface to chapter xxi., page 536:

"If God punishes sin in high potentates, kings, princes, and lords, we may be very sure that he will not let it go unpunished in ordinary people, such as citizens and peasants."

This Bible is to-day the officially recommended book of devotion of the Synod, these sentiments have never been disavowed, and the quotations of equally scandalous matter could be multiplied, if necessary, indefinitely. It may be added that in the official journals of the Synod, and in the principal Teachers' Seminary at Addison, Illinois, until very recently the doctrine was taught that Christianity and the Copernican system of astronomy are incompatible, and that a genuine belief in the inspiration of Holy Writ required the acceptance of the Rev. Jasper's theory that "the sun do move," as well as the rejection of the entire science of geology. (*Cf.* Charles Dudley Warner's 'Studies in the South and West,' pp. 343, 344.)

It would be rank injustice to call these vagaries Lutheran, and thereby cast a reflection upon the great body of Evangelical Lutherans in this country, who are rightly proud of their church as being in many respects the most Biblical, liberal, and progressive, as well as the largest Protestant denomination. It would be interesting to trace the causes of so abnormal an intellectual development on American soil. Beyond doubt the late tariff of 25 per cent. on foreign books has had great influence. The enlightened works of modern German theologians being practically inaccessible to these Western clergymen by reason of the price, and (to their honor be it said) a scrupulous regard for private property, even in the absence of international copyright, preventing any pirating, recourse was necessary to the old books of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, which have been reprinted and have furnished mental and spiritual food to the members of this Synod. Nor would it be just to class the latter with the Roman Catholics in point of hostility to American institutions. The laity probably lay very little stress upon such theories as are illustrated in the above quotations, and the second generation begins to show that wholesome indifference to dogma which is so characteristic of modern active and enlightened Christianity. It was and is only natural that an organization with such a faith and discipline should bitterly oppose the principle underlying the Bennett Law.

A knowledge of English and a consequent access to English and American literature is all that is necessary as an antidote to this sectarian virus. The attempt to translate the Missouri Lutheran views into English has failed. The only English organ of the Synod, the *Lutheran Witness*, is a ludicrous example of Germanized English in respect to idiom and grammar. The Missouri Lutheran denomination dare not admit it, but it is a fact that their peculiar views and principles stand and fall with the German language.

This is the true explanation of the Illinois and Wisconsin elections, so far as the educational question is concerned, and it behooves political thinkers and legislators of all parties to take notice of the fact. That the English school will ultimately triumph in its struggle with superstition and fanaticism is certain. It is no less true that the great benefits to this country of the Missouri Synod's practical Christian work will remain, independently of any language; and for this reason every well-wisher of the Lutheran Church will hope to see the underlying principles of the Bennett Law speedily incorporated in the legislation of every State where the condition of affairs renders such a course necessary.

I am, sir, yours truly, ANDOVER.

NOVEMBER 10, 1890.

THE CENSUS AND THE VOTE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There was a Presidential election in 1880; there was another in 1888. For the first time in the history of this country the electors, in *all* the States, were in 1880 chosen by the popular vote. But both in 1880 and in 1888 the five States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana brought out a feeble and one-sided vote, from which no inferences as to population can be drawn. In the other thirty-three States, voting in 1880 and in 1888, the popular vote increased from the former to the latter occasion in the ratio of 1.0000 to 1.2621+. This denotes the increase for eight years. Multiplying this ratio by its fourth root, which denotes the increase for two years, we get a pretty near approach to the ratio in which the popular vote in these thirty-three States would have increased in ten years, namely, 1.0000 to 1.3378.

Now, according to the census of 1880, which is admitted to be fully reliable, the population of the thirty-three States which returned a fair

or nearly fair vote was 43,499,986—almost forty-three millions and a half. Multiplying this sum by the ratio 1.3378, the same States ought to contain in 1890 no less than 58,194,281 souls.

Some States, say Virginia and Kentucky, did not turn out fully in 1880; Maine and Florida were rather backward in 1888. Taking it all round, the contest between Garfield and Hancock was about as hot as that between Cleveland and Harrison; and, granting that the vote was brought out a little more fully in 1888 than in 1880, on the other hand, the number of unnaturalized foreigners must have been much greater in 1888, and each vote cast therefore represented a larger population than it did in 1880. All in all, the popular vote returned at the two periods is the best index of the growth in population, that is to say, in these thirty-three States.

But while from the increased Presidential vote we should credit these States with 58,194,281 souls, Mr. Porter could not find more than 53,947,361, a difference of 4,246,920. Assuming that his figures for the five "bulldozing" cotton States, for the new States, the Territories, and the District of Columbia are right, we must simply add these 4,246,920 to his aggregate of 62,480,580, making the true aggregate 66,727,500.

It is, however, very probable that the error outside of the thirty-three States first considered was proportionally as great as it was in these—that is, only 10,000 were counted for every 10,787. Adding 7.87 per cent. to the 8,533,179 found by Mr. Porter in the Cotton States, new States, etc., or 673,561 to the above figures, we have as a very likely estimate of the population of the United States (aside from the Indian Territory, Indian reservations, and Alaska) 67,401,061, or 67,400,000. L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., November 3, 1890.

[If the true population of the country in 1890 is, as calculated by "L. N. D.," 67,401,061, the total increase during the decade must have been 17,245,278, or 34.38 per cent., and, deducting the gain from immigration, the rate of natural increase must have been 23.92 per cent. The apparent natural increase during the decade from 1870 to 1880 was at the rate of 22.78 per cent. Superintendent Porter estimates the omissions in 1870 at 1,500,000. Gen. Walker does not think that they much exceeded 500,000. If the former is right, the natural increase between the ninth and tenth censuses was at the rate of 18.90 per cent.; if the latter, it was at the rate of 21.48 per cent. It follows that if the population is now as large as "L. N. D." estimates it to be, the rate of natural increase in the last decade exceeds the highest estimate of the rate of that increase in the next preceding decade by about 2½ per cent. Such an acceleration in the rate of natural growth is, under all the conditions existing during the last ten years, so extremely improbable that nothing short of the clearest and most convincing proof would justify a belief in its having taken place. Such proof we do not think can be found in the facts cited by our correspondent.

The whole argument made by him rests on the assumption that the "contest between Garfield and Hancock was about as hot as that between Cleveland and Harrison," and that therefore, "all in all, the popular vote returned at the two periods is the best index of the growth of population." There is no way of certainly testing the truth of this assumption. Whether it is correct or not is a matter of opinion, and, within certain limits, of mere guess. Of the adult males in the United States in 1880, less than 73 in every 100 voted. If in 1888 80 in every 100 cast their ballots, there would be an increase of 10 per cent. in the vote cast, independent of any increase in population. A total vote equal to 80 per cent. of the adult male population is quite within the bounds of possibility. In 1880 the total vote in Indiana was equivalent to 94½ per cent. of the total adult male population. If 80 per cent. of the adult males voted in 1888, the total vote would have been proportionately 10 per cent. greater, and the census of 1890 would be approximately correct, for upon the assumption that the vote was proportionately no larger than in 1880, our correspondent finds that the population in 1890 is 5,000,000 (or 10 per cent. of the population of 1880) greater than the census office returns it.

Now, we do not believe that in 1888 80 per cent. of the adult males voted, and we feel confident that the census total of population is somewhere between 2,500,000 and 3,000,000 below the truth; but there are various reasons on the other hand for holding that the total vote in 1888 was proportionately larger than in 1880. In 1880, after the October elections in Ohio and Indiana, Democratic success in November became highly improbable. In the last few days of the canvass the betting men gave odds of two, three, or even four to one on Garfield. In 1888 there were no October elections. The betting was practically even up to the last. The result was close and doubtful until the polls closed

Moreover, the campaign of 1888 was the first Presidential election since the formation of the Republican party in which the tariff was the principal issue. Both parties were to common knowledge divided on the question. Everywhere there were Republicans who it was known intended to vote for Cleveland, and Democrats who were openly supporting Harrison. An element of uncertainty was thus brought into the canvass which made it possible to hope or fear great changes in the relative strength of the parties in States which in 1880 no one regarded as really contested. The number of States in which both parties had an object in exerting themselves to get out their full vote was thus much greater than in 1880. The Democrats in 1888 hopefully challenged Republican supremacy in the Northwest, and the Republicans were equally sanguine and energetic in the border Southern States. A vigorous assault compelled a vigorous defence, and in Maryland, the Virginias, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Kansas, and Nebraska the vote was proportionately much heavier in 1888 than it was eight years before. On the other hand, outside of the Cotton States, it was only in Maine, Pennsylvania, and Oregon that there was a hotter canvass in 1880 than in 1888. In Maine, in 1880, the Greenback movement made the State doubtful. Neither in 1884 nor in 1888 did the Pennsylvania Democrats make a canvass at all comparable in vigor and efficiency to those made in 1876 and in 1884. Oregon was in 1880 a doubtful State. The Republican majority at the June election of 1888 made it certain that the electoral votes would be given to the candidates of that party.

To a certain extent the size of the vote depends upon the efficiency of the organization of the parties; and whether those organizations are efficient or not in their turn depends, other things being equal, upon the amount of money at the command of the party managers. There is probably little doubt that the campaign chests of both the parties were much better filled in 1888 than in 1880.

A comparison of the results of the census of 1890 with those of its predecessors shows that it is defective; on the other hand, a similar comparison demonstrates that our correspondent's estimate is probably about as much above as the census figures are below the truth. The great difficulty of basing any safe estimates of the size of the population upon the votes polled at a particular election must always make that method of approximating the number of inhabitants very unreliable.—Ed. Nation.]

ONE EFFECT OF PENSION LAWS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some years ago, I was at a summer resort in the Alleghany Mountains. Not far away lived a man who used to make and polish canes which he sold to gentlemen who liked to carry away a memento of the place. On one occasion some ladies walked with the gentlemen in the evening to this man's cabin, where we sat and talked with a woman who was supposed to be his wife. On our return, we were told by the wife of our landlord, a lady well acquainted with the mountains and the neighbors, that this woman was not the wife of the cane-maker; that, however, she lived faithfully with him and no other, but they never had been legally married, for the following reason: The woman, when young, had married an old soldier of the war of 1812. He died, and his widow received his pension, but if she married again, it was discontinued, and so she neglected to have a legal marriage.

I tell this as an outcome of pension legislation. E. A. B.

Washington, Ga., November 6, 1890.

THE PHILOLOGICAL OBSCURANTISM OF ENGLISH NEWSPAPERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A critic in the *Guardian* for 1877, p. 1360, having come across the word *extravagate*, objected, that "such a verb . . . ought scarcely to pass, even in a writer who dates from New York." In reply to this stricture, I immediately sent the editor of that journal a letter, fated to be silently ignored, showing that the expression impugned had long enjoyed the sanction of English literature. Not only did I point out its use by Bp. Warburton, as cited by both Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Richardson, but I transcribed numerous quotations for it of my own collecting. Some of these, given at length, or indicated by references, here follow:

"We will return to our purpose, from whence we have *extravagated*." Rev. Dr.

John Donne (died 1631), *Ancient History of the Septuagint* (ed. 1633), p. 16.

"A Quakeress does not *extravagate*, when she engages in such an enterprize as that of attempting to reform the wretched inhabitants of a London prison." Robert Southey, *Sir Thomas More* (1829), vol. ii., p. 323.

"In general, this is a topic on which the moderns *extravagate*." Professor F. W. Newman, *Miscellanies* (1869), p. 105.

Bp. R. D. Hampden, *Bampton Lectures* (1833), p. 543 (ed. 1848).

Cardinal Newman, *Lectures and Essays on University Subjects*, p. 178 (ed. 1859); *Discussions and Arguments* (1872), p. 26; *Tracts Theological and Ecclesiastical* (1874), p. 136.

Rev. F. Oakeley, in *Essays on Religion and Literature* (edited by Cardinal Manning), Series II. (1867), p. 159.

Mr. John Morley, *Rousseau* (1873), vol. ii., p. 305.

I now pass to the substantive *scientist*, instead of which Professor A. De Morgan substituted *scientific*, tallying with *classic*, *eccentric*, *lunatic*, etc. Though it is still reprobated by some, any censure of it is quite on a par with Lord Macaulay's censure of *saturation*. It has been condemned repeatedly. In the *Academy* of September 19, 1874, Mr. Alexander J. Ellis, F.R.S., palming off fancy for fact, thought fit to denounce it as being, in its established acceptation, an "American barbaric trisyllable." With truly original notions of philology, he assumed that it was formed by adding *-ist* to *scient;* a word which I have, indeed, met with, though only as an adjective, in Lydgate, Bp. John King, and Walter Savage Landor. On the ground that *scient* could well be taken as a synonym of "man of science," "scientific man," he went on to propose its admission in that sense, while, however, retaining *scientist*, with the signification of an "adherent to scients." Something like what we have in this was anticipated by Coleridge, who, from antipathy to *influential*, as an alleged Americanism, experimented with *influencive* and *influensive*, in its place. For the rest, much at one with Mr. Ellis's fashion of etymologizing, *providential* comes from *provident+-ial*, and *Christ+-ian* is a resolution of *Christian*.

Before the days of *copyist*, we had, as an adaptation of the French *copiste*, *copist*, of which the elements are, ultimately, *copi-am+-ista*. Again, from *theoria*, a Latin adoption, we have *theorist*, presupposing *theorista*, which is made up of *theori-am+-ista;* from the parallel *oeconomia* we similarly have *economist;* and *epopeist* and *hygeist*, taken directly from Greek bases, are to be dissected in like manner. Antedating *theorist* we might have had *theorize*, which would, as its predecessor, have regularly stood, at least in accordance with Greek analogies, as its parent; and so *scientize*, "to devote oneself to science," had it existed, might have developed *scientist*. However, regard being had to history, and to the scientific rules of verbal composition exemplified above, it follows that *scientist*, to import "man of science," represents the factitious Low Latin *scientista*, which is to be analyzed into *scienti-am+-ista*, and (except by undue utilization of the participal base, *scient-*) can be analyzed into nothing else. The merging of the final *i* of *scienti-* in the *i* of *-ist* is an instance of a coalescence too familiar to require dilating on.

Unhappy as Mr. Ellis was in endeavouring to account for *scientist* etymologically, he was no less so in designating the term as "American." The same year in which he aimed to stigmatize it by the application of that epithet, a correspondent in your journal, vol. xix., p. 422, quoted Dr. Whewell as having suggested it in his *Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences*. In the first edition of that work (1840), we read, in vol. i., p. cxiii: "We need very much a name to describe a cultivator of science in general. I should incline to call him a *scientist*." To the best of my information, no countryman of ours is recorded to have countenanced it, in practice, before 1849.

But certain Englishmen, under the misguidance of Mr. Ellis, or of some other person or persons taken to be authoritative, or of mere whim, still impeach *scientist*, as being a grave violation of propriety. To move their spleen against it, of course they have, for the most part, only to be brought to believe that it originated in the United States. The scholastic abecedarianism requisite for the discovery that its structure is strictly normal and legitimate, is what they have still to acquire.

Within the last decade I have, on six several occasions, written to English newspapers in which I had seen the word reprehended as "a barbarous Americanism," and what not, and have stated, more or less briefly, in its defence, what I have stated above. But all was to no purpose, as I was pretty well convinced, beforehand, would be the upshot. Comprehending, as a matter of course, the peculiarities of the people among whom I have lived so long, I have felt no surprise that, in every case, the waste-paper basket has been deemed the fitting receptacle for my contributions. The last of these was addressed, a few weeks ago, to the *Daily News*, in the issue of which for September 20 *scientist* is spoken of as an "ignoble Americanism" and as a "cheap and vulgar product of trans-Atlantic slang."

Abundant observation has acquainted me with the prevalence, among the conductors of the British press, of the specific unscrupulousness which has been here instanced, namely, the election, where they have erred, to abet the diffusion of error, by stifling what is laid before them of a contradictory tenor. Simply for brevity, however, I have confined myself to the suppressions of the *Guardian* and the *Daily News*, typical specimens, respectively, of a high-class religious newspaper and a secular. As to the delinquencies which have been brought home to their editors, they can admit of but one explanation. The reputation of those editors for accuracy, especially where a topic of such general interest as our language is concerned, must be upheld, be the event what it may; and writers on their staffs are, accordingly, to be protected, by whatever measures, from the imputation of fallibility. To this end, as the readiest of all possible devices, what they have once put forth must remain uncontroverted; and, if it happens not to be the truth, why, so much the worse for the truth. The obvious comment on this is, that different ethics from those which are practically inveracious ought, surely, to be expected from the spokesmen of a nation that plumes itself on its hatred of mendacity.

As is well known, our characteristic deviations from the standard speech of Great Britain are admitted to constitute one of the grounds for the scornful aversion to us which Englishmen entertain so widely. At the same time, very few Englishmen have qualified themselves, to any notable extent, to speak as critical philologists. What with their dislike of us and their want of conversance with literature, the result, then, is, that any chance solecism of phraseology, or unfamiliar vocable, which they light upon is, too often, at once decided, by many of them, to be an Americanism. Nor, from its ministering to what it is esteemed so desirable to encourage, animosity, is the decision lightly to be revoked, though ever so clearly made out to be groundless. A demonstration to this effect is, therefore, certain to be resented, in some way or other, above all if its author is one of ourselves. More than this, Englishmen, as I have learned from nearly half a century of intercourse with them on their own soil, not only, as a rule, are difficult to persuade that an American can have a decent acquaintance with the English language, but not seldom receive with marked contempt, or as a personal affront, any remark on the subject that he may happen to offer.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, October 28, 1890.

HONEST ANSWERS TO HONEST INQUIRIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been a reader of the *Nation* for several years, and, although reared among hard-shell protectionists, I have admired its sound treatment of the tariff. Since it is preeminently a question on which a newspaper ought to be fair and reliable, ought to admit *some* truth on the other side, ought, as it were, to swear to its own hurt and change not, I trust you will answer an honest question or two.

(1.) How, in No. 1320, does the "dealer in pearl buttons," whom you quote in an editorial, make out the additional duty under the McKinley tariff on 1,473 gross to be $754 80? In my copy of the bill the additional duty is said to be two cents—but two cents per what? $754.80 on 1,473 gross is equivalent to about two cents per half dozen. Is the rule of measurement too complex for the lay mind?

(2.) Can you mention any men, heads of firms announcing the rise in prices since October 6, that vote the Republican ticket?

Yours with respect, THOS. W. SMITH.

MINNEAPOLIS, November 12, 1890.

[Pearl buttons are sold by the gross. The old duty was 25 per cent. ad valorem. The new duty is 25 per cent. ad valorem plus 2½ cents per line per gross. The line is one-fortieth of an inch. If the diameter of a pearl button is half an inch, *i. e.*, twenty lines, the duty is 50 cents per gross plus 25 per cent. ad valorem. The cost in Vienna of an invoice of 9,528 gross of pearl buttons, recently published in the newspapers (the sizes running from eleven lines to thirty lines), was $1,519, an average of 13⅞ cents per gross. The duty on the entire invoice under the old tariff would have been $379.75. Under the McKinley Tariff the lines were measured and counted. They footed up 184,220 gross-lines. At 2½ cents per line, the specific duty was $4,605.50. Add to this the ad-valorem duty of 25 per cent. and we have a total duty of $4,985.25 on $1,519 worth of property, or about 350 per cent. On the cheaper grades of pearl buttons the duty is much higher, being equal in some cases to 1,400 per cent. The result is that the mother of a family who paid say 2 cents for a dozen pearl buttons must now pay about 7 cents for the same quantity.

Among the firms that have, since October 6, announced an early advance of prices, may be mentioned John Wanamaker and J. & J. Dobson of Philadelphia, the former in tinware and the latter in carpets. Both these houses are prominently identified with the Republican party.—ED. NATION.]

VANDALISM IN EGYPT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The names of Englishmen are being solicited to a petition to the British Government to use its great influence with the Egyptian Government to put a stop to the illegal and shocking mutilation of the monuments and sculptures of old Egypt. It is in the power of England to accomplish much. A list of American names will be forwarded by me to the British Museum, to be placed in the proper hands, and I ask for signatures from our people for that petition. Will not our press state this fact?—Most faithfully yours,

Wm. C. Winslow,
Vice-President of the Egypt Exploration Fund.

Boston, 525 Beacon Street, Nov. 17, 1890.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready an illustrated work, 'Greek Literature,' by Thomas Sargeant Perry, forming an octavo volume of some 900 pages.

Harper & Brothers will publish immediately 'Strolls by Starlight and Sunshine,' a sumptuous volume written and illustrated by William Hamilton Gibson; 'Curiosities of the American Stage,' by Laurence Hutton, and 'Ten Tales' by François Coppée, translated by Walter Learned.

'Voces Populi' is the title given by F. Anstey, the humorous author of the 'Tinted Venus,' to a series of overheard conversations excerpted from *Punch*, to which Mr. Anstey is a contributor. Longmans, Green & Co. will shortly issue it.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately the Cabinet Edition of 'Jesus, the Messiah,' by Alfred Edersheim; 'Unknown Switzerland,' by Victor Tissot; 'Aunt Dorothy,' an Old Virginia plantation story, by Margaret J. Preston; 'Etchings in Verse,' by Charles Lemuel Thompson; 'The Variations of Calvinism,' by Henry J. Van Dyke; 'Our Father's Kingdom,' by Julius H. Seelye; 'The Hittites: Their Inscriptions and Their History,' by John Campbell, M.A.

An illustrated Biography of Isaac Pitman of Bath, the inventor of Phonography, by Thomas Allen Reed, will be published on December 1 by Griffith, Farran & Co., London. Mr. Pitman, who is in his seventy-eighth year, still presides over the Phonetic Institute at Bath, which he has superintended uninterruptedly for more than half a century.

'Gipsy: the Story of a Dog,' by Mrs. Helen E. Starrett, is to be reprinted in a volume by Searle & Gorton, Chicago—a firm of women, by the way.

'Ways and Means,' by the Rev. F. E. Clark, President of the United Societies of Christian Endeavor, is in the press of D. Lothrop Co., Boston. It treats of the organization and conduct of these societies.

Henry Carey Baird & Co., Philadelphia, are about to bring out in a volume the essays on 'Road-Making and Maintenance' awarded the prizes offered through the University of Pennsylvania by the "Committee on Better Roads" of Philadelphia. Such a work deserves a wide circulation.

Col. T. W. Higginson's first recreation after the war was a revision of Mrs. Elizabeth Carter's standard (and at that time only) English translation of the Works of Epictetus. The result of his labors appeared in 1865, and was reviewed by us at the time. Through the same publishers (Little, Brown & Co.), he now prints a new edition, in two volumes, in response to a gratifying demand. The interval has been so well improved that, as Mr. Higginson says in his new preface, his translation "now bears few traces of Mrs. Carter's." For this reason one would have been glad to see, in this handsome edition, a trace of the good lady and good scholar herself—say a copy of Sir Thomas Lawrence's drawing of her in the National Portrait Gallery. There is no need to recommend these volumes for their contents, or as a permanently choice and suitable gift.

Gebbie & Co. of Philadelphia have published a handsome quarto volume, entitled 'At Susa,' by Mme. Jane Dieulafoy, translated from the French by Frank Linstow White. Mme. Dieulafoy assisted her husband in one of the most successful pieces of archæological work executed in modern times, and this may be said while the full historical value of their labors is not yet apparent. 'At Susa' does not present the serious results, but is simply an entertaining diary of the travel and incidents which attended the two years spent in Persia.

The genesis of the two bulky volumes containing the 'Complete Poetical Works of John Milton' which come to us from the same publishers, may thus be set forth: The quarto size was adopted for the sake of the ancient plates (after Martin, Westall, Flatters, Frost, Bida, etc.), here reproduced by photogravure; the text and notes were borrowed from Bishop Thomas Newton, his edition being at a safe distance of one hundred and fifty years. To all this there would be no objection, but the publishers both misname their "India proof edition," and put it forward as, "on the whole, . . . the best that has ever appeared." Prof. Masson's edition, which we noticed a week ago, furnishes the answer to such a pretension, as regards text or notes or size, if Milton is to be read, and not kept to lumber up the drawing-room table.

The garish all-gold cover of 'The Poet's Year' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.) repels acquaintance with the really good body of selections, in the sequence of the calendar, which Mr. Oscar Fay Adams has here got together. The scheme of this oblong, well-printed volume is, nearly enough, a dozen leaves to each of the twelve months, with illustrations regularly interspersed, not unpleasingly. It would, of course, be easy to make as large a volume, if not as good, out of what regard for the law of copyright or editorial oversight has omitted. Perhaps one might not succeed better with November in finding verse in which the month's name is actually introduced; Mr. Adams fills up freely with Indian Summer. Under this rubric we miss Tom Hood's negative "No-vember," and indeed Mr. Adams quite eschews the humorous, so far as we have observed, else he might have reinforced Lowell's "May is a pious fraud of the almanac" with Cowper's skit on the same theme, in which May pinches blue the scribbling fingers of the poetic hacks who continue to chant her praises rather than those of her next younger sister.

Another, and to us a novel, principle of verse selection is followed in Elizabeth A. Allen's "'Gold Nails' to Hang Memories On" (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), in which Christian names of men and women replace the names of the months in the preceding collection, and a blank space after each name enables the owner of the book to make an autograph album of it. Here, as with Mr. Adams's series, it is easy to suggest omissions—under Lawrence, for example, the Miltonian sonnet begun with that prænomen, and the same poet's "Daughter to that good Earl," under Margaret; under Lucy, Wordsworth's classic lines, and under Thomas, his sonnet to Clarkson; under Patrick, Coleridge's "Dejection," and under Arthur, "Where is the grave of Sir Arthur O'Kellyn?" etc. In fact, there is a needless amount of rhymes expressly made to eke out the gallery, as in the case of Cora, Corinne, where Herrick was ready to stand in the gap. A special index gathers together the historical characters commemorated.

In 'The Day's Message' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) we have a spiritual diary chosen and arranged by "Susan Coolidge," with Job, the Psalms, Tennyson, and Marcus Aurelius on the first page. Fitness to the date is observed where possible, and the compiler's standard is refined and even, as was to be expected.

A companionable little 'Pocket Volume of Selections from the Poetical Works of Robert Browning' has just been issued in London by Smith & Elder (New York: Scribner & Welford). It comprises only the lyrical product of the dead poet, ending with the inspiring epilogue to 'Asolando.'

The indefatigible editor of Thoreau, Mr. H. G. O. Blake, has gathered from his various volumes a little book of selections, 'Thoreau's Thoughts' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), to which is appended a very full bibliography of Thoreau's writings and of criticisms upon him. Thoreau was occasionally a coiner of epigrams, but not sufficiently often to make a reputation as a writer of "thoughts," which must always be judged by the French standard. In his books the current of thought sometimes eddies into a felicity which sums up what has gone before and flashes it out, but the effect is due to the rarity of its occurrence. This volume, therefore, cannot add to Thoreau's reputation, but it may assist in making his works more sought for. The subjects are mainly the inner life, the influences of nature, the dissipation of society; friendship, love, and the sense of the divine element in our lives. They are not treated with that condensation and sharpness which results in maxims or popular quotations, but they illustrate the unity and constancy of Thoreau's mood and his way of taking life. To read a few continuous pages of his volumes, however, would give a better impression of his talent and the peculiarities of his temperament.

The convenient Stott Library does a real service to those with a taste for good literature by including in the series the 'Familiar Letters of James Howell,' edited by Mr. Bennett in two volumes. The introduction is careful and not too long, and the letters themselves are the most agreeable of unlaborious reading, being in the main an intelligent and interested traveller's account of the sights of the Continent and its political news in the first Stuart period, told with a personal touch and often a warmth of friendship that are charming. France, Italy, Spain, and the Low Countries are the ground traversed. The volumes, it should be said, though the editor omits to do so, contain only a portion of the letters; the appearance of the rest, we are told elsewhere, will depend on the public's reception of the present venture.

The eleventh volume of the "Carisbrooke Library" (George Routledge & Sons) consists mainly of 'Gulliver's Travels,' reprinted with great fidelity from the first edition. To these Prof. Morley adds for comparison an account of Cyrano de Bergerac and his 'Voyages to the Sun and Moon,' and sundry small pieces of Swift, including his "Essay on Modern Education," "Hints towards an Essay on Conversation," and "Letter of Advice to a Young Poet."

Tales and romances, original and from the

German, "Klosterheim" leading off and Tieck's "Love Charm" closing the collection, fill the twelfth volume of Masson's edition of De Quincey's writings (Macmillan). They have been got together with no little labor, and several are not to be found in any other collective edition.

The general scrappiness which characterizes the *Bookworm*, and is all the more noticeable when the series is bound up, is relieved in the third volume (A. C. Armstrong & Son) by four papers, by W. Roberts, giving a history of the *Gentleman's Magazine*. The obituary notice of the late lamented William Blades is accompanied by a portrait, and there is a full-length of Mr. F. Locker Lampson in connection with an account of his Rowfant Library. A number of other illustrations are scattered through the volume, over which one may pass an idle hour with some amusement, some instruction, and no expenditure of thought.

Goldthwaite's Geographical Magazine is a new periodical that will make its appearance in this city on January 1, embellished with maps and illustrations (W. M. & J. C. Goldthwaite). The freshest news of exploration and discovery is promised. Each volume will be indexed.

Mr. W. M. Griswold's latest novelty in his useful line of aids to readers and students is a little 'Continuous Index,' of pocket size, issued since October 1. Upwards of forty periodicals are kept the run of. Mr. Griswold, whose address is Cambridge, Mass., desires early subscriptions with a view to the securing of pound rates of postage.

Readers of *Science* have, during several months past, given some attention to a series of articles on meteorological questions by Prof. H. A. Hazen of the Signal Service, from whom, as has been remarked abroad, *Science* takes its tone on these matters. Most of the articles have been reprinted in book form under the name of 'The Tornado,' of which a brief notice has appeared in our columns. Since then we have received two essays which show how completely Prof. Hazen's views are repudiated by other meteorologists. The first is by Dr. Julius Hann of Vienna, the leading meteorologist of Europe, in the *Meteorologische Zeitschrift* for September. The second is by Prof. William Ferrel, the most eminent of American meteorologists, in the *American Meteorological Journal* for November. The same writer had already sent a note to *Science* for October 3; and he now again briefly shows how completely Prof. Hazen has been in the wrong in certain of his fundamental statements. It is not likely that many readers have been seriously affected by the latter's errors, but if they have, it would be well for them to refer to the papers by Ferrel and Hann.

In the eleventh annual report of the Harvard "Annex," there is very gratifying evidence of the service which this institution renders to young women capable of assuming professorial duties in other colleges devoted to their sex, especially since instruction in astronomy has been afforded. Among graduates who have distinguished themselves by special investigations is cited Miss Marion Harwood Gleason, who has produced a monograph on the legislation, colonial and later, respecting fugitive apprentices and slaves, that will shortly be printed. Funds for insuring like publications are solicited. The first scholar-ship has been established, and two new prizes (for a translation from Dante and an essay on him) announced. Dr. Sargent's prize for a metrical translation from Horace, won last year by Miss Helen L. Read in competition with the Harvard undergraduates, is renewed. In all respects the Annex is in a prosperous condition.

Miss Bruce's gift of $6,000 to the Harvard Observatory in aid of astronomical research has been distributed on both sides of the Atlantic, as just announced by Prof. Pickering, who reports several deserving cases that could not be reached, and asks for further gifts, of which the results "would be very far-reaching, and would be attained without delay."

The College of Physicians of Philadelphia invites essays on any subject in medicine, to be sent in before May 1, 1891, in competition for the Alvarenga prize (about $180).

The International Congress of Americanists met this year in Paris for a session of six days, beginning on October 15. M. de Quatrefages of the Institute delivered the opening address, in which he maintained with ardor the thesis that it was by immigration only and not at all by autochthonism that the American continent had been peopled. The second day's sitting was taken up largely by a consideration of the question, now grown wearisome, of an indigenous origin of the name America. By a nearly unanimous vote the Congress decided that this theory ought to be set aside, and that the question ought not to figure hereafter on any order of the day. On the last day there was a most lively debate upon the vexed question of the priority of discovery of America, which everybody will like to read. The next session of the Congress will be held in 1892, in Spain.

The International Congress of the Geographical Sciences will meet in Berne on July 10, 1891, and sit till August 15, participating in the 700th anniversary of the founding of the city.

M. de Nolhac, who is a lecturer at the École des Hautes Études, read at the meeting of the Academy of Belles-Lettres on the 26th of October an account of an unpublished and hitherto unknown work of Petrarch's that he has lately discovered in a manuscript belonging to the Bibliothèque Nationale. Petrarch's unfinished book, 'De Viris Illustribus,' written in Latin and taken for the most part out of Roman history, is well known. M. de Nolhac's discovery reveals an earlier essay of his in the same general direction. It contains thirteen wholly new biographies drawn from the ancient history of the East and from Greek mythology. This collection shows that Petrarch began the 'De Viris' on a different plan and on a much wider scale than that which he adopted in the end. Besides the new biographies, the book has a long preface in which Petrarch explains the aim of his work and the method he has followed in the use of his authorities. This preface, M. de Nolhac thinks, throws much new light on historical study in the fourteenth century, and points out Petrarch as a precursor of the Orientalists of a later time.

We learn that in attributing the revision of the biographical dictionary in the new 'Webster' to the original compiler, we gave credit where none was due; the revision, which was done with unusual care and painstaking, having been made by Mr. A. P. C. Griffin of the Boston Public Library.

—Mr. C. Alexander Nelson writes us from New Orleans:

"The American Publishers' Association's 'little comedy of swindling,' as Mrs. Richards calls it in the *Nation* of the 6th, is not confined to ladies in Maine. They have attempted to foist two un-ordered copies of their book upon me by sending them C. O. D. by express. I enclose a copy of their last cry for help. Evidently they do not consider the books of sufficient worth to order them back and pay the express charges. I wonder if they suppose natives of the Pine Tree State (of whom I have the honor to be one) are more gullible than other people?"

—Among the illustrated holiday books of the year are two from the fertile pencil of George Wharton Edwards. 'Certain Sonnets by Sir Philip Sidney, Kt.' (Cleveland, O.: The Burrows Brothers Co.) is a collection of Sidney's verses, not all sonnets by any means, from the 'Arcadia.' The other is Austin Dobson's 'Sun-Dial' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The two books are much alike, and both show Mr. Edwards's great cleverness in the purely decorative part of the work, while the illustrations proper, reproduced by some one of the "photogravure" processes from drawings in mixed wash and line, are unsatisfactory in direct ratio to their importance. The artist's draughtsmanship is weak and capricious, and his figure-pieces are seldom more than pretty, and not infrequently are lamentably ill-drawn and disjointed. His tendency to "take his own where he finds it," or rather to take whatever he finds that will suit his purpose, also crops out here and there. Dodd, Mead & Co. send us also, under the somewhat infelicitous title of 'The Haunted Pool,' George Sand's 'Mare au Diable,' illustrated with fourteen etchings by E. Rudaux, which are delicate and pleasing, but somewhat over-finished and lacking in character. So far as one can judge without critical comparison with the original, the translation by Frank Hunter Potter is well done and fairly successful in rendering the manner of the book, though its simplicity seems more markedly of purpose in English. The volume will prove a very acceptable holiday gift. Another of the books of the season of far more than an average degree of merit is the 'Selection from the Sonnets of William Wordsworth' (Harper & Bros.), with illustrations by Alfred Parsons. The drawings, many of which are republished from *Harper's Magazine*, are sometimes elaborately delicate in rendering of botanical detail, always accurate, workmanlike, and thoroughly respectable, if somewhat prosaic. The inspiration which Wordsworth himself does not always show, though more often, perhaps, in these sonnets than elsewhere, is lacking, but we should be thankful for serious and sound drawing of landscape, which we cannot often get in book-illustration. Mr. Parsons's few figure drawings are less successful. The printing is good, the paper heavy, and the binding permanent. Everything considered, it is a book to be recommended.

—The prolific letter H reckons its second instalment in Vol. 24 of Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan), and still does not get beyond the first vowel of the alphabet (Hailes–Harriott). In accordance with British admiration for Handel, this composer occupies the greatest space (14 pp.); but his biographers are candid both as regards his originality and his rank in the development of music. It almost seems inharmonious to have the Right Hon. A. J. Balfour cited for the most temperate and critical discussion of the charges of plagiarism against Handel. John Hampden gets 12 pages, King Harold 8, Sir Matthew Hale and Lady Hamilton 7, Bishop Hall, Halley, Halliwell-Phillipps, and Sir William Hamilton about 5 each. Among the throng of Hamiltons one might have expected to find that born British subject, Alexander Hamilton, not less than Judge Haliburton ("Sam Slick") or Charles G. Halpine ("Miles O'Reilly"). American interest is further involved in the notices of Basil Hall, the precursor of Mrs. Trollope, and Marshall Hall, discoverer of the reflex action of the *medulla oblongata*, who combined philanthropy with medical science, and produced, as a result of his travels in this country, a

work on the 'Two-fold Slavery of the United States.' Another celebrity, Jonas Hanway, remembered chiefly for the moral courage which made it "good form" to carry umbrellas in the streets, was a philanthropist of no mean order, yet violently opposed to the naturalization of the Jews; and so voluminous a writer that a mere list of his works fills two pages. The inventor of the Hansom cab appropriately keeps him company in this volume. Thomas Hancock, the English Goodyear; Chester Moor Hall, inventor of the achromatic telescope; James Hargreaves, who gave us the spinning-jenny; and Robert Harrild, who made an enormous contribution to the diffusion of knowledge by substituting composition rollers for the ancient balls with which types were inked, are again names which should be kept in mind. Harrild was also in ordinary ways a public benefactor, and it was he who preserved the printing-press now in the Patent-office at Washington, on which Franklin worked as a journeyman in London. No great literary name distinguishes this volume, or called for treatment at the hands of the senior editor.

—When the *Critic* obtained, by a small post-office ballot, a list of forty favorite American authors—all men—we found some interest in analyzing the list, in respect to birthplaces and local habitations. The result showed that, in the estimate of the readers of a New York periodical, New England yet held its own to a remarkable degree, under both these tests. It may be worth while to make a similar analysis of a corresponding list of women authors lately obtained from the same quarter. We have relied mainly on Mr. Arthur Stedman's "Short Biographies" in the "Library of American Literature," vol. xi., and on Mr. W. M. Griswold's 'Directory of Writers.' It is to be noted, however, that some of the names on the list were evidently selected on other than literary grounds, and the result of the balloting has on the whole a rather boarding-school flavor. The whole number of votes is stated to have been 275 "or more," bestowed as follows: Harriet Beecher Stowe, 268; Frances H. Burnett, 241; Mary N. Murfree (*Charles Egbert Craddock*), 215; Julia Ward Howe, 204; Elizabeth Stuart Phelps Ward, 203; Sarah Orne Jewett, 193; Mary Mapes Dodge, 182; Constance Fenimore Woolson, 149; Edith M. Thomas, 146; Margaret Deland, 142; Adeline D. T. Whitney, 125; Celia Thaxter, 123; Amelia E. Barr, 123; Lucy Larcom, 118; Rose Terry Cooke, 104; Mary Abigail Dodge (*Gail Hamilton*), 102; Harriet Prescott Spofford, 97; Louise Chandler Moulton, 97; Mary E. Wilkins, 96; Blanche Willis Howard Teufel, 84; Mary Hallock Foote, 78; Margaret J. Preston, 75; Sarah Chauncey Woolsey (*Susan Coolidge*), 73; Louise Imogen Guiney, 69; Margaret E. Sangster, 68; Martha J. Lamb, 67; Rebecca Harding Davis, 64; Alice French (*Octave Thanet*), 62; Mary Virginia Terhune (*Marion Harland*), 60; Frances E. Willard, 56; Harriet W. Preston, 54; Mary A. Livermore, 53; Agnes E. Repplier, 52; M. G. Van Rensselaer, 52; Kate Field, 51; Frances Fisher (*Christian Reid*), 49; Helen Gray Cone, 47; S. M. B. Piatt, 47; Elizabeth B. Custer, 37; Elizabeth B. Stoddard, 31.

—The analysis of birth and residence is as follows: *Birthplaces*—(Mass.) Ward, Whitney, Larcom, M. A. Dodge, Wilkins, Guiney, Lamb, French, H. W. Preston, Livermore, Stoddard, 11; (N. Y.) Howe, M. M. Dodge, Foote, Sangster, Willard, Van Rensselaer, Cone, 7; (Conn.) Stowe, Cooke, Moulton, Woolsey, 4; (Pa.) Deland, M. J. Preston, Davis, Repplier, 4; (Maine) Jewett, Spofford, Teufel, 3; (N. H.) Woolson, Thaxter, 2; (England) Burnett, Barr, 2; (Ohio) Thomas, 1; (Tenn.) Murfree, 1; (Va.) Terhune, 1; (Mo.) Field, 1; (Ky.) Piatt, 1; (N. C.) Fisher, 1; (Mich.) Custer, 1. *Residences:* (Mass.) Howe, Ward, Jewett, Deland, Whitney, Thaxter, Larcom, Spofford, Moulton, Wilkins, Guiney, Livermore, 12; (N. Y.) M. M. Dodge, Thomas, Barr, Sangster, Lamb, Terhune, Van Rensselaer, Field, Cone, Custer, Stoddard, 11; (Europe) Woolson, Teufel, H. W. Preston, 3; (D. C.) Burnett, M. A. Dodge, 2; (Conn.) Stowe, Cooke, 2; (Pa.) Davis, Repplier, 2; (Miss.) Piatt, Willard, 2; (Mo.) Murfree, 1; (Va.) M. J. Preston, 1; (Iowa) French, 1; (R. I.) Woolsey, 1; (Idaho) Foote, 1; (La.) Fisher, 1.

—The attention which "General" Booth's panacea for abolishing poverty is receiving gives a timely flavor to Prof. A. G. Warner's excellent paper on "Experiments in Behalf of the Unemployed," in the last issue of the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. The Booth scheme is for the transportation of great numbers of the city poor to agricultural colonies, in the country or beyond sea, where they may have healthful work and the chance of independent support. The idea is not novel, but the actual experiment on a great scale would be, and it is therefore pertinent to ask what the smaller experiments of the sort have amounted to. Prof. Warner's paper gives some attention to the Provident Wood Yards which have been tried in some of our cities, but is chiefly concerned with the laborers' colonies of Germany and Holland. The German experiments have been tried on a considerable scale since 1882. There are twenty-one colonies, with accommodations for 2,500 laborers at a time; and a total of 36,000 persons have been admitted to them since the start. The inmates are given work, chiefly farm labor, and the object is to train them to become independent and self-supporting. The success has been of the most moderate sort. A few of the colonists graduate into independence, but the majority continue to be what they were before—tramps. Indeed, a regular class of bummers has grown up "who go from colony to colony, with brief periods of wandering freedom between dismission from one and admission to the other." A very large proportion of the colonists are ex-convicts, and Prof. Warner notes that the work of the colonies corresponds largely to that done by our Prisoners' Aid Associations. The Dutch experiments have been of a different sort. In the laborers' colonies of Holland, the poor are planted permanently on considerable tracts of land, and removed for good from the ordinary competitive struggle of life. After an apprenticeship as laborers on model farms, they are made tenants of small plots on easy terms, with an outfit given. The results are less unsatisfactory than those of the German scheme, for these manufactured farmers maintain themselves with at least an appearance of thrift. But they are not entirely self-sustaining; the experiment as a whole, which is in charge of a State aided association, needs regular charitable support; and, most striking of all, the number of colonists established tends to decline rather than increase. Our own impression is that Prof. Warner gives a rather more favorable account of the operations than the history of the Dutch experiment warrants; but at best the story does not inspire hope that the colonizing scheme will prove the long-sought panacea against poverty.

—It would not be surprising if the success of the new systems of balloting suggested by the Australian law should give an impetus to another reform originating from the same remote source—the registration of titles. Nor is it surprising that a movement in this direction is beginning to make itself felt in Massachusetts, a community that seems to be quite as progressive as any of its sister States. The customary practice of recording deeds grows more and more cumbersome, and, after all, as Lord Cairns said, "It only puts on a formal record all that multitude of deeds and conveyances of the extent and complexity of which we have already so much reason to complain." The principal merit of the Australian system is declared by Sir Robert Torrens, its originator, to lie in the avoidance of "the accumulation of instruments with voluminous indexes." Under this system the landowner may, by proving his title before the registrar, obtain a certificate from the State that he is the owner in fee, and thereafter the land thus registered cannot be conveyed by deed. The certificate operates as a State warranty of title, being conclusive evidence in any court. Sales and mortgages are conducted in much the same way that we now effect transfers of shares of stock in corporations. While it may be admitted that this system is extremely simple and inexpensive, and that it gives great security of title, it should not be forgotten that a considerable portion of the existing fabric of credit rests upon the law of liens upon real estate. Creditors will not be hasty in approving a law that will enable a man to convert his land into cash at an hour's notice; and it may be argued that a sound business policy requires that some form of property should exist which can be converted only after such delay as will afford some opportunity for creditors to secure their claims. The matter of proving titles, too, in an old community is a serious obstacle. The subject is too complicated to be fully considered here, but it can do no harm to suggest to the advocates of the reform that they will promote their cause by a careful and even sympathetic consideration of the objections that will be raised, even though many of these objections emanate from the selfish opposition of vested interests.

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION OF MADISON.—I.

History of the United States of America during the First Administration of James Madison. By Henry Adams. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. 1890.

It is no fault of Mr. Adams that the earlier portion of this history, at least so much as covers events prior to the declaration of war with England in 1812, should be less interesting than his former volumes devoted to the Administration of Jefferson. Madison was essentially a "closet statesman," and as an executive officer and political leader he must be accepted as a much less imposing figure than the Sage of Monticello and Apostle of American Democracy. It must be confessed, moreover, that the stream of our national life flowed over the flats and shallows of much helpless and hopeless irresolution from the beginning of Madison's first term down to the eventful day when, on the 18th of June, 1812, the nation plunged into the tempests of an unknown sea—into a war of which nobody could foresee the consequences.

A narrative history of the successive phases under which our diplomatic and political vacillations appear, disappear, and reappear in this long period, is likely to be tedious just in proportion to the minuteness and fidelity with which the story is told. The monotony of the British aggressions on our commerce, committed under color of the Orders in Council, and the monotony of the similar aggressions

committed by Napoleon under color of his Imperial Decrees, are exceeded only by the monotony of the counter-proceedings with which the Government of the United States vainly sought some way of escape from the devouring maw of one monster without rushing into the open jaws of the other—an alternative choice of evils which the nation was obliged to make, because it evidently was not equal to the task of grappling with both monsters at once. The legislation and the diplomacy of the country during the whole epoch were involved in a mesh of uncertainties, and presented a painful object-lesson in confirmation of that fine saying of Bacon, that "truth emerges sooner from error than from confusion." The country for long and weary years had not enough of pith or purpose to venture on the hazards of any affirmative policy, lest haply that policy should prove to be a blunder, and so continued to flounder in a slough of despond without the courage to draw resolution from its despair, and without seeking to find correctives for its imbecility in the possible mistakes of positive action in any given direction. The Government rested in a practical state of unmasterly inactivity, or rather, we should say, in a state of diplomatic and political see-saw as it librated between the English Cabinet and the French Emperor. If this libration was not the greatest mistake of all, it was at least likely to be regarded as the mark and sign of a discretion which transcended valor. In England and France it was sneeringly charged that the United States was shielding itself behind the coward's insensibility to insult.

Mr. Adams gives us a very exact description of all these perplexities during the period when the more the medley of our politics changed, "the more it was the same thing," to use the oft-quoted phrase of the French wit. The difficulties of the situation are naturally reflected in the difficulties of the literary art which is called to hold up its mirror to these dissolving views. But for this reason Mr. Adams does not shirk the duty of the faithful historian as he discloses to us the subsidence of faction at the beginning of Madison's Administration; the brief alienation from France which, in 1809, was for a time so full of promise to the Federalists, and which created for Madison a popularity as transient as it was delusive; the seeming concessions of Canning, as he trod with uncertain steps "among the slippery and ill-balanced stepping-stones" of the British *via mala;* the ill-omened arrangement of Erskine, concerted in neglect of his instructions, with its consequent disavowal by the British Government; the brief diplomatic career of "Copenhagen" Jackson, brought to such a dramatic close by an insolence which had at least the merit of being in keeping with *his* instructions; the triumph of Napoleon as, fresh from the bloody field of Wagram, and with his foot on the neck of Austria, he launched the Decree of Vienna, which sequestered at will every American ship that came within his military control. At this stage of Mr. Adams's narrative we are landed in the heart of the plot which awaits its slow dénouement in the subsequent pages of this history.

It was universally felt in the United States, at least among the Republicans, that the disavowal of Erskine's arrangement "had capped the climax of British atrocity." But now it was that the insolence of Napoleon came to put a fresh affront on the honor and rights of the nation. Yet the double-headed aggression did but set in stronger relief the executive weakness and the legislative impotence which it served to explain. Without were fightings and within were fears; for Madison's Cabinet had been handicapped from the beginning with the incapacity of Robert Smith, the Secretary of State, while the anti-Gallatin faction, in the Senate and press, was working at perpetual cross-purposes with the Administration it professed to support on the lines of a Republicanism more Republican than that of Madison himself.

Mr. Adams does not blink the difficulties of the situation created for Madison by causes beyond his control, but evidently thinks that the evil of the situation was intensified by Madison's incapacity to deal with the duties and trials of executive administration. Everybody will admit, as has been already implied, that Madison is seen at his best in the mild wisdom with which he always sought to arbitrate among interfering claims of opinion or inclination in the forum of civil debate, rather than in the high and quick resolve which plucks the flower safety from the nettle danger. But, after all due allowance made for the defects of his qualities, the average reader will sometimes wish that the historian could have looked with as much complacency on the bright side as on the "seamy side" of the character and conduct here described.

At the threshold of the story it is charged that Madison, in his inaugural address, made use of conventional speech in order to conceal, rather than reveal, his thoughts; that "the resemblance between him and a cardinal" was not imaginary, because he could bide his time in supplanting a friend who was in his way; that if his fame as a statesman should rest on what he wrote as President, he would be thought "among the dullest of men"; that he had "a feminine faculty for pressing a delicate point" in matters of controversy; that the "unfailing note of his mind was irritability without passion"; that he was "always treated by his associates with a shade of contempt as a closet politician," and "paid surprisingly little regard to rules of consistency or caution"; that, though "doubtless a man of veracity," he risked statements in the matter of the alleged revocation of the French decrees in 1810 which he had every reason to believe were fallacious, and which he continued to reaffirm after everybody in England had detected their falsity, and after everybody in America who was willing to confess the truth could but "laugh in his face" for the pertinacity with which he clung to the French legend. Such "pertinacity" was entirely in keeping with Madison's character as portrayed by Mr. Adams. He says that Madison, though never carried away by bursts of passion, "was fretful rather than vehement, pertinacious rather than resolute." It is admitted that this pertinacity sometimes served him a good turn, as when, for instance, it caused "the pliable nature of Monroe" to succumb to executive dictation soon after that statesman entered the Cabinet of Madison with views very different from those he was made to support.

As to the much-mooted topic of the alleged revocation of the French Decrees in 1810, on which the whole policy of the Administration was subsequently made to hinge, we do not purpose to hackle anew the well-beaten straw which Mr. Adams passes through the sharp teeth of his threshing machine. That straw was beaten with a thousand flails on the threshing-floors of English and American diplomacy at the period in question. It is not necessary to inquire what Napoleon really meant to say when he directed the Duc de Cadore to acquaint Armstrong, the Minister of the United States, on the 5th of August, 1810, with the following intelligence: "I am authorized to declare to you that the Decrees of Berlin and Milan are revoked, and that, after November 1, they will cease to have effect—bien entendu qu'en conséquence de cette déclaration les Anglais révoqueront leurs Arrêts du Conseil, et renonceront aux nouveaux principes de blocus qu'ils ont voulu établir; ou bien que les États-Unis, conformément à l'acte que vous venez de communiquer, feront respecter leurs droits par les Anglais."

Whether this latter clause, which we have preferred to cite in the French original rather than in Mr. Adams's translation, was meant to signify a "condition *precedent*" or a "condition *subsequent*"; whether the revocation of the French Decrees, declared to be actual in the first clause, imposed at once an obligation on the English Government to recall its Orders in Council, since the latter were "retaliatory" on the former; or whether that Government might properly wait till the 1st of November to see if the Decrees would really cease to have effect at that date—that is, whether the interval between August 5 and the 1st of November was meant to serve as a *locus penitentiæ* for France and England, while serving as a stumbling-block for the United States—all these are questions which, for the nicety of their terms, may be said to rival the famous distinctions between the question *de fait* and the question *de droit* which once figured so largely in the controversy waged between Jesuits and Jansenists over the 'Augustinus' as it *was*, and the 'Augustinus' as it was *understood* in the Monastery of Port Royal. Mr. Adams, we observe, omits to mention that the disputed clause, in the shape given to it by the Duc de Cadore, differs in phraseology from the minute of the note as preserved in the 'Correspondance de Napoléon I.,' at the opening part of its twenty-first volume, and differs in a way which would have made it impossible for Madison to commit the mistranslation ascribed to him.

It is not difficult to perceive the sense in which Cadore's words were understood by Armstrong in Paris, by Pinkney, our Minister, in London, and by Madison in Washington. And it is not difficult to perceive, that the words were, on their face, susceptible of the meaning given to them by the American authorities, and that Madison may have been honest, if over-credulous, in presuming that the words were meant to signify what they imported instead of being a trap set for him by the French Emperor. It is true that, in accepting the words as an immediate and prospective revocation of the Decrees, and in promptly acting upon that understanding, he pierced himself through with many sorrows, and was betrayed into a diplomatic position which he felt to be most uncomfortable, and which was made doubly uncomfortable by the slings and arrows of the Federalists. In his judgment on the case, Mr. Adams sides in these volumes with the Federalists and the British Cabinet; but in his excellent 'Life of Gallatin' we understand him to be less censorious on the same showing of facts. In that Life he says (p. 461) that "the diplomatic mistake [made by Madison] did not affect the essential merits of the case, and the factiousness of Congress merely prevented the possibility of a peaceful solution [of pending questions with England]. Neither the one nor the other offers the smallest evidence of inconsistency in Mr. Madison or in his Cabinet."

The duplicity of Napoleon in the premises cannot be overstated. In close connection with the foregoing statement in his Gallatin biography, Mr. Adams remarks that while "there is reason to regret that Mr. Madison should have made himself so eagerly the dupe

of Napoleon," yet it still remains to say that "the good faith of the American Government cannot be called in question." Cobbett, we know, wrote from his Newgate prison a frank defence of the American position in this matter, though it is not cited by Mr. Adams. The best exposition of the American contention is undoubtedly that found in the despatch of Pinkney to Lord Wellesley under date of December 10, 1810. For nice analysis of documentary evidence that paper has rarely been surpassed. Mr. Adams finds the argument of Pinkney "not easy to understand." We have read it, and find it quite intelligible. We find no paradox in Pinkney's logic, and therefore cannot concur with Mr. Adams's suggestion that the American diplomatist thought his argument would produce the stronger impression the more paradoxical it was. As his ground for this suggestion, the author says that in 1810 "centuries of study at Oxford and Edinburgh, and generations devoted to the logic or rhetoric of Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian, had left the most educated classes of Great Britain still in the stage of culture where reasoning, in order to convince, must cease to be reasonable." We know that the study of Greek and Latin has been held responsible for much mischief, but we had not supposed that the case was quite so bad as Mr. Adams hints.

In assessing the measure of blame that should be visited on the Government of the United States for its vacillations in the critical matter of declaring war against England in 1812, it seems to us that Mr. Adams is both more happy and more just in the judgment he pronounces under this head in the same Life of Gallatin to which we have already referred. He there says that Madison had been ready in 1808–9 "to throw forward the flag of the country," if only he could be assured that "the people would press onward to defend it." "He had urged measures almost equivalent to war," adds Mr. Adams, "in every following session, so far as Congress would allow him to do so. . . . It is not to be denied that his party was far behind him, and that as a consequence the whole foreign policy from February, 1809, to June, 1812, was one long series of blunders and misfortunes" ('Life of Gallatin,' pp. 460-461). If here the blame is properly assessed, it is also properly laid at the door of public sentiment. If even the Republican party was not ready for war, what shall be said of the Federalists, who, when the war came, were well-nigh ready to take sides, argumentatively at least, with the public enemy? As early as 1809 the Governor of Connecticut, when asked to assist with the State militia in the enforcement of the embargo, had declined a compliance with the request, because the Embargo Act "interfered with the State sovereignties," while the Legislature of the State affirmed it to be the duty of the State authorities "to watch over the powers not delegated to the United States, but reserved to the States respectively or to the people."

London Street Arabs. By Mrs. H. M. Stanley. Cassell & Co. 1890.

MRS. HENRY M. STANLEY'S graceful little book, consisting of a dozen pages of introduction and about two-score of wood-engravings from her drawings, all preceded by a portrait of herself, falls in very happily with the spirit of her husband's more extensive work. It proves that Mrs. Stanley also is in her own way an adventurous and persistent explorer of phases of life almost as unknown and as dark as those in "darkest Africa" itself.

Mrs. Stanley, under her maiden name of Dorothy Tennant, has long been well known to many circles of society on account of her several gifts and graces. She was at once recognized as the original of one of Sir John Millais's most popular pictures, called "Yes or No?" with which almost every one is familiar through engravings. Her beauty was also celebrated on canvas by the eminent painter of so many of England's famous men, Mr. G. F. Watts. But her best title to lasting reputation Miss Tennant earned for herself by her faithful and touching delineations in oil of the manners and habits of the little waifs and strays of stony London deserts. Hitherto, however, only the fortunate few who frequent the London picture exhibitions have been able to make acquaintance with Mrs. Stanley's portrayal of street Arab life. It is pleasant, therefore, to welcome this first venture of hers in book form, and doubly pleasant to be let by her into the method and secret of her work.

The secret of her success is, after all, no other than the time-honored one of patient industry. The best recipe she knows, for instance, for learning to draw babies is, she tells her readers, "to go out for a walk, determined to shut your eyes to everything but babies. For half an hour study the average of babies' arms; then take the average of mouths and noses—the way their pinafores get huddled up—the way their socks run down into their heavy little laced boots, etc., etc." To coax a small ragamuffin as model into a studio requires, according to Mrs. Stanley, a large expenditure of "time, eloquence, and sixpences." The ragamuffin is shy about venturing into unfamiliar precincts, and is besides an excitement-loving elf, so that after he is caught he must, if he is to be kept, be well entertained. Mrs. Stanley's piano grew prematurely old under the thumping fore-fingers of ragamuffins whom she was successively forced to teach how to strum "God Save Our Gracious Queen." She may surely be pardoned for vigorously denying that her piano could play any other tune besides.

In return for her pains, Mrs. Stanley not only finds that "the more you look the better you draw," but also that

"the little model always interests or amuses you. He tells you true stories and makes deep observations; he confides in you and wishes to please you; so that after a while you find yourself attached to Tommy Jones, or Freddy Scott, and you confide *in him*, and even consult him, his opinion of your work being by no means to be despised, since he frequently improves the picture by suggesting modifications in the attitudes."

The drawings which form the chief part of this delightful little volume, are executed in an admirable spirit of realism. Only very occasionally does a touch of sentimentalism give a more conventional character to a sketch, or has a hackneyed vein of pathos been indulged, the latter principally in the case of the Italian-eyed little musician who gazes hungrily and despairingly into a cheap eating-house window (we hope it is not without intention that the man in the background is in the act of putting a hand into his trousers-pocket), and who reappears on another page in a desolate garret, trying to warm and comfort a small sister. But as a whole the pictures are full of originality. The street Arab leaps and plays on Mrs. Stanley's pages with an ease and abandon to be seen nowhere else off the pavement which is at once his nursery, his school-room, and his playground. He is instinct with life and motion and animal spirits. Mrs. Stanley knows every turn of his head, every line of his supple little body. Nor is it to be supposed that it is only the male Arab of the street who here finds himself perpetuated in black and white. The bare-legged, shock-headed little girl is to be seen sharing with her brother in the delights of the kerbstone. More often, it is to be noted, she exhibits signs of thoughtfulness beyond her years, gazing reflectively at the baby she is minding, or pinning a shawl closely about the head of a shred of humanity still smaller than herself. Sometimes, however, she throws herself with all her soul into the unexpected chance of a swing or a hilarious dance to the tune of a hand-organ.

The engraver has not done his work as well as might have been wished and as the artistic merit of the pictures deserves. But the prints, whatever may be their shortcomings as to workmanship, are eminently humanizing in their effect. No one, after looking over them, can ever again be quite blind to some of the pictures that meet the eye on almost every walk in a large city, nor to the deep pathos of the lot of the almost unfathered and unmothered children of the "submerged tenth." Mrs. Stanley's insight into the nature of the ragamuffin is rare and unusual, but the springs of pity and sympathy she touches are fortunately common to all.

By Leafy Ways: Brief Studies from the Book of Nature. By Francis A. Knight. Illustrated by E. T. Compton. Fourth edition. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1890.

Idylls of the Field. By Francis A. Knight. Illustrated by E. T. Compton. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1890.

THESE two idyllic volumes by an English lover of English nature differ from those to which our American descendants of Thoreau have accustomed us by being wholly free from any meditative strain, any sophistication of the intellect, any intrusion of self-consciousness of the Concord stripe. They are most direct in their method, and show an author contented to use his eyes, and to tell us over and over again what he has seen of the life of birds and the little beasts of the field and river, and the beautiful changes of atmosphere and sea in which these have their being. Indeed, Mr. Knight almost overwhelms the reader's attention by the multitude of minute facts of mere vision which he records, and he is never tired of repeating that the air is warm and the sky is blue, the swallows flying and the plover calling, so that the "perpetual miracle" of nature is as constant with each of his chapters as it is with each of his mornings. This abundance of detail and unceasing freshness of pleasure in it makes the books little fitted for continuous reading. The sketches were originally written for the *Daily News*, and hence have a unity each by each which they lack when strung together. The reader, too, is wearied by the unfortunate affectation of rhythmical sentences and the recurrence of paragraphs so short as to make the page resemble chapters of Biblical verses. With these drawbacks, however, our criticism ends; in the substance of the work is an immense information about English wild-nature, and this is given with so true a love of the living things, and so fine an eye for landscape, and besides with so much real poetical feeling, that the books are treasure-trove to the initiated. The newest of the volumes, 'Idylls of the Field,' is more definite and ordered and more localized, the Devon coast taking in it the place that the Norfolk Broads hold in the first; and once the story leaps to Germany. Birds are the principal subject, and after them the seacoast, and morning and evening. If any one would know the elements of beauty in the

foggy island, he cannot do better than seek an introduction through these sketches; but he must have something of the poet's soul.

Over the Teacups. By Oliver Wendell Holmes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THE literary recreations of Dr. Holmes in his age keep the old lines in which he pleased an earlier generation of readers, and he is still mainly the poet and the talker. The present volume follows, as naturally as the years themselves, its predecessors, with a full circle about the table whose conversations found nearly forty years ago so fortunate a reporter, and whose occasional poems were received with a general welcome. Those who were most attracted by the earlier books of the Autocrat in his various changes of character, have no doubt already made acquaintance with these last papers, to which we have referred as they appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and have found in them the same discursiveness, happy sayings, and acute remarks, mingled with the new reminiscent flavor which is a marked trait of Dr. Holmes's later writings. There is the same slight thread of a story serving to bind into something like continuity the fragments of essay and discussion; and none of the old leading interests—the physician's, the poet's, the quasi-theologian's—are missed from the pages. The sign of the new age is occasionally stamped on the topic, as in the paper on the delights of a socialistic and altogether equal state of life on a neighboring planet; but the treatment is that of which the success had already been assured. Of the new poems none is likely to be remembered longer than the "Broomstick Train," in which the reader recognizes the peculiar characteristics of the author's muse, and sees that it was written with real interest and remarkable vivacity of mind.

In the book, it is felt, Dr. Holmes means rather to greet his old readers, and to keep companionship with them to the end, than to appeal to the tastes and hearts of the new generation; and this feeling is enhanced by the intimacy with which he opens himself to the sympathies of his audience. Nor does he now lay down the pen, but promises to continue his occasional observations, sure of a welcome which does not wear out.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, W. J. Battle Fields and Camp Fires. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
About, E. L'Homme à l'Oreille Cassée. William R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
American Boys' Manual of Practical Mechanics. Dick & Fitzgerald. 50 cents.
Babyland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Balzac, H. de. The Chouans. Cassell Publishing Co.
Bolognesi, P. R. Il Mio Poema. Florence: Le Monnier.
Bray, S. Alice. The Baby's Journal. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Bruglère, Sarah Van Buren. Good Living. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Bunner, H. C. "Short Sixes." Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Cady, Annie Cole. Worthington's History of the United States. Worthington Co. 50 cents.
Caslemon, H. Rodney the Partisan. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Codman, J. The Question of Ships. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Cope, R. The Distribution of Wealth. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Cories, E. "A Woman in the Case." Boston: The Occult Publishing Co.
Dale, A. An Old Maid Kindled. G. W. Dillingham.
Detlef, C. A. Russian Country House. Worthington Co. 50 cents.
Dickinson, Emily. Poems. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Dobson, A. Four Frenchwomen. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Du Croquet, C. P. First Course in French Conversation. Recitation, and Reading. William R. Jenkins. $1.
Durham, W. Astronomy: Sun, Moon, Stars, etc. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 50 cents.
Eaton, Frances. Dollikens and the Miser. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Electricity in Daily Life. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Etheridge, Mary Lee. Mrs. Muff and Her Friends. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Eytinge, Rose, and Fisher, S. Ada. It Happened this Way. United States Book Co.
Farrar, C. S. Art Topics. Chicago: Chas. S. Farrar & Co.
Fenn, G. M. Cutlass and Cudgel. Brentano's. $1.50.
Flammarion, Camille. Urania. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.50.
Fletcher, C. R. L. Gustavus Adolphus. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Fox, L. A. Evidence of a Future Life. Philadelphia: Lutheran Pub lcation Society.
Fuller Mabel Louise. In Poppy Land. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Gautier, L. Chivalry. George Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
Gibbens, H. de B. Industrial History of England. London: Methuen & Co.
Glazebrook, M. G. Lessons from the Old Testament. Vol. II. London: Percival & Co.
Haggard, H. R., and Lang, A. The World's Desire. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Heimburg, W. A Sister's Love. Worthington Co.
Higginson, T. W. The Works of Epictetus. New ed. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Houssaye, H. Cleopatra. Duprat & Co.
Houston, E. J. A Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms, and Phrases. The W. J. Johnston Co.
Hugo, V. Les Travailleurs de la Mer. William R. Jenkins. $1.
Ingersoll, E. The Silver Caves. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Jacobs, J. English Fairy Tales. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Knight, W. Essays in Philosophy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Kobbé, G. Wagner's Life and Works. 2 vols. G. Schirmer. $3.
Knox, T. W. Horse Stories. Cassell Publishing Co.
Kurz, Isolde. Phantasien und Märchen. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen.
Locke, D. R. The Demagogue. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
MacDonald, G. The Golden Key. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 35 cents.
McKay, F. E. Vignettes: Real and Ideal. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Mahaffy, Rev. J. P. Greek Pictures Drawn with Pen and Pencil. New York: Fleming H. Revell. $2.50.
Maloi, H. Sans Famille. William R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Maupassant, G. de. Pierre et Jean. Chicago: Laird & Lee
Mereweau, W. T. Vesper Bells. New York: Privately Printed.
Molière. Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme. D. C. Heath & Co.
Molière. Le Tartuffe. D. C. Heath & Co.
Morehead, W. K. Wanneta, the Sioux. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Morris, W. News from Nowhere; or, An Epoch of Rest. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

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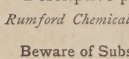

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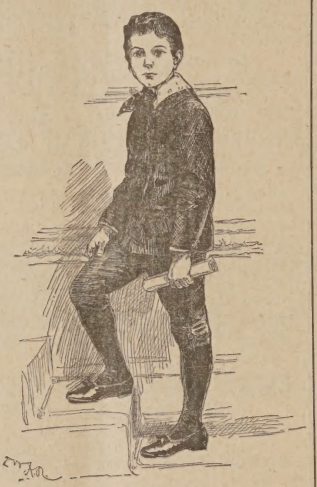

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THE PICTURES.

So much has been said of the charming illustrations of *St. Nicholas*, they have been so often and so highly praised, they have brought warm words of commendation from high authorities in England as well as in America—that we should run the risk of becoming tedious if we enlarged upon them and their rare educational, refining influence. The leading paper of Edinburgh pronounces the illustrations "infinitely superior" to anything produced in juvenile publications in Great Britain. The London *Spectator* calls *St Nicholas* "the best of all children's magazines," and "The Thunderer," the London *Times* itself, pronounced *St. Nicholas* superior to anything of its kind in England, and said that its "pictures are often works of real art, not only as engravings, but as compositions of original design."

IN CONCLUSION.

Of the success of the magazine it is not needful to speak. Eminent persons have subscribed for the benefit of those not able to pay for it, for the sake of its educating influence. The Ames family subscribe yearly for two hundred copies for the children of the employees in their works at North Easton, Mass. In the third largest public library in America, more than three thousand people read *St. Nicholas* every month.

When the magazine began, Charles Dudley Warner said: "If the children don't like it, I think it is time to begin to change the kind of children in this country." Well, the children do like it, but, all the same, *St. Nicholas* has changed the kind of children. It cannot be that multitudes of them should see such pictures and read such stories and poems without being better, more thoughtful, more refined, and in many ways another kind of children than those who have gone before them. *St. Nicholas* has a great list of attractive features for the coming year; it will be "better than ever," the editors say, but just how they are going to manage it is a puzzle. The price is $3.00 a year, and the publishers, The Century Company, 33 East Seventeenth Street, New York, will be glad to send a recent back number, without charge, to any reader of this article who is unfamiliar with *St. Nicholas*.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 27, 1890.

The Week.

THE dimensions of the recent political revolution are strikingly portrayed in a table compiled by the Chicago *Tribune*, which covers the ten Congressional farming districts of Illinois, and which shows the majority for the Republican candidates in each of the districts in 1888, and the Republican and Democratic majorities when the same men ran for re-election in 1890:

		1888.	1890.	
		Rep. Maj.	Rep. Maj.	Dem. Maj.
5	Hopkins	10,059	5,782	
6	Hitt	6,236	502	
7	Henderson	5,039	2,572	
8	Hill	3,142		702
9	Payson	2,381		1,021
10	Post	2,658	813	
11	Gest	2,077		1,882
14	Roswell	1,830		1,222
15	Cannon	2,093		583
20	Smith	1,819	452	
	Majorities	44,690	10,126	5,415
	Net Rep. Maj.	44,690	4,711	

It will be seen that in 1888, before they had voted for the McKinley Bill, every one of the Republican candidates was elected, their majorities aggregating 44,690; while in 1890, after they had voted for the McKinley Bill, five of them were defeated, and all ten of them received only 4,711 more votes than their Democratic opponents—a net loss of almost 40,000 votes.

The Committee of Ways and Means in the present House of Representatives consists of eight Republicans and four Democrats. All of the Democratic members have been re-elected, while three of the Republicans have been defeated, and one (Bayne of Pennsylvania) declined a re-election. The three defeated members are McKinley, Gear, and La Follette. Another (Payne of New York) had his former majority of 10,000 cut down to 2,000. A committee so constituted cannot have any real influence in the House. Such standing as it has is merely mechanical. It can obstruct business, but it can do nothing more. It can prevent a vote being taken on any measure to repeal or modify the McKinley tariff, whether the same shall be introduced by Republicans or by Democrats. It is altogether likely that some such measure or measures will be introduced by Republicans, and it is even possible that they might command a majority vote if a vote upon them could be obtained. McKinley will find a way, however, to block any such game, and the Speaker will help him if he needs help. Meanwhile, the McKinley Bill, with its tide of rising prices, will grind the faces of the people and prepare them for the next series of elections.

The demand of Western Republican newspapers that the Republicans shall reopen the tariff question and modify the McKinley Bill as soon as Congress meets, shows no sign of abatement. The clerk of the House Ways and Means Committee, who is also Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger*, informed his newspaper the other day that there is reason to believe that if the House could have an opportunity to vote on separate bills to make salt, lumber, wool, binding-twine, and other commodities free, and to restore the former rate on tin plate, some of them would prevail, but that the Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee will not allow any such bills to come to a vote. In other words, the Reed-McKinley faction know that bills to reduce the tariff would pass the House—and if the House, the Senate also—if they were put to vote, and they will refuse to allow the majority a chance for a vote. The Omaha *Bee* says of this policy: "There is no valid reason why eight men in the House of Representatives should refuse to permit any change to be made in a law which the popular judgment of the country does not sustain, particularly in the event of proposed changes coming from the Republican side of the House, as doubtless some will. If the Committee shall pursue the arbitrary course suggested as probable by its clerk, the effect upon public opinion is very likely to be unfavorable, and assuredly the Republican party would lose thereby."

Among the McKinley muddles that are coming to light day by day, one of the most interesting is that which grows out of the Worsted Bill, which was passed on the 9th of May last. The worsted people could not wait for the regular McKinley Bill to give them what they wanted. Nor could they rest content with the decision of Secretary Windom that worsted goods were dutiable as woollen goods, although the Tariff Act of 1883 had made worsteds dutiable at a lower rate than woollens. So they went to Congress and persuaded McKinley to pass a special act for them in these words:

> "That the Secretary of the Treasury be and he is hereby authorized and directed to classify as woollen cloths all imports of worsted cloth, whether known under the name of worsted cloth or under the name of worsteds, or diagonals, or otherwise."

It will be observed that this law does not in any way change the rates of duty on woollens or worsteds. It merely says that the Secretary of the Treasury shall classify worsteds as woollens. What might be the effect of such a law if the Secretary of the Treasury were the classifying officer of customs is at least doubtful, but he has nothing to do with classifications. Prior to the passage of the McKinley Administrative Bill, the Secretary could take action in classifications on appeal from decisions of the collectors, and not otherwise; but even this power is taken away from him now, and lodged with a Board of General Appraisers. Here is "a pretty kettle of fish." No wonder that the persons importing worsteds prior to the 6th of October, when the McKinley tariff went into effect, have put in claims for the difference between the worsted rate of the tariff of 1883 and the woollen rates in the same tariff, which difference is about 11 per cent. The case has been submitted to Judge Lacombe of the United States Circuit Court, under the McKinley Administrative Act. The General Appraisers have washed their hands of it, there being no facts in controversy, but merely a question of law. It looks as though Uncle Sam were about to be mulcted in a large sum for refunds again, but not so large as in the hat-trimmings case.

We are astonished to find people under arrest in Philadelphia, of all places in this world, on charges of smuggling carpet wool. Such a case was on trial there on Saturday. The alleged culprit is J. Henry Schmidt, a wool broker. He is charged with importing 162 bales of wool under an invoice describing the same as "cattle hair," which is free of duty. The wool was passed as hair by a customs examiner named Brearly, and the bulk of it was then sold to Thomas Dolan & Co. Mr. Dolan is President of the Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia, and is a tremendous high-tariff man. The examination has not been concluded, and Mr. Schmidt is out on bail of $5,000, furnished by John Dobson, a carpet-manufacturer, and another great high-tariff light of the Quaker City. The Boston *Journal of Commerce*, commenting on the case, says, "The probabilities are, if the allegations are true, that there are more than the importer connected with the affair." But the allegations may not be true.

Congressman Dingley has told Editor Dingley that the recent advance in the price of carpets is not due to the increased duty on carpet wool, but to the fact that last year there was a glut in the carpet market and prices went down below cost and are now coming up to their normal price, and Editor Dingley has printed this statement in his newspaper, the Lewiston (Me.) *Journal*. Congressman Dingley ought not to deceive Editor Dingley with half-truths in this way. It is true that there was some overproduction of carpets last year, and that prices were unnaturally low. It is also true that the duty on carpet wool has been raised from two and one-half cents per pound (which is equal to 27 per cent. ad valorem) to 32 per cent. ad valorem. As all our carpet wool is imported, and none can be obtained without the 32 per cent. tax except by smuggling—which is an extremely hazardous undertaking—it follows that carpet-manufacturers must pay 8 per cent. more for their wool than formerly. In addition to this

advance in cost there are a lot of new and embarrassing regulations in the McKinley Administrative Bill which have paralyzed the trade in Donskoi wools in the ports of Russia. Paralyzing foreign trade is the thing aimed at in both of the McKinley bills, as Congressman Dingley knows, and he ought to tell Editor Dingley so. The result has been to make the actual cost of carpets greater than formerly; so that while it is no doubt true that a small part of the recent advance in price is due to other causes, the greater part is due to McKinleyism and Dingleyism in the tariff.

If "a cheap coat makes a cheap man," it follows that a cheap coat must make a cheap child. In fact, the damage to the moral nature must be even greater in the case of the child, whose mind is in a plastic condition. We were consequently astonished to read the following statement in the Postmaster-General's advertisement in Friday morning's Philadelphia *Press*:

> "Little Gretchen coats (6 to 12 years) at $7.50, worth $10 at least."

If "little Gretchen coats" are really "worth $10 at least," what right has John Wanamaker to sell them for the cheap price of $7.50? Does he not know that "cheap and nasty go together," and that "this whole system of cheap things is a badge of poverty"? Why does he help to infect the rising generation with the pernicious notion that there is some advantage in getting a coat for $7.50 instead of $10? Does he not see that the proper thing for a Sunday-school Superintendent of the McKinley stripe would be to advertise in this way?—

> "Little Gretchen coats (6 to 12 years) at $10; sold by 'cheap and nasty' dealers at $7.50."

The *Photographic Times* exposes a piece of swindling in the McKinley Bill of which the photographers of the country are the victims. Albumenized paper under the tariff of 1883 was dutiable at 15 per cent. ad valorem. The article is not made in this country, and the photographers accordingly indulged the pleasing hope that it would be put on the free list. To their astonishment it was reported by the Committee of Ways and Means at 35 per cent. ad valorem. An agitation was started in the trade to prevent this increase of tax. Protests were sent to members of Congress in such numbers that the rate was reduced in the House bill to 25 per cent. ad valorem. In this form it passed both House and Senate. But in the "Committee of Conference on the *disagreeing votes* of the two houses" the duty on albumenized paper was raised to 35 per cent. ad valorem, and so it stands in the present law. When a similar trick was played in Conference Committee in 1883 with the duty on iron ore, Senator Aldrich explained, years afterwards, that it was done at the earnest solicitation of Senator Mahone of Virginia, who was not himself a member of the Conference Committee. Perhaps Senator Aldrich will tell at some future time at whose solicitation this trick was played with albumenized paper. Of course he knows.

The great increase in pensions is now engaging the attention of the Committee on Appropriations at Washington. The *Tribune's* correspondent says that the *deficiency* on account of pensions will be about $40,000,000. This means that the amount appropriated at the last session to carry the Government to the 30th of June next will fall short of the requirements by a sum nearly equal to the surplus left in the national-bank depositories by the Cleveland Administration. It will be remembered that there was a colloquy in the House last summer between Mr. Cannon, Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, and Mr. Dockery of Missouri on this subject. Mr. Dockery affirmed that the appropriations for pensions fell far short of the requirements for the fiscal year under existing law, and he charged that the intention of the majority was to make a false showing of economy for campaign purposes. Mr. Cannon replied that a deficiency bill was a regular thing, and that, since there would be another session of Congress before the end of the fiscal year, no harm could come from leaving the subject open for further light. The additional light has come in a blazing way. The *Tribune's* correspondent continues:

> "The appropriation for the last fiscal year, including deficiencies, was $106,000,000; and the appropriations for the current year, including deficiencies, will be $137,000,000, an increase of $31,000,000, of which, according to Commissioner Raum, about $25,000,000 will be paid to pensioners added to the rolls by the law approved at the last session, and the rest to claimants whose pensions have been allowed or increased under prior laws."

If this is done in the green tree, what will be done in the dry?

The more the New Hampshire controversy is examined, the more clearly does it appear that it is a case for the courts rather than for the politicians. It is simply this: Under the Constitution and laws of the State as they existed on the 4th of November, 1890, what towns and wards were entitled to choose members whose names should go upon the roll when the new House meets? The strength of the Democratic position is, that they desire a judicial determination of the questions. Indeed, their first step was to submit all the facts in the case to E. Rockwood Hoar, Attorney-General of the United States under Grant, and William G. Russell of Boston, and those eminent lawyers have just rendered an opinion which is fatal to the claims of the "if entitled" set of men to seats, and holds that of the "classed towns" only those could legally elect members this year whose turn it was under the old act passed after the census of 1880. The result of this, as we understand it, would be to give the control of the House at the start to the Democrats. It is hard to see how the extra session can result in any other way than to aggravate the existing trouble, and many Republicans were opposed to having it called. The true way out of the difficulty would seem to be to get the controversy before the Supreme Court of the State—a course to which the Republicans should interpose no objection, as the bench is composed of members of their party.

The Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* has discovered a "scheme" or "plot" to unseat Mr. Thomas B. Reed in the next Congress, as soon as it meets, on the pretext that the good man was elected in his district by "wholesale bribery and corruption." The correspondent says that "it is not difficult to understand the meaning and purpose of this Democratic plot." It may not be difficult for him, but for the rest of the community it is quite impossible. In fact, the story is incredible. We do not believe there are a dozen Democrats in the new Congress who would not subscribe according to their means to keep Mr. Reed in his place. In fact, they all want him there, under the influence of that ancient and, we admit, barbarous instinct which at one time made men enjoy gladiatorial shows and the consumption of primitive Christians by lions and tigers, and at a later period bull and bear-baiting, cock and dog-fighting. The coarser and more brutal a Democrat is, the more he desires to keep the poor "Czar" in his place in the Fifty-second Congress. He wants to bait him, in fact, and trample on him, and pay him off; and "flesh and blood," as the Quaker said, "can't blame him." If there be a "plot" or "scheme" to get Reed unseated, depend upon it it has been concocted by some of the good Samaritans among the Democrats, men blessed with more than the ordinary share of the finer feelings of our nature.

The relatively strong position of the banks of New York is shown by comparison with the latest official statement of the Joint Stock Banks of London, dated August 7, at which time these banks were fortifying themselves for the impending trouble due to Argentine speculations. The footings of the twelve Joint Stock Banks, the largest of which is the London and Westminster, show deposits £125,751,442, against cash on hand and in the Bank of England £15,493,128. In other words, the reserve is about 12 per cent. of the liability to depositors as against 25 per cent. here. The Bank of England itself keeps not more than 40 per cent. of the money of the other banks as a reserve against its liability to them. The Joint Stock Banks have, however, upwards of £25,000,000 invested in consols or other securities believed to be immediately convertible into cash. Experience shows that even consols are liable to considerable shrinkage in a panic.

It is fair to question the fidelity of a leader who has been acting as Mr. Parnell has been acting for the past three or four years. To pursue his own pleasure, for all this period, knowing well that discovery not only would discredit him, but might ruin the public enterprise in which he was engaged, was not the course of a faithful man. It was a poor return for the unlimited confide-

which the Irish people had reposed in him. In truth, it would not be vituperation to call it an act of treachery. The controversy between the English and Irish, to which the affair has given rise, is not an academic dispute. If it were, the Irish might possibly get the best of it by citing numerous examples of unconcealed, unreprobated immorality among English public men. Unhappily, it is a dispute about a pressing problem of practical politics. The question is not whether the impunity some of the Irish propose to allow to Parnell can be matched by the impunity which the English have allowed to Fox, Palmerston, Wellington, and others too numerous to mention. The question is whether any such impunity for Parnell at this juncture may not ruin the Irish cause or indefinitely postpone its triumph. By no endeavor can English cant be made to cover Irish folly.

The Irish Home-Rule members of the House of Commons having committed what seems the immense folly of unanimously refusing to accept Mr. Parnell's resignation of the leadership of the party, Mr. Gladstone has announced, in an admirable letter, that he cannot maintain the old political alliance with the Irish party if Parnell remains in command of it. He will probably, in that case, withdraw this winter from the House of Commons, and leave the Irish Home-Rulers to fight their own battles. The Liberal party in general undoubtedly approve of this view of the situation. Their chief organs declare without hesitation that if the Irish persist in their determination, the Home-Rule cause is lost for the present. Lord Salisbury will probably in that case dissolve Parliament while the catastrophe is fresh in the public mind, and win an easy victory at the polls over the disheartened and confounded Liberals. The one ray of hope in the matter comes from the possibility that the vote of the Nationalist meeting is a complimentary one, simply, and that there is a secret understanding that, having received this testimonial, Parnell will, as of his own free will, retire from the scene.

The conviction of Dillon and O'Brien by the Clonmel court was a foregone conclusion, so that it cannot be said to have much political or other importance. The sentence is six months' imprisonment, which gives a right of appeal; but the law of conspiracy, as laid down in the Coercion Act, is such that nothing but a defect in procedure would make an appeal of any use, and the procedure is so simple, even simpler than that of a court-martial, that errors in it are almost impossible. Mr. Balfour, who is evidently very angry with them for running away and coming to America, has been telling an audience in the North of Ireland that their flight was a sham, and that he could not have prevented it if he had so desired, as they were out on bail. But this is a mere quibble. They could and would have been arrested, had it been possible, on a fresh warrant for some other offence. Nearly every Irish agitator commits offences by the half-dozen, under the Coercion Act, every week, and the question of prosecuting him in each case is decided on grounds of political expediency; so that Dillon and O'Brien might have been seized at any time before they got away, and, undoubtedly, would have been, had their intentions been known.

The question, what is a "political offence," or an "offence of a political character," which has been so much debated by the makers or critics of extradition treaties, has received an interpretation by the Queen's Bench in England which will probably govern the practice, of English tribunals at least, hereafter. The case was that of Castioni, a refugee from the canton of Ticino, in Switzerland, where he took part in the recent rising of the Liberals against the constituted authorities. There was a rush of the insurgents into the State-house at Ticino, and one of the members of the Government was killed at the head of the stairway by a shot fired, nobody knew by whom, but Castioni was suspected. He fled to England, and his extradition as a murderer was demanded under the Extradition Treaty, and was ordered by the police magistrate. He then appealed to the Queen's Bench on a habeas corpus, and he was discharged by that tribunal after an elaborate discussion, both by bar and bench, of the meaning of the term "political character" as applied to offences under the English Extradition Act. John Stuart Mill, who took part in the discussion when the Act was passed, defined a political offence as "an offence committed in the course of or to further civil war, insurrection, or political commotion." The counsel for the Swiss Government fought hard against this definition, and contended that it must be shown that the act constituting the offence, if any, was necessary or likely to promote the movement in which the person was engaged at the time of committing the offence. The Court finally held that a political offence was "an act in furtherance of, or assisting in, a political rising or great dispute as to which of two parties should have the government of the State in its hands." It was clearly shown from the state papers of the Swiss Federal Government that the movement at Ticino was a movement of this description, and Castioni had no difficulty in showing that he had no knowledge of or spite against Rossi, the man who was killed.

But the judgment leaves unsettled the question how much of a "movement," or "rising," or "commotion" there must be to give offences against public order a "political character." The insurgents in Ticino were, as was shown by the result, the strongest and more numerous party in the State, and they rose against the neglect or refusal of the party in power to make the matter in dispute the subject of a *referendum*, or, in other words, to submit it to the popular vote when requested to do so in the manner prescribed by the Federal Constitution. Suppose they had been a small and comparatively insignificant body, and that their movement had been hopeless from the beginning in the eyes of all rational men. Would the killing of a man in the course of it have had a "political character"? Suppose, too, as in the Irish dynamite cases, the killing had been done in order to aid a political movement by simply terrorizing the Government, though without malice against the particular person killed, would this have been "a political offence"?

The scheme of Gen. Booth, the chief of the Salvation Army, for the relief and regeneration of the lowest class of city paupers and tramps, appears to be meeting with a good deal of encouragement from English philanthropists, and subscriptions are coming in towards the half-million dollars which he asks for to start it. It consists simply in the transportation of the good-for-nothing portion of the urban population to a series of farms, some close by, others farther away, and some in the colonies. The ne'er-do-weels are to pass from one to the other as their character is improved and their capacity is developed, until the fully regenerated finally get to the colonies. That the dregs of the city population cannot be redeemed without some tremendous effort on the part of the community everybody admits. Whether any effort short of a general remodelling of the social organization would suffice is the problem which General Booth's experiment proposes to solve. The initial difficulty he has to contend with is the getting of the money to prepare his farms. Then he has to get some legislation to enable him to constrain the broken-down people to leave town and engage in what nearly all of them consider the most repulsive kind of labor—work on a farm—and to keep them at it till they are improved. It would be easy enough to give him a chance at the criminals and paupers seeking public relief; but it remains to be seen how he could get legal control of the simple incompetents, the great army of the well-meaning or blameless, with whom everything goes wrong, and who are always dependent on somebody for the means of livelihood. Would it be possible to condemn them to association with the ordinary tramps and habitual criminals, who are really, as some one has well said, "belated savages"—that is, primitive men, relics of a vanished type of humanity, born out of date? The discipline of all these farms, too, would have to be that of an army, and would call for far more faculty for command than any military force, because it would deal with a far more unmanageable class than soldiers ever are. Gen. Booth estimates the number of ne'er-do-weels in the United Kingdom at 3,000,000. But he only proposes out of these to take charge of the "out-of-works, drunkards, and harlots." There must be a million of these, if his estimate of the whole number be correct. Looking at them, the old question again comes up—where is the administrative talent to officer such a host?

CLEVELAND—AND HILL.

THE announcement is made through various sources, all likely to be authentic, that Gov. Hill has reached the conclusion that the Democratic tide in favor of Mr. Cleveland's renomination in 1892 is too overwhelming for him to attempt to resist it, and that the wisest course for him to pursue is to go to the United States Senate. The Governor's intimates say that he has been devoting much thought to the meaning of the recent elections, and has been examining carefully the Democratic expressions of opinion in the West and South, as to the bearing which those elections have upon the question of a Presidential candidate in 1892. It has not been difficult for him to discover that while there was very little in them which seemed to point to himself as a candidate, there was a great deal which pointed directly to Mr. Cleveland. He could perceive distinctly that there was in all parts of the country a general and spontaneous recognition of the fact that the Democratic victory was the outcome of Mr. Cleveland's famous tariff-reform message of 1887; but the most painstaking search failed to reveal anywhere, except in the columns of the Butler organ of 1884, signs of a belief that Gov. Hill had contributed anything to bring about the result.

In view of this decidedly one-sided condition of Democratic sentiment, the Governor is said to have reached the conclusion that the same hand of destiny which points to Mr. Cleveland's unanimous renomination for the Presidency, points to a chair in the Senate for David B. Hill. We think he is sound in this conclusion. His term as Governor will expire next year, and the prejudice against third terms is so strong that he will not venture to encounter it by running a third time. If he does not go to the Senate, therefore, he must consent to go into private life. There are those of his admirers, we believe, who think that he has in him elements which may secure for him a Presidential nomination in 1896, or at some other date in the near future; but we are sceptical on this point. His chief recommendation for such a nomination has been his alleged original sentiment, "I am a Democrat"; and while that has excited boisterous enthusiasm among "Jeffersonian Democrats" and in Tammany Hall, we have not been able to discover that it made much impression upon the country at large. It has been all that he had to oppose to Mr. Cleveland's tariff-reform services, and its effect as a rival attraction has been so slight that he himself has concluded to withdraw it. There is a possibility that it may develop into larger and more impressive dimensions in the future, and we therefore advise the Governor to keep it on hand for use in emergency.

The retirement of Gov. Hill will leave the way for Mr. Cleveland's renomination entirely unobstructed. No man can foresee what may happen between the present time and the meeting of the National Democratic Convention in the spring of 1892. What we wish to call attention to now is, the position which Mr. Cleveland holds before the country to-day. It can be said with absolute truth that he is his party's unanimous choice for the Presidential nomination at the moment when that party is at a higher point of popular strength than at any previous time since the war. There cannot be found, from one end of the country to the other, a single Democratic newspaper or a single Democratic leader or politician whose opinion is worth a moment's serious consideration, that does not say that the recent great victory, amounting to a political revolution without parallel in the history of the country, is so directly traceable to Mr. Cleveland's influence as to be literally his personal triumph. No public man of this generation has more conclusively demonstrated his right to be called a leader of his party. He has led it against its own will, and at the temporary sacrifice of his personal interests, to a higher and stronger position than its most sanguine members ever dreamed of its being able to occupy.

It is easy to see, as we look back over the field to day, that more has been gained for the country by Mr. Cleveland's defeat in 1888 than could have been gained by his election by what would necessarily have been a narrow majority. If he had succeeded in that contest, the Democrats would have been made so timid by their narrow escape from defeat that they would have been over-cautious. Nothing that they could have done or left undone could have helped the cause of tariff reform a hundredth part as much as the phenomenal blundering of the successful Republicans has helped it. Mr. Cleveland, by the boldness and self-sacrificing character of his famous tariff message, startled the whole country into a more thoughtful consideration of tariff questions than years of ordinary discussion could have brought about. He did not quite accomplish the miracle of so far educating sixty millions of people upon the tariff in a brief Presidential campaign that enough of them would vote, against a deeply rooted prejudice, to reëlect him; but he came very near to doing so. He got a popular majority of nearly 95,000 to come to his side. Then the Republicans came into power, and, by their partisan blindness, cupidity, and reckless defiance of public rights and public interests, showed the country the wisdom of what Mr. Cleveland had said, and gave, so clearly that the simplest mind could not fail to comprehend it, an object-lesson upon the chief principle of his political creed, that the tariff was nothing but a tax, and that unnecessary tariff duties meant unnecessary and burdensome taxation. This elementary truth in political economy has been mastered so firmly by the American people that it can never be forgotten. There will, we may rest assured, be no step backward on that point.

Great as we believe Mr. Cleveland's service to the country will prove to have been from the point of view of wise economic legislation, there is another and even higher benefit to be found in it. He has set to the youth of the country an example of courage and honesty in political life which will be of incalculable value. He has demonstrated that courage and honesty are not only admirable qualities, but that, in the phrase of the practical politician, they "pay" better in the long run than all others known to politics. It is before the stupendous popular success secured by the display of these qualities that Gov. Hill, one of the most expert practical politicians of modern times, has been forced to bow and retire with scarcely a handful of followers to show for his eight years of indefatigable and inexhaustible scheming and working. There is not a professional politician in either party to-day who would not rejoice to have behind him a popular support like Mr. Cleveland's, and there is not one who has anything approaching it. Mr. Cleveland risked his political fortunes upon his faith in the intelligence and honesty of the American people, and his victory will raise the standard of political morality in America for generations to come.

THE FOREIGN ENEMY.

WE have already several times recently complained of the cruel way in which our high-tariff friends treat the human understanding. Some of the demands they have lately made on it have been barbarous in the extreme. That a high tariff does not raise, and is not meant to raise, prices, but to lower them; that the McKinley Bill does not raise prices, and that the story that it does is a Democratic lie; that if it does raise prices it is a good thing, because high prices promote human happiness while low prices lower human character, *e. g.*, "A cheap coat makes a cheap man" (B. H.); that the foreigner pays our customs duties out of his own pocket; that the increase of price which follows increase of duties is not caused thereby; that manufacturers are able to pay higher wages by having the market value of their goods diminished; that the profitableness of international trade is a question of language; that money may be made in it by trading with people who speak Spanish or Portuguese, but not with people who speak English or French; that nevertheless we now lose tens of millions of dollars in trading with Cuba and Brazil, but do not mind it in the least, but keep on trading just the same; *e. g.*, "We lost $41,000,000 in Cuba, from which our imports were $52,000,000, and to which our exports were only $11,000,000. Forty-one millions is a pretty large sum to lose in one island in a single year. In the Republic of Brazil we lost $51,000,000; our imports from Brazil were $60,000,000; our exports to Brazil were $9,000,000" (J. G. B.)—all these, we say, are demands on the human intelligence which no merciful man or party ought to make.

The latest draft of this kind is the proposition—of which great use was made in the late canvass, and which the Republican press is now using largely for defensive purposes—that the sorrow of foreign nations over the passage of the McKinley Bill, and their joy over the defeat of its authors at the late elec-

tion, indicate hostility to the American people. Of all the mediæval ideas with which the high-tariff brain is stuffed, this is probably the most mischievous. All over Europe, from the fall of the Roman Empire down to the discovery of America, the foreigner was considered by the bulk of the community a national enemy, no matter in what guise he came. He mostly came, it is true, for purposes of robbery and murder, but his malignity when he came for purposes of trade was considered hardly less doubtful. For what was his design in trying to trade with other countries than his own? Simply to get hold of their gold and silver and take it away to bury it in the ground in the pot in which, in those days, he kept his bank balance. Accordingly, he was looked on as little less than a marauder, and many royal ordinances were passed to discourage his coming, or, if he did come, to prevent his getting away with the gold.

This view of international relations has died out in every variety of intellect except the tariff intellect. There it holds its own firmly. That you can trade profitably with a foreigner, or that a foreign trader can be a harmless, friendly person, is something which this type of mind steadily refuses to believe. The modern philanthropist or theologian expends his rhetoric on it in vain. He may talk as much as he pleases about the march of science, about steam, electricity, ether, human brotherhood, and the parliament of man; his audience is sure to fly in alarm if a foreigner appears laden with goods for purposes of exchange.

Let any one who thinks that in saying all this we are dealing in extravagance or burlesque, ask himself why we consider the rejoicing of the English over the popular condemnation of the McKinley Bill a sign of hostility. Is it not because they want to sell us cheap goods in exchange for some of ours? Why did they lament over its passage? Was it not because they thought it would reduce the quantity of cheap goods they could sell us? Can there be anything more mediæval than the notion that a man who desires to sell you cheap goods is necessarily an enemy? Suppose a man were to apply this doctrine to our domestic trade, what would his friends say? Suppose that when a drummer from Massachusetts offering him cheap cottons, or from Pennsylvania offering him cheap Wanamaker clothes, or from Chicago offering him cheap hams, entered his office, he was to receive him revolver in hand, and drive him forth with execrations, as having designs on his property or domestic peace, would not his family sorrowfully apply for a commission *de lunatico?* In the more enlightened portion of the modern world, joy at the prospect of being able to sell us goods, and sorrow over the discovery that we have decided to place our orders elsewhere, is considered a sign of amity and good will, in so far as it is considered as an indication of any moral condition whatever. A desire to "do business" with a man is everywhere now among civilized men taken as a compliment, although when manifested too freely, as in the case of the book agent or life-insurance agent, it may become annoying. But, owing to the curiously twisted condition of the high-tariff mind, to the American protectionist the sight of a foreigner coming to trade inspires the same sort of fear and hate as the appearance of Capt. Cook excited in the breasts of the Hawaiians.

THE POPULAR VOICE IN THE ELECTIONS.

FULL returns have been received on the Congressional vote in nearly all the States, and an examination of them reveals much that is instructive for politicians and students of politics. The great general fact which the figures from all the States show, almost without exception, is that thousands of Republican voters stayed away from the polls. They were too much dissatisfied with the conduct of their own party to vote for its candidates, but they were not sufficiently dissatisfied with it to vote with the Democratic party. This is the general showing of the official figures. In some of the Western States there were many Republicans who were too indignant to be merely passive in their anger, and who voted with the Democrats. This was notably the case in Iowa and Illinois. We will take for examination the total Congressional votes of four typical States, New York and Massachusetts in the East, and Iowa and Illinois in the West, as being best calculated to disclose the nature of the popular verdict upon the tariff question.

The full returns from the thirty-four Congressional districts of New York State are now at hand with the exception of the Democratic vote in the Thirty-first District, which will not materially affect the grand total. We have estimated it in the table at 12,000. The figures for all the other districts are official:

NEW YORK.

District.	1890.		1888.	
	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.
1	19,024	14,014	24,374	22,711
2	22,237	15,077	23,497	17,625
3	15,537	15,479	18,410	21,281
4	18,359	8,434	20,987	14,760
5	16,298	10,705	18,613	16,461
6	10,179	6,574	13,079	9,833
7	10,855	4,351	16,739	8,343
8	15,958	8,840	24,605	13,456
9	14,292	4,462	18,257	7,329
10	13,884	5,288	13,749	12,016
11	17,033	8,859	20,073	15,619
12	19,169	7,187	25,546	12,273
13	28,268	11,820	28,580	19,412
14	18,391	12,211	22,485	18,340
15	14,430	13,061	18,284	18,358
16	4,423	13,424	6,370	18,912
17	15,438	13,129	20,217	21,826
18	15,939	17,285	19,717	23,639
19	18,020	12,912	21,494	18,988
20	16,838	18,369	20,065	25,966
21	9,859	13,313	1,963	21,561
22	9,115	13,891	13,582	24,309
23	12,104	11,765	18,387	20,119
24	14,127	13,928	17,273	18,532
25	11,455	17,283	6,691	24,672
26	14,112	17,804	18,985	26,267
27	15,972	17,962	18,327	28,903
28	12,436	12,349	15,564	16,822
29	13,369	14,722	16,969	21,794
30	15,047	14,796	16,106	21,819
31	1[illegible],000	13,716	14,082	19,566
32	21,213	16,240	20,859	22,468
33	12,597	10,792	15,765	15,141
34	10,128	15,817	12,027	27,453
Total...	508,873	420,250	581,817	634,084

1888—Democrats..... 15 Republicans 19
1890—Democrats..... 22 Republicans 12

The most impressive fact brought out by these figures is that the Democrats have carried the State by a majority of 88,623. This surpasses anything they have ever had except the extraordinary majority given to Mr. Cleveland for Governor in 1882. In this, as in the other tables which follow, we have made the comparison with the Congressional vote of 1888. Ordinarily the fairest comparison would be with the vote cast on the last preceding "off-year." But the vote at the Congressional election of 1886 cannot be taken as a basis for comparison with the vote of 1890, for the reason that the tariff issue played a very small part in that contest. By comparison with the vote cast in a Presidential election there is danger of an erroneous impression being made because of the fact that there is, in all elections on other years, a great falling-off in the total vote of both parties. This should be borne in mind in examining the tables. In running the eye down the columns of the New York table it will be seen at a glance that the Democrats this year have in nearly every instance come much nearer to polling the vote cast in 1888 than the Republicans have. When we reach totals, this fact comes out with startling clearness. The total vote of both parties this year is 929,123, against 1,215,401 in 1888. Here is a total falling off of 286,278 votes. The total Republican vote this year is 213,834 smaller than that of 1888, while the total Democratic vote is only 72,444 smaller. In other words, nearly the entire missing vote can be traced to the Republicans. In 1888 the Republicans had a majority of 52,767 on the Congressional vote. This has now given place to a Democratic majority of 88,623. If there be any comfort for the Republicans and McKinley-tariff advocates in these figures, they are welcome to it.

If now we take Massachusetts, we find substantially the same showing as in New York:

MASSACHUSETTS.

District.	1890.		1888.	
	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.
1	6,488	8,502	5,103	14,583
2	10,518	11,449	13,388	17,072
3	14,952	11,075	16,838	14,780
4	11,781	4,175	13,749	6,518
5	13,136	10,809	13,465	14,929
6	12,562	14,586	14,304	19,508
7	10,900	12,512	12,224	16,796
8	11,079	10,547	11,273	14,493
9	11,440	11,240	13,678	15,718
10	10,323	10,707	12,050	13,965
11	9,223	9,026	11,519	15,353
12	12,105	11,712	11,826	14,853
	134,507	126,291	149,917	178,671

1888—Democrats.....2 Republicans 10
1890—Democrats.....7 Republicans 5

It will be seen that the total vote this year is 260,798 as compared with 328,588 in 1888, a falling off of 67,790. Of this loss no less than 52 380 is upon the Republican side, the Democrats having come within about 15,000 of their vote in the Presidential year.

When we go West, however, it becomes apparent that thousands of Republican voters of that section have burned their bridges and gone over to the Democratic party. The following table of the Iowa districts shows this fact unmistakably:

IOWA.

District.	1890.		1888.	
	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.
1	17,322	16,394	17,256	18,130
2	21,941	13,837	20,874	15,842
3	19,458	19 688	16,872	21,457
4	18,438	16,853	16,639	18,852
5	15,153	17,868	16,937	19,447
6	17,073	15,534	17,181	18,009
7	14,256	16,821	13,077	18,424
8	18,860	19,003	18,213	19,707
9	18,605	17,318	16,686	20,380
10	17,139	18,307	15,496	20,864
11	14,966	*15,945	15,213	21,472
Total...	196,237	188,557	184,384	212,084

1888—Democrats..... 1 Republicans..... 10
1890—Democrats..... 6 Republicans..... 5

It is apparent at a glance that the total vote here is almost equal to that of 1888, being only about 11,000 less. When the Republican votes of the two years are compared, it will be noticed that that of this year is 23,477 less than that of 1888, while the Democratic vote of this year is more than 11,000 greater than that of 1888. In fact, in every district except two the Democrats have gained upon their vote in the Presidential year. There were few Farmers' Alliance votes in this State. The tariff issue was pressed more directly and systematically in Iowa than in any other State, through the efforts of the Reform Club of this city, and the result is the most convincing proof possible of the importance to the Democratic party of educating the people on this subject.

The Illinois table, in an almost equal degree, illustrates the facts brought out by that of Iowa :

ILLINOIS.

District.	1890.		1888.	
	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.
1	21,796	22,235	22,607	26,553
2	17,383	6,750	10,051	12,969
3	20,069	17,933	21,295	23,671
4	19,435	19,173	19,755	23,726
5	9,994	15,848	10,018	20,077
6	13,517	17,028	11,903	18,139
7	10,374	12 946	11,741	10,380
8	17,239	16,794	17,451	20,596
9	15,427	14,480	14,490	16,871
10	15,576	16,194	16,166	18,824
11	19,234	17,401	17,589	16,637
12	20,804	13,336	21,938	16,628
13	20,951	15,946	21,304	18,450
14	16,670	1,448	16,740	18,570
15	19,010	18,428	17,204	19,897
16	17,473	15,957	17,742	17,037
17	16,700	9 861	10,385	14,775
18	16,279	14,529	16,167	16,151
19	18,410	12,613	18,686	15,616
20	16,273	17,580	17,186	19,005
Total...	343,041	308,537	329,472	357,139

1888—Democrats..... 7 Republicans..... 13
1890—Democrats..... 14 Republicans..... 6

Here we have a total vote 35,023 less than that of 1888, and a Republican vote of 48,602 less, while the Democrats have made a gain of 13,569 upon their vote of the Presidential year. The Republican loss is practically uniform throughout the State, while the Democratic gain is regular and large—exceptionally large in the ten farming districts.

LIBERALITY TO PASTRY COOKS.

We are assured by Macaulay, whose information was equally unhesitating and positive on all subjects, that the chief recipients of literature not otherwise in request are the pastry-cooks. Thus he tells us that each week Major Scott, whom Warren Hastings unfortunately selected as his counsel, produced a new pamphlet which found its way into the hands of those useful members of society. On this point we shall have no dispute with the great essayist. We shall assume that his knowledge of the needs of pastry-cooking was complete and well-grounded; and, taking it for granted that the necessities of the business are the same to-day, we propose to show that the prospect of supplies is exceedingly promising, especially at the hands of the Government of the United States.

For many years a standing topic for trite jesters has been the agricultural reports, with embellished pages that suggest a pictorial account of the possessions of Jacob, when the flocks conceived before the rods, "and brought forth cattle ringstreaked, speckled, and spotted." Although this publication may originally have been designed, in part, at least, to answer the ends of the culinary art, it has been diverted to other uses. It is seldom seen in the great centres of cooking. It is chiefly distributed by the bagful among rural constituencies as a souvenir of support in the past and an incitement to loyalty in the future. Having ponderously performed this function, it lies for a time neglected on the table, and is ultimately utilized in kindling the winter's fires.

Perhaps more useful from the point of view of cookery is the *Congressional Record*. While its distribution is not so strictly rural as that of the agricultural reports, it is, probably for that reason, still less read, and the amplitude of its pages renders it peculiarly available for pastry. It is a pregnant illustration of the cloying effect of extreme verbosity on the public taste. There was a time when the reports of Congressional debates were widely perused. But the habit of reading speeches in Congress, together with the abuse of the leave to print essays never delivered, has taken from the discussions the flavor of controversy and argument which once awakened the public interest and whetted the public appetite.

Without going through the list of publications, scientific and political, from which supplies may be drawn, we may come at once to a new department of public printing, which may be described as that of Unknown Law and Unknown Tongues. To ward off the eager approach and competition of the scientific, we may say that this department is not within the domain of antiquarian research or of speculative prediction. Its unknown quality is simply and strictly unknowable. It need, therefore, excite no feeling beyond the temporary repugnance which such an announcement may naturally arouse, until the demonstration of the hopelessness of inquiry compels acquiescence.

The first publication in the new department is entitled "Extra-territorial Criminal Jurisdiction and its Effect on American Citizens." It was referred to the Committee on Printing on July 25, 1890, and on the 14th of the following month was reported and ordered to be printed. As published, it forms a document of only forty-five pages, but it is all available for the purposes of cookery. Beginning with the topic of libel, it lays down the following luminous rule: "The writer or publisher of a libel, in circulating his libellous paper abroad, does not commit a second offence; circulating being the purpose of publishing, circulating and publishing are united to causal relationship. The circumference of the circulation of a malicious libel may only be regarded as a measure of the degree of maliciousness of the libeller, and, in consequence of that, referred to it in limiting the punishment." Passing by the discussion of other rules, we find the consummate application of the various jurisdictional principles worked out in the treatment of the German Dynamite Law. At the outset, the author declares himself to be an advocate of codification in the following manner: "Since emanation of her *organic* criminal statute-book (in 1871), Germany has indulged in continuous *special* legislation on different matters brought under criminal aspect. By such action, so contrary to German method of scientific systematizing, German criminal legislation, past 1871, lost its rational coherence and systematic connection. That is the curse of all inorganic legislation." Following this is an exposition of the vicious characteristics of the German Dynamite Law, but its full enormity is not laid bare until the end of the treatise, which concludes as follows:

Take for instance the following case:

I return, on a visit trip, to Germany. There I meet two Germans, whom I knew in St. Louis, but who were bitterly opposed to me on account of political or private or business reasons.

They denounce me and swear:

"We met this man every noon at the table of Tony Faust in St. Louis; at the 1st January we overheard him at such opportunity bespeaking with other ones, we shall be able to identify, the plan of perpetration of a dynamite crime."

I would have to answer, that I remember very well to have often met those two witnesses at the table of Tony Faust in St. Louis; that I was there at the 1st January, too, with two gentlemen, and that we had a pleasant dinner-talk, perhaps *we chatted* about some dynamite affair in an innocent way; but we did not plan any perpetration, etc.

Now, what can I do, if those two witnesses *swear?*

I am not able to produce those two gentlemen with whom I chatted at the 1st January; they were tradesmen; one has gone to Mexico —I don't know where there—and the other one had disappeared to Canada.

With the aid of two Pinkerton detectives, to be appointed for that purpose here by the German secret police, every offensive German-American returning to the mother country can be indicted on the ground of section 6 of the Dynamite Law. There are people, and especially Pinkertonians, that swear to anything desired of them.

I should think the United States would do better not to wait for the actual appearance of such a case, but to prevent its eventuality.

The publication of this treatise is full of promise—for pastry-cooks.

THE PROPOSED BRIDGE OVER THE ENGLISH CHANNEL.

At many different times since 1802, when Mathieu, a French engineer, submitted to Bonaparte, then First Consul, elaborate plans for a tunnel under the English Channel, plans for effecting a "dry land" connection between the island and the Continent have occupied the attention of English and French engineers and statesmen. In 1856 M. Thomé de Gamond,

*Farmers' Alliance candidate, 4,271.

after careful geological investigations, completed plans for a tunnel to be bored by sinking shafts through islands, artificially constructed in the line of his proposed tunnel, and driving to the right and left after the manner of tunnelling on land. This scheme was referred to a commission, by order of the Emperor of France, but appears to have gone no further. Many engineers have thought it impracticable to tunnel through the Channel bed, and have proposed various kinds of submerged tubes. Mr. Bateman, an ex-President of the Institute of Civil Engineers, proposed to solve the difficulty by means of a cast-iron tube, thirteen feet in diameter and four inches thick, laid in sections of ten feet in length. Other devices have been suggested by those who have thought a tunnel of any kind offered too many difficulties to be overcome. M. Boutet had a rather wild scheme for an iron bridge, which was carefully investigated by the late Emperor Napoleon and was warmly supported in France; but a little observation showed very clearly that the flexibility of iron rendered any such project a vain hope.

In 1882, John Fowler, the well-known English engineer, asserted that the objections to either bridge or tunnel were so great that they were never likely to be overcome, and argued at length in favor of his alternative, "huge floating railway stations, which would traverse at a high rate of speed the distance between the English and French coasts." This plan of transporting trains on ferry-boats had been embodied in a bill ten years before, and, after being approved by the Commons, had been killed by the Lords. Mr. Fowler's resurrection of the plan seems to have had no result. Sir Henry Bessemer's attempt to alleviate the sufferings of Channel passengers by means of a swinging saloon centrally placed in a large steamer, was interesting as an experiment. Unhappily, the steamer proved so unwieldy that on her trial trip, in May, 1875, she demolished about one hundred feet of the Calais pier.

The relieving of sea-sickness, however, has never been the first object of those interested in these enterprises. The vast trade that was carried on between England and the East, formerly, when the profits of the undertaking depended on speed of transportation, took its way through France, Mt. Cenis, and Italy, and, by ship, from Brindisi to the east coast of the Mediterranean. Since the construction of the Gothard line, however, the trade has been diverted from the French road to the shorter rou e which lies through Holland, Germany, and Gothard. The danger that France would be cut off completely from this trade was still more increased by the construction of the Eastern railroad extension to Salonica and Constantinople. To save for themselves any real share in the through traffic, French railroads, by the lowest possible rates, by a hastened forwarding of goods, by abolishing or lessening transfers, by lightening duties, and by other means, must offer to shippers inducements that will compensate for the disadvantages of a longer route. Any artificial or arbitrary means, however, would surely cause a rate-war which would entail ruinous losses to the railroads. A dry-land connection, therefore, with England, which would make possible a through trade without transfers of goods, and would guarantee the traffic to France, is looked upon by that country as of the highest importance. Merchants and consumers of England have scarcely less to gain, as the improved transportation facilities would increase trade and lower prices.

It was these considerations which led England in 1876, after the geological investigations of Prof. W. Boyd Dawkins had demonstrated the practicability of successfully boring through the chalk beds at the bottom of the Channel, to enter into negotiations with France, by which it was agreed that the tunnel between the two countries should be built. A company was organized, $400,000 in France and $300,000 in England were expended in preliminary work, and arrangements had been made for boring 2.5 miles from each coast, about a fifth of the whole distance. In the meantime, however, a perfect storm of opposition had been aroused in conservative England. It was argued that England's supremacy was largely due to her insular position, and anything that tended to lessen her insularity was a blow at her future peace and prosperity. Lord Dunsany published in the *Nineteenth Century*, for March, 1882, an article in which he quoted the opinion of "a high military authority," well known to be Lord Wolseley, that, in spite of the most careful precautions, in spite of the most skilful devices for flooding or blowing up the tunnel in time of danger, a possibility would always exist for a bold adventurer to surprise the posts controlling the tunnel, and hold open a road for the invasion of England by all Europe. A paper war ensued: every journal and magazine in England argued the pros and cons. It was a question between commercial advantage and military security, real or fancied. The fears of England were thoroughly aroused, and, with a change in the Government, came a change of policy. On April 3, 1882, the Board of Trade ordered the Channel Tunnel Company not to proceed with further boring.

France, however, undismayed by the failure of the tunnel scheme, almost immediately set about devising means for bridging the Channel. The *Zeitung des Vereins Deutscher Eisenbahn-Verwaltungen* for the 20th of September last gives an account of the origin of this latest undertaking, and the plans that are proposed. In 1887 Admiral Cloué, Minister of Marine, succeeded in interesting in plans for a bridge the director of the iron works of Creuzot, Mr. Schneider, and the ex-President of the Institute of Civil Engineers, Mr. Hersent, who acquired a name by the part he took in the work of the Suez and Panama Canals, as well as the two English engineers, John Fowler and Benjamin Baker, who had become well known by their building the Forth bridge. These gentlemen believe they have proved the practicability of a steel railroad bridge; and, to carry out their plans, the Channel Bridge Company was organized in England, and, on December 3, 1889, received a charter from the French Minister of Public Works. According to this plan the bridge will take the path indicated by nature, which combines the shortest distance and the least depth, and runs from Folkestone in England to a point near Cape Gris Nez in France. This line is about 23.39 miles in length, and lies over two shallows which will lighten greatly the labor of erecting the piers. These two shallows lie approximately in the middle of the Channel, and over them the water has a depth of only seven to eight metres. The space between the shallows and between one of them and the English coast has, too, only a depth of twenty-four to twenty-seven metres, but between the other and the French coast, for some distance, the Channel bed lies nearly fifty-five metres below the surface at flood-tide.

The bridge proper will rest upon huge metal crossbeams of 100 to 500 metres span; the crossbeams will be supported by metal piers, which will, in turn, rest upon foundation piers of masonry. These foundation piers are to be built in caissons so arranged that they can be floated from the shore to the desired spot and there sunk to the ground, which will have been previously carefully prepared. The height of the foundation piers will be fifteen metres above the surface, and on each of them are to be erected two cylindrical metal piers, forty metres high, and on these finally will rest the main beams of the bridge platform. At ebb tide the clear height will be sixty-one metres and at flood tide fifty-four metres. The bridge platform will have a breadth of eight metres for two tracks, each 1.5 metres wide. To avoid all possibility of slipping, and to obtain as much resistance as possible to the wind, the rails will be grooved. To satisfy any opposition to the plan on grounds of military expediency, a means has been devised by which, in case of war, one or two spans of the bridge can be made impassable; moreover, in case of necessity, the whole bridge could be readily destroyed by ironclads. The undertaking is almost unprecedented in its vastness. It is calculated that the weight of the bridge will be about 850 000 tons, that the cost will approximate $172,000,000, and that ten to twelve years will be needed for the completion of the work.

As yet this bridge exists only on paper and in the minds of a few engineers. However, the French Minister of Public Works has, by agreement with the Cabinet, appointed a committee, under the leadership of Messrs. Schneider and Hersent, to investigate the plan, and in France the undertaking appears to be on the road to success. The danger again threatens from England. The *Daily Telegraph* says:

"The plan is very fine, but it is unnecessary to ask whether a further pursuit of it will repay the pains, as England will never give her consent. We need neither bridge nor tunnel to connect our island with a mainland, bristling with soldiers, especially with a country whose irritable and adventurous people have stood opposed to us in bitter hostility for a hundred years past, and are not even now reckoned friendly to us.

It is, indeed, much to be doubted whether men like Lord Wolseley, whose latest fear, if he be correctly reported, is that civilized nations are to be shortly driven from Europe by invading hordes of Orientals, or a people which believes that its high position among the nations of the world would be destroyed by a tunnel, can ever reconcile themselves to any plan of a dry-land connection between their island and the mainland. Of the great advantage in increased facilities for trade and lessened discomfort to thousands of passengers who annually cross the "silver streak" in misery, there can be, however, not the slightest question.

"BEAU AUSTIN" AT THE HAYMARKET.

LONDON, November 4, 1890.

IT is a pleasant theory of Mr. Henry Arthur Jones, the author of "Hoodman Blind" and "Judah," that the English stage cannot be redeemed from mediocrity until the play-going public cease to assign a secondary position to the dramatic author, and to be indifferent to the literary and intellectual side of his work. But Mr. Jones argues too exclusively from his own experience: when this literary side does exist, it is readily recognized, and the author receives his due prominence. It is, for example, the fact that the authors of "Beau Austin" are Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson and Mr. W. E. Henley, which made the first performance of that play, at the Haymarket Theatre, yesterday evening, the most important dramatic event of the London winter season.

It is true that, even if the play had been but a new creation by an ill-appreciated dramatist the occasion would still be noteworthy, since it marks a new departure in modern London stage management. During the last year or two there has been in the English press much discussion of the theatre and all things theatrical. Present evils were then attributed principally to actor-managers and long runs. The only practical outcome of all the excitement was a determination on the part of Mr. Beerbohm Tree, one of the most conspicuous among the actor-managers, to devote Monday evenings in his theatre—the Haymarket—to new and original plays, even if the piece given during the rest of the week was enjoying a phenomenal success. By doing this the manager could encourage the British drama, which, it is said, languishes because young dramatists of talent, often of genius, have no hope of getting their work accepted and having it properly tested; while the actor would provide himself with wider scope for his powers and escape the pitfall of mannerism into which long runs but too frequently precipitate him. This scheme cannot be too highly commended. Moreover, it is but in keeping with Haymarket traditions, for even in Hazlitt's time it had been the immemorial practice in this theatre to bring out every season a number of new pieces, good, bad, or indifferent. One can only regret that Mr. Tree's capacity as actor falls so far short of his generous ambition as manager. Yesterday evening was the first of these Mondays, and this is why the occasion in itself was notable.

Far more interest, however, centres upon the work of Mr. Stevenson and Mr. Henley. It is a refreshing novelty to see a modern English play in which manner is as carefully considered as matter, and artistic effect is preferred to melodramatic morality. Only the other day, Mr. Rider Haggard explained, with feeling, that he objected to a proposed English Academy of Letters, because in it men who thought chiefly of style would find no place for those who were all for matter and spirit! This is the attitude that prevails in the dramatic world. What if the English of Mr. Jones be that of a bagman (I am using the English argument, and therefore the English word)—is not his ethical meaning fine? What if Mr. Herman Merivale's blank verse be atrocious, does not his "Ravenswood" serve as the reason for another series of beautiful Lyceum pictures? But one was certain beforehand that Mr. Henley and Mr. Stevenson would both cheerfully sacrifice ethics and meretricious sensationalism rather than that perfect form without which there can be no true work of art; and in this respect "Beau Austin" was no disappointment.

The plot is simple. The scene is laid in those Georgian days, as Mr. Henley says in his Prologue,

> "Whose style still breathed a faint and fine perfume
> Of old-world courtliness and old-world bloom:
> When speech was elegant and talk was fit,
> For slang had not been canonized as wit;
> When manners reigned, when breeding had the will,
> And Women—yes!—were ladies first of all;
> When Grace was conscious of its gracefulness,
> And Man—though Man!—was not ashamed to dress.
> A brave formality, a measured ease,
> Were his—and hers—whose effort was to please."

Beau Austin, a very prominent type of the time—to be exact, 1820—is, as the title explains, the hero of the play. Six months before it opens, he, then quite an elderly beau, had, after the fashion of his kind, seduced a young and beautiful girl, *Dorothy Musgrave*, of a good county family. He had then at once deserted her. But the six months find them back again at Tunbridge Wells, the scene of his conquest and her fall. She has not, however, yet met or heard from him when, in the first act, an old lover from home, *John Fenwick* by name, follows her to the Wells to offer himself in marriage. His honest, devoted love so touches her by the contrast with the baseness of her other lover, that in her desire to be true to him whom she can now never marry, she tells him the story of her frailty. He easily guesses the name of his unworthy rival, and determines to have his life. But *Dorothy* confesses her love for the *Beau*, and *Fenwick* promises, for her sake, to forego his revenge, as he has already lost his happiness. More than this, so great is still his own love that he resolves to save her from disgrace. He goes to see *Beau Austin*, whom he does not know, and so eloquently appeals to his generous heart, which the world's code of honor has not totally destroyed, that the *Beau* is moved and prevailed upon, for the first time in his long career as *roué*, to repair his fault. He hastens at once to the girl he has wronged—the last, as he a little before boasted, of many victims—and asks her to honor him with her hand. But *Dorothy* refuses; thanks to him, she is no longer worthy to be the wife of any gentleman; his reparation is too tardy; it should have been made six months sooner. The *Beau*, penitent and humiliated, learns too late the greatness of the love he has forfeited, and pleads for pardon at least, even if she will not accept his hand.

Now, in the meantime, *Dorothy's* younger brother, *Anthony*, whom she cared for as a child, and over whose education she watched, and who is now an officer in the army, has come down from London to Tunbridge. He has just celebrated his twenty-first birthday, and is full of his responsibility as head of the family. The poor boy learns quickly enough how heavy this responsibility is. He hears from *Barbara*, the maid, of his sister's disgrace. He is at once for challenging the *Beau*, but *John Fenwick* interferes, and he promises to await the result of the *Beau's* visit. When *Dorothy* tells him there is to be no marriage because she will none of it, he refuses to believe her, and swears to her he will kill her lover or perish himself. Foreseeing this, the reformed *George Austin* had arranged to leave not only Tunbridge, but England immediately. But under royal orders to attend the *Duke of York*, then at the Wells, that very afternoon, his going must be postponed till the morrow. To prevent the challenge, since he has promised *Dorothy* never to meet her brother in mortal combat, he seeks to spread the rumor of his proposal and the rejection of his suit. Unfortunately, *Anthony* does not hear it in time, and, knowing from his sister of her seducer's proposed departure, he appears before him just when he is in attendance on the *Duke of York*, and insults him. When the *Beau* pays no heed to the insult, *Anthony* strikes him in the face.

There is a tremendous sensation on the Pantiles, where this scene takes place. And then the *Beau*, faithful to his promise and ever a gentleman, explains to his Royal Highness and the assembled company the situation so as to reflect ridicule upon himself, and yet make his acceptance of the challenge so given seem even more ridiculous. He has been, he says, refused by *Miss Musgrave;* he then has presumed to make advances through her maid. But "the maid derided, the mistress denied, and now comes in this very ardent champion who publicly insults" him. *Dorothy*, overwhelmed at his generosity, throws herself at his feet and tells him to do with her what he will. The *Beau*, in an agony at this public exhibition of affection, raises her quickly and presents her to the *Duke* as *Mrs. George Frederick Austin*, and the curtain falls. The plot, it will be seen, simple as it is, is dramatic, and has many good, and a few powerful, situations.

Where the excellences are many, it is best to point out the defects at once, and it must be admitted that there is one very serious blemish in the construction of the piece. This is the utter improbability of the chief incident upon which the plot turns. That a man of *Beau Austin's* life and character should suddenly be led into the path of virtue by the Quixotic appeal of a young man who is an utter stranger to him, would be simply impossible off the stage. His rôle of seducer was as much a part of his character as *Beau* as foppishness in dress. And this, it must be remembered, was very far from being the first affair of the kind in which he had been engaged. "If I had married every lady by whom it is my fortune—not my merit—to have been distinguished, the Wells would scarce be spacious enough for my establishment," is his boast in the text. His theory of love is also best explained in his own words:

> "Is not love a warfare? Has it not rules? Have not our fair antagonists their tactics, their weapons, their place of arms? And is there not a touch of—pardon me the word!—of silliness in one who, having fought and having vanquished, sounds a parley and capitulates to his own prisoner? Had the lady chosen, had the fortune of war been other, 'tis like she had been Mrs. Austin. . . . You know the world."

I quote these two passages because they illustrate so admirably the accepted theory of gallantry in those late Georgian days, into the spirit of which Mr. Stevenson and Mr. Henley have so thoroughly entered. But both were left out by Mr. Beerbohm Tree, less from prudishness, I fancy, than from the realization that they can but add weakness to a scene already sadly lacking in strength.

The last act also could be much improved. The introduction of a speechless *Duke of York* reminds one too forcibly that he is there merely for the convenience of the dramatists whose puppet he is; the machinery here is just a little too apparent. Artistic effect is always lessened when the artist takes us into the secret of his methods.

But if the *Beau's* reform could be believed in, if the presence of a mere royal automaton could be forgiven, there would remain nothing but praise. The play is well constructed; it has plenty of action. The characters are well defined; they live, and are not mere puppets like the unfortunate *Duke*. There is no attempt to teach a moral lesson—what a happy gulf between a *Dorothy* and a *Nora!* And this is no small merit now that dramatists and actors in England are so mightily concerned with the ethics of the stage. There is no desire to give expression to personal predilections or fads. The authors are not fired with the fever of modernity, nor are they ambitious to figure as *fin-de-siècle* experts. They have confined themselves to their business as writers of a play, and have not sought to do the work of the scientist, the missionary, or the philanthropist. Having laid the scene seventy years ago, they realize the life of that time so naturally and unobtrusively that, clever as is Mr. Beerbohm Tree's stage realization, the play never degenerates into a mere fashion-plate or picture-book of a bygone age, as do but too many Lyceum adaptations from the past.

But, best of all is the dialogue: racy, witty, polished, it has the true literary flavor, which in the average modern English play is con-

spicuous by its absence. It might be almost too polished for the careless talk of to-day, but it is in perfect keeping with that Georgian era "when speech was elegant." There are many passages which, in their expressive simplicity and musical use of words, are delightful examples of Mr. Stevenson's style, for here his share in the work is unmistakable:

"*Anthony*, I have tried to be a good sister," *Dorothy* says to her brother, when urging him not to seek a duel with the *Beau*; "I brought you up, dear, nursed you when you were sick, fought for you, loved you. Think of it, think of the dear past, think of our own home and the happy winter nights, the castles in the fire, the long shining future, the love that was to forgive and suffer always."

And throughout, there is this same touch, this same charm. To compare *John Fenwick's* love-making with similar scenes in "Judah" would be a useful literary lesson for Mr. Jones. The dialogue between *Dorothy* and the *Beau* where she rejects his suit, is a triumph of literary art. And the wit is as delicate and refined—too refined, almost, for audiences whose tastes have been coarsened by Gaiety humor and music-hall jokes.

It is much to Mr. Beerbohm Tree's credit that the play was so well put on the stage. Though very uncertain whether he could give it more than two performances, not a detail was neglected. Costumes and scenery alike were thoroughly studied and correct in every particular. It is to be regretted that the Haymarket company were not better fitted for their task. A poor play well done is to be preferred to a good play indifferently rendered. Mr. Beerbohm Tree was capital as the *Beau* in certain scenes. He is an actor greater in experiment than in achievement, one who better understands the masquerader's than the player's art. He has made his way to the first rank in his profession by his versatility in costume. But it was not merely the brocaded dressing-gown, the ruffled shirt, the high-collared coat that made his *Beau;* it was the courtliness, the manner, the self-complacency as well. As long as he was the genuine *Beau*, who, by being the perfect gentleman, realized the noblest ideal of his age, he was unquestionably good. But as the penitent he relapsed into his favorite sentiment, while he seemed as little convinced as his audience of the *Beau's* penitence. Mrs. Beerbohm Tree, unfortunately, does not understand the first principles of her art; she cannot even manage her voice, nor has she sufficient personal charm to make up for her failings. Her *Dorothy* was as unconvincing as Mr. Tree's penitent *Beau*. The scene between them which should have been the most powerful in the play, was tame and weak. As for the other characters, Mr. Fred. Terry, who is excellent in farce, made a sad prig of *John Fenwick;* Mr. Brookfield was not without humor as the *Beau's* confidential valet; while Mr. Edmund Maurice, as *Anthony Musgrave*, was more effective in his swaggering than in his serious moments.

E. R. P.

REFORM OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.

EDINBURGH, November, 1890.

I FIND the University of Edinburgh at the present moment in a situation of great concern, buoyed with hopes and anxious with fears as to the movements which are contemplated to the end of lifting its methods out of the old traditional ruts, and broadening and strengthening its aims. Not the least of its hopes is that of opening its doors to women, a consummation which, so far as I have talked with the professors, is not to meet with great obstacles. There is more or less instruction now given under circumstances which recall the relations of Harvard College to the "Annex." These seem likely with us, as it is made evident to one not an officer of instruction, to end in making the "Annex" a dependent college of Harvard University. That the "Annex" will long remain an institution of separate instruction I cannot believe, for a husbanding of professional strength will inevitably, I hope and expect, create an autonomy for it as a woman's college, distinct in organization, but more or less conglomerate in methods with the general department of arts in the University. It seems likely, from what I observe here, that the halfway expedient of a distinct college for women will be abandoned, and that the sex will be admitted on the same standing to the curriculum of the men.

Parliament has instituted a commission to make all these changes in Edinburgh University, and this body is now sitting here. Its President is Lord Kinnear of the Court of Sessions, and it embraces men so well known as Sir William Thomson, Dr. Blackie, and the Earl of Elgin. The only officer of the University in their number is Prof. Butcher of the Greek department, and one of the movements which may be consummated is the displacement of Greek, in some degree at least, from its dominating position in the past. I have before me a large mass of documentary projects and recommendations which from time to time during the last half-year have been adopted by the Senatus of the University, as suggestions to the Commission. These papers have been given to the public through the press. In addition to this they have called expert testimony, kept private, from the English and Continental universities; and as there happens to be here at this moment a representative of the American system, he has been asked to submit to their examination. It is represented that the American university system, as exemplified in Harvard, has much more of correspondence with their traditional ways and future intentions than they find to be the case with the systems of other countries. They have on their staff a considerable representation of those acquainted with the methods of England and Germany, arising from years of study at Cambridge, Heidelberg, and elsewhere; while they have mainly depended on their study of the Harvard catalogue and reports for what they know of the American system. Sir William Muir, the Principal, has depended, I perceive, in some respects upon what he has learned to have been the observation of Sir Lyon Playfair during his numerous visits to Massachusetts. Sir Lyon, it will be remembered, was the representative of Edinburgh at the jubilee of Harvard in 1886, and I read a few days ago, as preserved in the University library, Harvard's congratulatory Latin, which was sent on parchment to Edinburgh when they observed their three-hundredth anniversary. I have not in Britain been so well satisfied with our own scant American antiquity as when I have thought how this great University is scarcely sixty years older than we are at Harvard; nor have I felt a solider confidence in our stability than when I recollect that the charter of 1 50 for Harvard which hangs in my room at home, and which is to-day in operation, outdates the fundamental law of this chiefest though the youngest of the Scotch universities.

I suppose there are to-day in the undergraduate department of Harvard University some 1,300 students—I have not seen this year's catalogue; and I learn that there are here about 800. We are putting upon the American world not far from 300 graduates every year, much the largest part of whom are loyal sustainers of their Alma Mater, forming themselves into clubs in all our broad country, and keeping themselves alert to the interests of their college. There seems to be nothing like it here, and I have heard the officers express regret at it. Their lack of a dormitory system, or, as they call it, a residential system, seems to have something to do with accounting for this inertia. The migratory disposition of the Scotch is another element. The habit with the scions of their leading families of going to Oxford and Cambridge has perhaps still more to do with it. The system of brotherhood through clubs does not seem to be quite so hearty as with us, and there can be no doubt that such warmth of affiliation serves in no small degree in cementing the graduate's affection for his college. They are beginning to be aware of this here in considering the endowments from personal benefactions as they actually are and as they wish they were. When one looks round the yard at Harvard, he sees in University Hall, I think built in 1812—I have no chance to verify my impression—the evidence of the last pecuniary assistance which the State of Massachusetts gave to Harvard College; and the Commission now charged with bettering the Scottish universities could do nothing except that the British Parliament has backed their authority with a grant to give their judgment effect. As their acts are private, it will not be known what their judgments are for a year or more to come.

The pecuniary aspect is indeed the chief obstacle to the perfection of any intended scheme. In the Department of Arts, for instance, there are now eighteen professors, the instruction of only seven of whom is necessary to attain a degree. It is the wish of the University Senatus that these seven classes of subjects should be increased to twenty-six, and of this number fifteen are to fall within the Department of Arts. The eighteen chairs, as now constituted, have an income of about £13,000, of which £2,200 comes from Parliamentary grants, and of the remainder sundry endowments yield £3,600, while the student's fees give double that amount, or about £7,200. In another way of looking at it, those seven chairs whose instruction is necessary to a degree, get £8,000 of the total income, while those not necessary get £5,000. But the discrepancy is much more marked when we find that of the former £8,000, there come £6,000 in fees, while only £900 is derived in this way out of the other £5,000. You can understand from this, then, that when I asked the other day, "Is the size of your classes apportioned in any way to the attractiveness of the professor's lecturing?" I got the answer, "Not a bit!" Those whose lecturing is necessary to a degree get the large classes; and great gifts in instruction are necessary to secure a small class with the other professors. It is manifest that this is not making professional talent tell for all it is worth. The highest income among the necessary chairs in art is £1,500, that of the professor of mathematics; the lowest is £875 (moral philosophy), while that of engineering, the chief of the non-necessary chairs, has only £600. The hoped-for changes involve the equalizing of salaries; and if there is no falling off in fees, the fifteen professors of the new staff will only receive £578 apiece, while £1,000 is thought to be the minimum that is desirable. Edinburgh is considered a much more expensive place for a professor to live in than is either Oxford, Cambridge, or the other Scotch University towns. This is estimated to arise

from the fact that Edinburgh is a favorite residence of people with large incomes and no business or professional occupation. It is said that £700 or £800 will go as far at the other universities as £1 000 here.

The fees now are collected by the professors themselves. They look in the future to their being turned into the coffers of the University for the treasury to deal equitably with them. There are no more urgent advocates of this, I find, than the most favored professors under the existing methods; and with the strong regard for vested interests which obtains in Britain, they can well afford to be advocates. No one ventures to intimate that any of the existing occupants of the chairs will be subjected to reduction of pay. Their successors, as one by one they come into office, will be enrolled under the new conditions. To make this change and give to the much increased staff equitable pay is going to demand a large increase of pecuniary resources. The Senatus reckon, as their published papers show, that an annual £4,000 of increase will be required, and the capabilities of the Commission in furnishing this increase will necessarily be the measure of the new development.

Instead of the seven classes of studies that are now competent to lead a student to his degree, it is proposed to have twenty-six. I have heard a British East Indian say that when you hunt the tiger, it is rare sport, but not quite so exhilarating if the tiger takes to hunting you. In the present curriculum the studies hunt the student. There is little freshness and vigor, it is to be feared, beneath the trammels of the old methods. The young blood of Scotland is longing to hunt the tiger, and to enjoy the exhilaration of a hapful, all-round development. One is surprised to find, for instance, that there is not a single chair of history, in any proper sense, in all the Scotch universities, either at Edinburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrews, or Aberdeen. All that the hampered youth of Scotland get here at Edinburgh is what little is incidentally shaken off the shoulders of the professor of constitutional methods in a law course. It is proposed now to have a hundred hours of instruction in this department during the college year, and this is to be accomplished, as the proposal is, by adapting the present chair to larger duties in history, and by adding two or more additional instructors.

I have been surprised to find how little is done even in instructing in their own Scottish history. To the rest of the world the stories of the clans are thought to be remarkably interesting, but there is nothing better for the younger students than what Scott left them in his 'Tales of a Grandfather.' They hand you this book in all the shops. I inquired the other day at four of the bookshops if there was such a thing as a history of Edinburgh for a child, which I could send to a youngster across the sea. "There is no such book," they answered; but one of the booksellers, when I told him that in Boston I could find him two or three just such books respecting that city's history, awoke to the idea and added, "Capital project! Never thought of it before; there shall be one." I said the other day to the Chairman of this Universities Commission in a private interview, when I was explaining how much we aid in instructing in history, that I marvelled there was so little of it here, and that such a story as their own Scottish annals afforded ought not to be neglected in implanting an interest in history in the early days of their youth. "Come to Boston," I said to him, "and ten to one you will be asked, as many other eminent men have been, to speak to crowds of children, filling the Old South Church. You shall take a Scotch subject. Take the battle of Dunbar; tell its story; follow the shipload of Scottish prisoners which Cromwell sent from that stricken field to Boston; picture them as outcasts in a strange community; tell how they banded together for mutual help, and how their blood is some of our best blood to-day, and how the 'Scots Charitable Association' which they there formed in 1652, is to day the oldest charitable organization for mutual benefit in the United States, and one of the most prosperous. You will have, I promise you, an interested audience."

If I can judge from the dearth of juvenile literature on Scottish history which I find in the shops, there would be nothing like the same interest here, evoked in a similar way, in the same class of the community.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

THE INLAND SEA OF JAPAN.

NAGASAKI, October 12, 1890.

FOR fifty days I have "gone to and fro in Japan, and walked up and down in it." No, I have walked little. A man-power sulky can be hired for sixty-five cents a day, so that I cannot afford to walk. Among mountains, where paths are too steep for a jinrikisha, I have been carried by three men in a kago.

Last of all, embarking at Kobé for Shanghai, I find my crowning mercy in the Inland Sea. It is an old saying, and as true as old, that sea-travel is pleasantest near land and land-travel near water: *Ambulatio prope aquas, navigatio prope terras amoenissima.* This truth has grown more and more clear while skirting the north coast of the Mediterranean, from Cadiz to Constantinople, and so on, calling at all Levantine ports, even to Alexandria, as well as in a similar navigation of Swiss, Italian, and American lakes, and along the Island of Hawaii. In all these fairest scenes of land and deep combined, there are points at each of them where the actual vision transcends all memories of the past and all anticipations of the future. Sober second thought will, however, give preëminence over all to the Inland Sea of Japan. What is it? If words or pictures could tell, it were foolish, indeed, to adventure to these farthest shores washed by the farthest sea. Nevertheless, it is easy to specify some salient features in this great wonder of Japan, and to note some of its superiorities.

The Inland Sea has more islands, it may be, than have ever been counted. The question there at once arises, "What is an island?" The international commissioners who divided the islands in the St. Lawrence, when confronted with this question, decided to call nothing rising above water an island which had not a tree on it as high as a man. According to this definition, hundreds of rocks in the Inland Sea, like Rock Dunder near Burlington, on Lake Champlain, each many times larger and more picturesque, and sometimes all velvet with moss or low herbage, are not islands. Indubitable islands, however, are everywhere. Before, behind, and on every hand they enwheel us round. Sometimes they hedge up our way so that we are land-locked. Anon they open a path for us where we least look for it. Greek scholars are reminded of the gates of Olympus which Homer describes as unfolding of their own accord when the chariot of Juno approached. Tourists from Minneapolis think of rides up an elevator in Pillsbury's mill, where they seem ready to dash against the ceiling, and are startled to see a trap-door unclosing to speed them on their upward way.

The Inland Sea, at once both Bosphorus and Archipelago, stretches 400 miles from Kobé to Nagasaki. It is so narrow or so islanded that in all that distance steamers are never out of sight of land, and usually hug some shore so closely that they are near enough for distinct vision. At one point the broad water narrows to 600 feet. We have in full view weather-beaten dark houses with white gables, groves, terraced hills, here tolerant of culture to the very top, and there torn by torrents till they look like the variegated rocks of Dakota Bad Lands. We can even discern the jinrikishas coursing along the Tokaido, the seaside highway; and the wayside chapels on many an eminence. But verdure is the most surprising feature. This greenness is due partly to a rainfall twice as great as that which gives Ireland her emerald, partly to a semi-tropical latitude where some crops are always green, and partly to spade and garden tillage as well as profusion of fertilizers, which, leaving no corner of the land untouched, and "deracinating all savagery," render vegetation luxuriant and exuberant. Accordingly, no epithet so well befits the landscapes as verdurous —walls, as it were, of Milton's Eden. The shades of green, too—shade unperceived still softening into shade—are more multitudinous than elsewhere.

Cities of local celebrity, and hence fleets of junks, are often met with. But sampans are abroad on every wave, in quest of fish, at night, with each a solitary torch. No waters yield so many varieties of fish as the Japanese, or in more exhaustless harvests. Wheresoever the carcase is, eagles gather. The fishermen are more numerous because no more than one-tenth of the soil in Japan is under cultivation, and its people are perforce largely ichthyophagous—a greater percentage, it is said, than anywhere else. They even eat whales. Hence it comes about that the Inland Sea is populous, yes, crowded with fishermen, who give it everywhere an intense human interest. Their little life, the build of their craft, peculiar oars, sails, crews (usually a family—man, wife, and child), flash on us at every turn. The frailty of their craft makes us watch them the more.

The shores, nowhere low, are often mountainous, or formed by foot-hills showing mountains beyond; green range behind range, with blue heights towering further inland, every one with a sky-line unique and all its own. But, on the whole, the Inland Sea would lose its cardinal charm if it lacked islands. Thanks to islands, voyagers enjoy surprises every hour and oftener, till they are dazzled and drunk with beauty. Many are cones, regular as Vesuvius and sometimes as gray. Others are pyramids, but most are as fantastic and grotesque as anything that can be seen in Japanese paintings. One rock island, at least, shows a natural bridge, or rather a Gothic arch, piercing it through from side to side, which to the eye is as regular as the nave at Cologne, and so large as to be seen through when miles away. The triumphal arch of Napoleon at Paris the French call the Arch of the Star, because avenues radiate from it in every direction like the rays of a star. The Inland Sea abounds in such stars—central points from which perspectives diverge towards every quarter between files of islands which seem ranged just where they afford the most of surprise and pleasure. Few islands are near the sea level; some rise a thousand feet, and many are half that height. Their summits, and, indeed, those of the mainland, are knife-edged. At all events, they are described by Shakspere so much to the life that one is ready to think he was a Japanese: a

"blue promontory with trees upon it that nod unto the world and mock our eyes with air." No feature is so peculiarly Japanese as such a fringe of trees cresting a height, or a solitary tree at its very acme. The island coves, and hamlets, and ravines opening into inmost recesses, are additional attractions. But for islands so studding it and so grouped, a voyage through the Sea of Japan might be as monotonous as that through Lake Superior. As it is the half cannot be told about it. if every single feature could be enumerated, no fraction of a beholder's impressions could be reproduced any more than an idea of the Lady Olivia's beauty could be gained from its inventory item by item. J. D. B.

Correspondence.

ANTI-McKINLEY PEDLARS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Just before election in this State, there was noticed an unusually large number of tin-pedlars circulating among the farming districts. These men were a little different from the ordinary run of pedlars; they were bright and intelligent, wore good clothes, drove sleek horses, smoked good cigars, and seemed anxious not so much to sell their wares as to bring them to the notice of the farmer and his family. Their sales were slight, but their spirits seemed to be not in the least dampened thereby. They would go from farm-house to farm-house, tie the horse to the fence, and come in with an armful of tinware. They never talked crops or politics, but confined themselves to begging people to buy tinware. When remonstrated with for charging such a high price, they admitted the price had risen: tin pans and cups and dippers, it is true, used to be sold at such a figure, but they positively couldn't think of selling them at that figure now. In fact, they were offering these same pans and pails at a ruinously low profit to themselves; there was really nothing in it for them.

"What has raised the price?" asked the farmer. "The McKinley Bill," answered the pedlar, in hushed tones; "we are very sorry, very sorry, indeed, but positively we are not making more than a bare living our-selves; we don't understand the bill, never did bother about politics, don't care a snap who is elected. We only know that in our business we have to pay more for tinware, and of course have to charge you more for a dinner-pail or bread-pan than last year. Can't sell you any tin? Sorry. Good day." Thus these amiable, engaging emissaries of trade went on, working township after township; cheerful and industrious, paying their bills promptly, and never colliding. After election they disappeared as suddenly as they came. But there was an ominous falling off in Republican votes in the territory they had covered.

And now the Republicans claim that these suave and loquacious people were no true tin-pedlars at all, but wicked Democrats in disguise. Maybe they were; but at any rate they succeeded in educating the farmer by using the tin-pail as an object-lesson. With true pedagogic skill, the word "tariff" was "developed" in a way that would have delighted Pestalozzi's soul. The farmer, like the child in the kindergarten class, when allowed to see, feel, and handle the object, acquired a "vivid and lasting concept" of the word. Like a good little boy, he learned his lesson thoroughly, and, when called upon at the polls, recited it with startling effect. It does not matter much who his teachers were, but it must be confessed that, from a scientific point of view, they were adepts in stannic and bucolic psychology.

E. L. M.

South Chicago, November 14, 1890.

A NICE QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article on the Pattison victory in your issue of November 13, you make the following statement: "The most contemptible figure in this campaign has been cut by the Philadelphia *Press*, a Republican organ of this State." Are you not unintentionally doing the *Press* an injustice? It is generally recognized to be a straight-out, hide-bound party organ in this State, and is expected to uphold everything that the party managers introduce, through thick and thin. The *Evening Telegraph*, on the other hand, has been a paper of a different sort. Though not possessed of much backbone politically, it has had the reputation of being on the right side in considering questions of decency or morality; but it seems unjust to the *Press* (of which nothing was expected) to say that its attitude in this late campaign has been more contemptible than that of the *Evening Telegraph*. Throughout, the *Telegraph* has ignored and refused to assist the work of the Lincoln Independent Committee, which was badly in need of a helping hand from a Republican paper; but on the day after election it published the enclosed editorial, which takes identically the same position as was occupied by the Independents. Moreover, during the latter part of the campaign the *Telegraph* day after day published, in one column, editorials inveighing against the provisions of the McKinley Bill, and in the next others urging the necessity of voting for Delamater lest his defeat might lead to the repeal of that bill. The idea suggested by this course was that the *Telegraph* expressed its own sentiments in the first column, and rented out the second to Andrews and Cooper for their tariff bugaboo articles. Is not this more contemptible than the attitude of the *Press*?

Very truly yours, Theo. J. Lewis.

Philadelphia, Pa., November 19, 1890.

THE MICHIGAN BALLOT-LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article "Ballot-Reform in the Elections," in your issue of yesterday, it seems to me that you have overlooked the fact that in this State (Michigan) we voted for the first time under a new law, providing booths and tickets furnished by the State. The election by the Democrats of the entire State ticket and a gain of six and perhaps seven Congressmen, giving us eight or nine of the entire eleven, was certainly a great surprise to politicians as well as to the rank and file of all parties; but whether the result was attributable in any marked degree to the new method of voting, I am not sufficiently informed to say.

Yours truly, Geo. B. Daniels.

Stanton, Mich., November 21, 1890.

MAYNE REID AND FENNO HOFFMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the recently published memoir of Capt. Mayne Reid by his widow, there is printed at length as *his* work a poem entitled "Monterey," beginning:

> "We were not many, we who stood
> Before the iron sleet that day,
> Yet many a gallant spirit would
> Give half his years if he but could
> Have been with us at Monterey."

This poem was familiar to many schoolboys of thirty years ago, but in the school-speakers, and in Mr. C. A. Dana's 'Household Book of Poetry,' it is attributed to Charles Fenno Hoffman. It also appears in a collection of Hoffman's poems published a few years ago. There can be no doubt as to its authenticity.

Mrs. Reid has, no doubt, made an innocent mistake, but she should correct it. Mayne Reid has just claims to the gratitude of the boys of the last generation, and he never could have claimed that which was not his own.

Geo. H. Fisher.

Philadelphia, November 18, 1890.

BLIZZARD FOSSILS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 1319 of the *Nation*, p. 286, I find a letter from Mr. S. Garman, dated Cambridge, October 3, 1890, in which this investigator refers to a little paper published by myself in the *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift* of February 23, 1890, entitled "Snow-storms as Destructive of Diluvian Mammals." In this paper I endeavored, from my own researches, to prove that many deposits of bones of mammals might not have been caused by floods, but probably owed their origin to the snow-storms of antiquity.

Although I reached this conclusion independently and through my own reflection, it is very far from my thought to lay any claim to priority with regard to it (though for many particulars in the exposition of the hypothesis priority perhaps might be conceded to me). As I have since learned from the work of Leopold Schrenck on 'The First Discovery of a Carcase of *Rhinoceros Merckii*' (St. Petersburg, 1880), this able investigator advanced as early as 1871 the opinion that the mammoth-elephants and rhinoceroses whose unrotted carcases are found in the icy soil or frozen snow of Northern Siberia, were overcome by snow-storms. Schrenck thus gave expression nineteen years ago to the leading idea contained in Garman's communication to the *Nation* on "Blizzard Fossils."

Without doubt, however, Mr. Garman has priority over me in that he published as far back as 1882 and 1883, with regard to certain deposits of fossil bones in North America, views similar to, if not as elaborate as, those embraced in my paper cited above. For the rest, in that paper I by no means expressed myself as if I had been the *first* to surmise that snow-storms extinguished the diluvian mammals. I left it an open question whether any one had anticipated me in publishing this surmise. Nevertheless, every one who reads my paper in the original will gain the impression that it rests on *my own* researches, and that I arrived at my hypothesis *quite independently*. Since in composing my paper I was acquainted with neither Schrenck's nor Garman's notions on the same subject, my exposition was in no manner influenced by theirs, while it contains much that has been left unsaid by both of them.

The circumstance that three naturalists in three different places have reached individually the same conclusion, must vouch for its soundness. In closing, I call attention to pages 43 *et seq.* and 128 *et seq.* of my recent book, 'On Tundras and Steppes of the Present and of Past Time, with Special Reference to their Fauna' (Berlin: Ferd. Dummler, 1890).

Dr. Alfred Nehring,

Berlin, November 5, 1890.

Notes.

THE American edition of Talleyrand's 'Memoirs' is to be published in this country by Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons, simultaneously with its issue in Paris and in London. The work is to be complete in five volumes, the first of which is expected to be in readiness early in the new year, the others following at intervals of a few weeks.

An elaborate essay, by Daniel Greenleaf Thompson, on 'The Philosophy of Fiction in Literature,' is in the press of Longmans, Green & Co.

'Seven Dreamers,' New England dialect stories, by Annie Trumbull Slosson, is announced as nearly ready by the Harpers.

The 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' which Mr. R. H. Inglis Palgrave, F.R.S., is editing, and which is to be published by Macmillan & Co., is now assuming a definite shape, and the first part is to be out in January. Among the contributors are a number of well-known American writers. The object of the 'Dictionary' is to give a statement of the position of political economy at the present time, together with such references to history, law, and commerce as may be of use. Macmillan & Co. have also in press 'A Dictionary of Classical Mythology, Religion, Literature, Art, and Antiquities,' revised and edited from the German of Dr. Seyffert by H. Nettleship and J. E. Sandys. The work will contain nearly 500 illustrations.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will publish early next month vol. vi. of the new edition of 'Chambers's Cyclopædia.' They will shortly issue also 'A Successful Man,' by the author of 'A Diplomat's Diary'; and a 'Dream of a Modest Prophet,' a novel of social regeneration, by Gen. M. D. Leggett.

The first English translation of Claude Tillier's 'My Uncle Benjamin' will have the imprint of Benj. R. Tucker, Boston.

The J. G. Cupples Co., Boston, promise 'The Chevalier of Pensieri-Vani,' by Stanton Page.

A third historical novel of Julius Wolff's, 'Fifty Years, Three Months, Two Days,' translated by W. H. and Elizabeth R. Winslow, and 'A Web of Gold,' by Katherine Pearson Woods, author of 'Metzerott, Shoemaker,' are on the list of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Wire: its Manufacture and Uses,' by J. Bucknall Smith, and 'Wooden Trestle Bridges,' by Wolcott C. Foster.

Dr. W. Clarke Robinson, Professor of English Literature in Kenyon College, Ohio, has been authorized by Prof. ten Brink to translate from the German his standard history of English literature, which was recently reviewed in the *Nation*. The translation is already in part in the hands of Prof. ten Brink for revision, and will be published simultaneously by Henry Holt of New York and George Bell of London.

The thousandth anniversary of the birth of Saadia Gaon (892) is to be celebrated by the publication of the works of this Jewish and Arabic scholar in fifteen volumes (including a biography by Dr. A. Harkavy, and essays on Saadia's philosophy, etc., by several hands). The laboring oar will be taken by Prof. Joseph Derenbourg of Paris. The subscription price is ten dollars for an ordinary set, and forty dollars for an edition on Holland paper. Checks, to the order of Jacob H. Schiff, Treasurer, should be sent to Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., University of Philadelphia, Pa.

The Red Book of the Exchequer is being edited for the Rolls Series by Mr. Hubert Hall of the Public Record Office. This is the most important of ancient English records after Domesday Book. It is not only a Roll of Honor for the England Baronage, etc., but is the official Entry Book of the Exchequer on which all great officers of state were sworn, that is, as containing formulæ of their oaths. Mr. Elliot Stock will shortly publish 'The Antiquities and Curiosities of the Exchequer,' by the same author, who is already well known by his 'History of the Customs Revenue Society in the Elizabethan Age' and 'Court Life under the Plantagenets.' This work will form vol. i. of the new "Camden Library."

The copy of Captain Cook's Journal purchased by the late Mr. Comer is about to be edited in a popular form by the latter's literary executor, Mr. Bell. A collation of this Journal with the copy in the Admiralty archives shows some differences. Dampier's voyages are to be edited for the Hakluyt Society by Lieutenant Dampier, R.N., under the supervision of Mr. Clements Markham, C.B., the President of the Society.

In the catalogue of "Additional" MSS. which is being prepared for publication by the authorities of the Bodleian Library, there are two items of some interest to Americans. One is the Journal of the Quaker George Fox's travels in America and the West Indies in 1671-1673; the other is the Log-Book of Admiral Byron during that officer's not very distinguished command in North America and in the West Indies in 1778-1779. The Admiral lay for some time in Nantasket Road. Students will find the former MS. classified as A 95, and the latter as C 70. We may add, by the way, that among the Tanner and Rawlinson collections of MSS. will be found many documents relating to the colonial period of American history.

A number of new editions are on our table, first to deserve mention being the two volumes (iii. and iv.) of Lowell's Poems in the ten-volume edition of his 'Writings' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The poems are now complete, as is shown by the indexes of first lines and of titles. Vol. iii. leads off with the "Fable for Critics," and we must not pass it by without extracting the author's truthful vindication, not only of the "Fable," but of his other occasional characterizations of his contemporaries: "You may be sure that I know what is meant by a caricature and what by a portrait." The "Fable," he tells us, was "extemporized, I may fairly say, so rapidly was it written"; and this language could be applied to the rhymed "Letter from Boston," dashed off two years before. Finally, we remark yet another portrait, on steel, of a date not indicated, but in the poet's prime of years. The "Exmoor Edition" of Blackmore's 'Lorna Doone' is in three pretty volumes, bound in blue cloth, that issue from the Knickerbocker Press of the Messrs. Putnam. The author furnishes an introductory note of approbation, and rejoices in the substance of copyright which his publishers secure him. The justice-loving public should accordingly discriminate in favor of this form of a novel popular enough to have been pirated, or, in Mr. Blackmore's euphemistic language, to have visited us "by force of savage ravishers." Charles Reade is redivivus in his 'Peg Woffington' and 'Christie Johnstone,' which usher in the "Giunta Series" of Dodd, Mead & Co. The typography is distinguished, for the letters are a specially imported French face, and the composition of them has been intrusted to the University Press, Cambridge, Mass., with the best results. The volumes are of handy shape, and these two are adorned with frontispieces. The binding is buff-colored, stamped, we think, with less taste than the elegance within called for. Long's translation of the 'Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius' has been in all respects handsomely and conveniently reproduced by the Chiswick Press for the London firm of Geo. Bell & Sons (New York: Scribner & Welford). The covers of this companionable work are durably backed with an olive-green canvas.

A youthful production of Prosper Mérimée's, the historical novel called 'A Chronicle of the Reign of Charles IX.,' otherwise a romance of the Saint-Bartholomew, has been newly translated by the competent hand of Mr. George Saintsbury. The Cassell Publishing Co. have put it forth in sumptuous apparel—generous quarto or grand octavo page, broad margins, heavy paper, and a wealth of illustrations irregularly disposed and for the most part effective and ornamental. Nothing is wanting to attract those in search of a gift-book of such a class.

Mr. Walter Thomas Rogers's 'Manual of Bibliography' (Scribner & Welford), a pretty and handy book in white and gold, defines Bibliography on p. 161 in a glossary of terms; but of the four meanings none fits that intended to be conveyed by the title of this work, viz.: "The knowledge of books, library management, and the art of cataloguing." Such a use cannot be commended, and it is symptomatic of a want of qualification in the author for the task he has undertaken. He is neither a master of language nor a clever condenser, nor, in such moot questions as are involved in the origin of printing, a judicious or cautious reporter of what is really known. For any of the topics just enumerated American readers can better consult domestic authorities. The most surprising thing is, that while Mr. Rogers disclaims any originality for his compilation, he nowhere acknowledges the source of his thirty-seven illustrations, which are, with one exception, taken over (we presume, by arrangement) from Bouchot's 'The Book.' It is not enough to find this work at the head of section ii. of his list of books of reference, or the subject of the sole advertisement in the volume.

'The Old Meeting-House, and Vacation Papers, Humorous and Other,' edited for the Rev. A. M. Colton by his brother, consists of the lighter sort of contributions to religious newspapers, occasional addresses, sermons. The more valuable portion lies in boyish reminiscences of country life in Vermont; but among the very miscellaneous contents one comes unexpectedly upon a leaf of travel which involves a visit to the "martyr Torrey" in his fatal prison-cell at Baltimore on April 28, 1846. Torrey was in the last stages of consumption, and his death was hourly expected. The author had been at college with this victim of the Slave Power. If Torrey had been a murderer, the Governor of Maryland is quoted as having said, he might have been allowed to die outside the walls of the jail; "but as it is, . . . this running slaves away has got to be stopped."

Mr. Bellamy's 'Looking Backward' has been translated into Italian as 'L'Avvenire! ? uno sguardo retrospettivo dall' anno 2000 ai nostri giorni.' The publisher speaks of its "immense success in America, England, and Germany."

A 'Junior School Algebra,' by W. S. Beard (Longmans), gives the briefest possible statement of the rules of algebra as far as and including quadratic equations, without demonstrations of any kind except the conviction produced by the solution of large numbers of illustrative examples. Some idea of the vast number of "exercises" the book contains may be obtained from the fact that the "answers"

at the end of the book occupy no less than fifty-six pages. Noteworthy is a collection of twenty-one examination papers actually used in various schools, colleges, school-boards, and in the examination of candidates for positions in the Government civil service. To each of these papers is prefixed the name of the institution, school-board, or other body by whom the paper was used. A 'School Trigonometry' by the Rev. Frederick Sparks, issued by the same publishers, is one of the most admirable text-books we have ever seen. While it is eminently fitted to its title, the title is in no way fitted to express the higher merits of the book, which is alike suited for use in the class-room and as a reference book for the engineer. There is a fulness, neatness, precision, and finish in all the details that renders it worthy of the highest praise.

Under the title, 'Beyging sterkra sagnorda i Islensku' (The Inflection of Strong Verbs in Icelandic), Dr. Jon Thorkelsson, the Rector of the gymnasium in Reykiavik, Iceland, sends out the third annual instalment of what will be, when completed, a most valuable scientific contribution to the detailed history of the Icelandic language. The work contains, as far as it has been possible to cite them, reference places of each form from the old language of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, as contained in both Icelandic and Norse sources. Where, however, it is impossible to refer to older forms, the younger alone are given. The later citations are, for the most part, from the latter half of this century, and besides original Icelandic works are included, among others, translations of the 'Iliad,' Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' 'Robinson Crusoe,' and John Stuart Mill 'On Liberty.' The verbs are arranged alphabetically. The present instalment gives, thus far, 240 pages, and brings the whole work down to the verb *hrjoda*.

Following its own precedent, 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas,' in Part 26 of the current edition (B. Westermann & Co.), maps the United States under the rubric 'West Indies, Central America'; but there is an independent return to the subject on a larger scale. On this map, No. 79, we see the new States of the Northwest displayed and the curious *enclave*, Oklahoma Territory—the cancer of civilization in the heart of the Indian Territory. The same Part contains a general map of North America, and another of Greece as a fragment of the Balkan Peninsula. In Part 25, there is a fine new map of Western Canada, with a general map of Europe, and one of Saxony and its neighbor lands.

The address of Mr. H. H. Johnston, on the development of tropical Africa, before the merchants of Liverpool, published in the November *Fortnightly*, is full of suggestion and information given in a bright and entertaining way. He pleads for the establishment of a special school in which the principal African languages, forestry, and natural history shall be taught, and men trained for the African service just as they are for China, Japan, Siam, and the Turkish dominions. A man going out for his first term of service should not be under twenty-one years nor over thirty; and if he is middle-sized and thin, he is more likely to resist the dangers of the climate than if he is tall and stout. Total abstinence from all alcoholic drinks is absolutely essential to the health. If prescribed by a physician, then alcohol should be taken after sundown, for taken during the daytime in Africa, it is "simply poison to the white man." He rapidly reviews the principal products of the vast regions under British influence, as, the palm-oil; rubber, the best of which, bringing £270 a ton, is made from a creeping plant everywhere prevalent; indigo and cotton, which also in their wild state are to be found in great abundance in these parts of the continent. The people he divides into three sections, the Arabs, the Negroids, and the Negroes. The Negroids, under which head he includes the Gallas, Somalis, and Nubians of Eastern Africa, and the Fulahs of the Niger basin, he believes will eventually disappear by absorption into the other two. He augurs hopefully from the extraordinary readiness of the negroes to accept civilization.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November opens with a paper by the editor on the partition of Africa, accompanied by a large and valuable map. This is followed by the second of Mr. J. G. Bartholomew's lists of the best and most recent maps. Though devoted entirely to Africa, it fills twenty-one pages of the magazine and includes about five hundred maps, the greater part of which have been published within the past ten years. The publisher, price, date, and geographical value of each map are stated, together with a general key map, so colored as to show at a glance the sources from which the maps of the different parts of the continent have been derived, whether from detailed surveys or from travellers' itineraries. Only Algeria, Tunis, and a strip of Egypt, about 200,000 square miles in all, have been thoroughly surveyed, while 3,800,000 square miles, or nearly a third, of Africa still remain "unexplored country."

A supplemental number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, just issued, contains an elaborate geographical monograph on the Greek islands Cephalonia and Ithaca, by Dr. Joseph Partsch.

The *Rio News* does not exaggerate the importance of the transfer of the *Jornal do Commercio* of that city from its ownership for sixty-eight years to Messrs. Rodrigues & Co. The *Jornal* is the oldest and most influential journal in the country, but its late proprietor, the Conde de Villeneuve, was a non-resident, whereas Mr. J. C. Rodrigues, who succeeds him, and who will also be the chief editor, has returned to his native land to take part in its regeneration consequent upon the overthrow of slavery and monarchy. Mr. Rodrigues has been for very many years a correspondent of the *Jornal*, latterly in London and formerly in this city, where he founded and conducted almost single-handed an illustrated paper, *O Novo Mundo*, which attained an extraordinary circulation in Brazil, till it was extinguished by a bit of local McKinleyism aimed to protect Brazilian against Portuguese publishers in the reproduction of the Portuguese classics. Mr. Rodrigues is a writer of exceptional ability, as well as of rare liberality and elevation of spirit; and in view of this and of his American and English experience, the *Jornal* under his management must powerfully affect the development of our sister republic.

—Mr. Gladstone has sketched, in a little book entitled 'Landmarks of Homeric Study' (Macmillan & Co.), the outlines of those studies and opinions which are fully presented in the 'Homeric Studies,' the 'Juventus Mundi,' 'Time and Place of Homer,' and more lately in a series of magazine articles. In this summary, Mr. Gladstone shows the same unfailing faith as heretofore in the oneness and indivisibility of Homer, in his Achaian origin, his authorship of both 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey,' and in "the essential unity" of both these poems. Their unity and authenticity, he argues, are shown most clearly by the consistency of the facts, or *Realien*, they contain, in spite of their mass and variety. This consistency holds throughout both 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey'; apparent inconsistencies are explained by the supposition that the former poem represents the "inner zone," the latter the "outer zone" of the poet's experience. The contents are not only a whole, but "a historic whole." The poems were, moreover, written with a conscious aim, viz., "to launch upon the world what we may term the Greek idea—to commemorate and to mould the Achaian race." The style of the poems also proves their unity, in Mr. Gladstone's opinion, though he professes himself not qualified to discuss linguistic questions in detail. The site of Troy he is inclined to place at Hissarlik, and to reject positively the claims of Bunarbashi. It is needless to say that most of these conclusions have been controverted by the highest authorities in scholarship. The book is simply a succession of remarks and propositions stated without much regard to literary form. It is curious to find the author considering it "settled" that the poems were not originally committed to writing; a still more curious notion is, that in Odysseus the poet intended to depict a character resulting from the amalgamation of a Phœnician element (!) with Achaian stock. Is any character more Greek than Themistocles—or more like Odysseus? The following sentence is noteworthy coming from Mr. Gladstone's pen: "So far as I am able to discern, the average Hebrew of the earlier historical Books of Scripture falls short of rather than exceeds in moral stature the Achaian Greek." This, too, is striking: "There is no god of the Poems . . . that is so *good* as the swineherd Eumaios." The last chapter discusses the points of contact between the Assyrian tablets and the Homeric text, with results which, in the present state of research, must be regarded as dubious or untrustworthy.

—It is with a certain sense of relief that we note the final completion of the second edition of that most respectable and most colorless of historical compilations, Georg Weber's 'Weltgeschichte' (Leipzig: W. Engelmann). The second half of the fifteenth volume, which we have before us, comprising the period from 1852 to the present time, has all the characteristic traits of its predecessors, the same general trustworthiness as to facts, the same even flow of narrative, the same tinge of optimistic philistinism, the same absence of strong individual convictions. As the book is meant for German readers, it is natural that German affairs should have absorbed the largest share of the author's attention. And it is only fair to say that the outward events of the great struggle for national consolidation of the German people, especially the conflicts with Austria and France, and the subsequent two decades of the new empire, are correctly and on the whole discriminatingly represented; although it reminds one a little of the naïve tone of mediæval chroniclers to find on p. 532, in the midst of a discussion of the social reform bills, the military septennate, and other momentous subjects of national importance, a notice of the death of the young Prince Waldemar, the wreck of the Hamburg-American steamer *Cimbria*, and the foundering of the German cruiser *Augusta*. One cannot help wondering why the author, if he found space for such almanac gossip, completely ignored the events of the literary and artistic world. The least satisfactory part of the book is the treatment of the rest of Europe and the transatlantic countries. The United States is disposed of in twenty-three pages out of 700; Mr. Blaine is called "ein Mann von irischer Abkunft und ultramontaner Gesinn-

ung": the latter term being, in the mind of the author, identical with satanic maliciousness. The volume is edited by Dr. Friedrich Weber, the son of Georg, who died an octogenarian in 1888, shortly before giving the last touch to the work of his life. His well-executed portrait, which is prefixed to the title-page, shows him in his full, benevolent, and happy manhood.

— The November number of the *Deutsche Rundschau* brings, from the hand of a personal friend of Gotfried Keller's, very interesting reminiscences of the last year of the great Swiss poet's life. It seems that he anticipated his death long before his friends entertained any serious fears for his health. When, in 1889, he heard that the city of Zürich intended to celebrate his seventieth birthday by a public demonstration, he quietly left town, and to a deputation of citizens who presented him with a gold medal, he said: "Das kann ich Ihnen sagen, meine Herren, das ist das Zeichen für das Ende vom Lied." Soon after, he made his will, bequeathing the bulk of his little fortune to the University and the Public Library of Zürich, devoting, however, a part of it to a fund for invalid Swiss soldiers. To this legacy he added: "Since I have never had an opportunity to serve my country as a soldier, I am glad to pay her a small tribute at least in this manner." On his sick-bed his fancy remained wonderfully active almost to the last. At times he seemed much worried that his poetical work was to be left unfinished. "Oh, if I only could leave my head to somebody," he would cry. But then he would comfort himself with humorous conceptions. "They ought to put my ashes," he would say, "into a vessel and give them to the students to strew in the Limmat; but of course they ought to have a good barrel of wine to celebrate over it." At his funeral all Switzerland paid homage to her great son. When the body was carried away from the Zürich Cathedral, the vast assembly broke out singing Keller's own song, which now seems destined to become the national hymn:

"O mein Schweizerland, all mein Gut und Hab',
Wenn der-Inst mein banges Stündlein kommt,
Ob ich Schwacher dir auch nichts gefrommt,
Nicht verrate mir ein stilles Grab
Werf' ich ab von mir dies mein Staubgewand,
Bet'n will ich dann zu Gott dem Herrn:
Lasse strahlen deinen schönsten Stern
Nieder auf mein heilig Vaterland."

—The *Livre* publishes certain private letters of Mürger, Charles Nodier, and Sainte-Beuve which may be called indiscreet, though their indiscretion is far less wide and deep than some of Mürger's that we have seen before now from time to time in the catalogues of autograph-sellers. Of the present collection Sainte-Beuve's letter is the longest. It shows him in the position of lay confessor to a young woman who has disclosed to him her domestic unhappiness, and her determination at all costs to leave her uncongenial husband. Sainte-Beuve replies that where there are no maternal duties to bind her to a cradle, a woman's first desire would naturally be to fly from a state of moral torment that nothing can relieve or remedy. But a woman must brave the world to do this, and she requires some support—parents if possible, a woman friend; at any rate, somebody. She must learn to disregard what the world says, for, after all, it is more cowardly than it is malicious—and so on, and so on. The letter is, in fact, of a sort to give some satisfaction to the malicious portion of the cowardly world. The amusing part of the whole business is that Sainte-Beuve was in this case simply taken in by an autograph-hunter. The unhappy young woman was a pure mystification. A clever rascal, in quest of autographs, using various pseudonyms, such as Gabriel Vicaire, Soriano, Ludovic Picard, and others, wrote to many of the well-known men of the time asking for counsel or advice or encouragement. Sometimes, as to Sainte-Beuve, he was an unhappy wife, sometimes an *écuyère* of the circus, sometimes a young artist, unsuccessful and tempted to suicide. He made up in this way a quite valuable collection of autographs, which, of course, he sold. It is a satisfaction to know that occasionally he cheated himself. In 1857 he sold an autograph of Proudhon for three or four francs which afterwards brought five hundred at a public sale.

—Apropos of the familiar *mot* of Alphonse Karr's about the abolition of capital punishment—"Que messieurs les assassins commencent"—of which we lately spoke, a correspondent writes to the London *Guardian* to say that the epigram was not of Karr's own minting, but was borrowed by him from the 'Heliotropium' of the German Drexelius (1581-1638). The passage referred to (lib. iv., cap. ii., s. i.) reads: "Quondam fœx hominum, et furum, lavernionum, effractorum ampla societas libellos supplices porrexerunt judicibus, rogaruntque patibula et furcas auferrent. . . . His a judicibus responsum est, siquidem antiquatum cupiant morem patibulandi, prius ipsi consuetudinem abrogent furandi, judices in mora non futuros, quod protinus cruces tollant et patibula, modo ipsi prius cessare jubeant furta." Of course this may be mere coincidence, yet the phrase is one of the two upon which Karr based his hopes of being remembered. After all, the man who revives a forgotten witty saying has some claim upon our gratitude. In an opposite way, every new good thing that is said brings to the mind a subtle suggestion of regret. It limits the field of wit in the future, and diminishes by one the number of good things which it is still possible to say.

—A summary of the four annual reports of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Japanese Government, from 1884 to 1887, is of interest to other than medical readers. The vital statistics showing the rate of births, 27.28 to every thousand persons in 1881, or 1 to every 36 94 persons in 1887, are given in full. Perhaps they explain the discussion now pervading the Japanese newspapers concerning the threatened overpopulation of the empire. The study of Malthus and of these figures, which are occasionally marshalled by editorial alarmists who have an eye to the sale of their papers, has really frightened some of the conservative Japanese, and a cry for more planting of sweet potatoes has gone up. The virtue of the Satsuma *imo*, or sweet potato, was tried a generation or two ago during famine, and its popularity as compared with "Dutch" or Java potatoes is vastly greater. Cholera, which rarely touches foreigners, exceeds all other epidemics as a reducer of population. In 1887, of 154,780 patients, 101,944 died. The Japanese vulgar derivation of the word *ko-rori* (cholera) makes it a compound of the names of three ravenous beasts of prey. Typhoid fever comes next in devastating power, dysentery, diphtheria, typhus fever, and small-pox following in relative order. The terrible floods of this and last year have had much to do with the prevalent dysentery, but the abominable sewerage and the general infiltration of the soil by liquid manure which never suggests "*sweet* fields . . . arrayed in living green," are the prime and chronic causes of disease. The long-argued question of licensing female physicians was settled in 1884, when five applicants for examination for registration as medical practitioners in Tokio presented themselves, only one being successful. In reality the Japanese, in licensing women doctors, are but reviving a mediæval custom. None but duly licensed and certificated dentists (old name, "tooth carpenters") and bone-setters are now allowed to practise their craft. A national Pharmacopœia, compiled by a large staff of native and foreign physicians and scholars, has been published by order of the Government, and the drug business is carefully regulated for the protection of life. Opium is the monopoly of the Government, incessant vigilance being used to guard against its abuse by smoking and otherwise. A Sanitary Museum Library, Medical Botanical Garden, and Hygienic Laboratory have been established in Tokio. Since the physicians were, as a class, the leaders of science and civilization in old Japan before the fall of the military despotism which for centuries cramped the Japanese intellect, this splendid showing of medical science in Japan seems to have something of poetic justice in it, as well as the solid gain of greater security to life. The frank exposure of facts by the native writers contrasts curiously with the rhetoric of sentimental flatterers who have praised the Japanese even in their indolence and foolishness.

RECENT POETRY.

It is a curious fact that the two most interesting and altogether important poetic collections lately published, respectively in England and America, should both be by dead authors. Here, however, the resemblance ends, as the 'Poetical Works' of Thomas Lovell Beddoes (Macmillan) were partially reprinted more than forty years ago; while the 'Poems' by Emily Dickinson (Boston: Roberts Bros.) bear a name that was previously unknown except to a very few friends. The contrast in other respects is as complete; Beddoes being in the last degree objective and dramatic, and Miss Dickinson introspective and subjective—just as his whole life was wandering and wayward, and hers so secluded as to be more than nunlike. They have absolutely nothing in common but the quality of genius, and it is only because that gift does not abound, just now, upon the critic's table, that they are here linked together at all. It may be added, however, that a certain transfusion of blood appears in each; Beddoes being distinctly the last of the Elizabethans, and Emily Dickinson holding distinctly, though unconsciously, to the school of William Blake—if indeed he had any other scholar. Beddoes reminds us of his metrical ancestry not merely in what his editor, Mr. Gosse, describes as "the lost magic of the tragic blank verse of the Elizabethans," but in his extraordinary lyric quality. It is perhaps his misfortune to have fallen into the hands of an editor so uniformly timid, apologetic, and belittling as to leave us in doubt why he consented to employ his mind on stuff which he thinks so inferior; but much of this tone prevails in recent London editing, and Mr. Gosse is not the man to rise above it. Heaven forbid that any one should, on the other hand, make a "cult" of the stormy and wayward Beddoes, born just on the edge of the Shelley and Keats period, and inheriting their sorrows with his own; but surely his strong music, his regal epithets, his unflinching passion deserved a better interpreter. A lyric like the following, for instance, might have come out of Mr. Bullen's recent collection of 'Songs from the Elizabethan Dramatists,' except that there is a very slight flavor of

more modern, and, so to speak, sentimental sympathy (I., 62):

DIRGE.

Let dew the flowers fill;
No need of fell dismair,
Though to the grave you bear
One still of soul—but now too still,
One fair—but now too fair.
For, beneath your feet, the mound,
And the waves that play around,
Have meaning in their grassy, and their watery smiles;
And with a thousand sunny wiles
Each says, as he rep oves,
Death's arrow oft is Love's.

Or this Jonson-like epitaph (I., 63):

EPITAPH.

The form's divinity, the heart's best grace,
Where are they? Have they their immortal throne
Upon thy maiden's thought and peerless face,
Thou cool-eyed reader? Yet, beneath this stone
Dust lies, were a grow, and this is the remain
Of one best union of that deathless twain.

Of the tragedies we can give no impression by citation; their very titles show their motives and their traditions: "The Bride's Tragedy," "Death's Jest-Book, or the Fool's Tragedy," "The Second Brother," "Love's Arrow Poisoned," "The Last Man." All save the first of these are more or less unfinished. Beddoes was born in 1803 and died by his own hand in 1849. Through Miss Zoë King, his cousin, who had what Mr. Gosse rather disparagingly calls "a romantic interest" in Beddoes, but what most people would call a generous cousinly sympathy for him, the papers of the poet were carefully kept together, with all that related to him, in the hands of Mr. T. F. Kelsall, through whom they passed to Robert Browning, whose son now holds them. They are here edited carefully and conscientiously, and the reader would have nothing but gratitude for the editor had he only excluded from the volumes all which bears his own signature.

The poems of Emily Dickinson are not so seriously weighed down by their editors—Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd and Mr. T. W. Higginson—since they leave her mainly to speak for herself. We learn that she was born in 1830 and died in 1886, living almost always in extreme seclusion in the college town of Amherst, Mass., where her father, a lawyer, held also the responsible position of college treasurer. She resolutely refused to publish her verses, showing them only to a very few friends. As a consequence, she had almost no criticism, and was absolutely untrammelled; so that the verses are sometimes almost formless, while at other times they show great capacity for delicate and sweet melody, suggesting the chance strains of an Æolian harp. But in compass of thought, grasp of feeling, and vigor of epithet, they are simply extraordinary, and strike notes, very often, like those of some deep-toned organ. Take, for instance, this, which fully sustains the Blake-like quality suggested by the editors in their preface (p. 119):

"I died for beauty, but was scarce
Adjusted in the tomb,
When one who died for truth was lain
In an adjoining room.

"He questioned softly why I failed?
'For beauty,' I replied.
'And I for truth,—the two are one;
We brethren are,' he said.

"And so, as kinsmen met a night,
We talked between the rooms,
Until the moss had reached our lips
And covered up our names."

The extraordinary terseness and vigor of that weird conclusion runs through all the poems; in this case it so grasps the ear that you hardly notice the defect in the rhyme. Little cared she for that, provided she uttered her thought. Yet at times she reached with the same sudden grasp a completeness of utterance that was nothing less than lyric—as in the two verses on the opposite page to the above (p. 118):

"A train went through a burial gate;
A bird broke forth and sang,
And trilled, and quivered, and shook his throat
Till all the churchyard rang;

"And then adjusted his little notes
And bowed and sang again,
Doubtless he thought his meed of him
To say good-bye to men."

With all its inequalities and even oddities on its face, there is power enough on many a page of this little book to set up who e volumes of average poetry; and the public will i evitably demand to know more of the thoughts and mental processes of Emily Dickinson.

If there is indeed any one yet living into whom the Elizabethan blood is transfused, though with a difference, it is the (alleged) woman who masquerades under the name of Michael Field. In "The Tragic Mary" she has borrowed Mr. Pater's phrase for Mary Stuart, as given in his essay on Rossetti; and the preface opens with a fine prose passage in which she points out that Edinburgh is as inevitably the city of Mary Stuart as is Troy of Helen: we look in the streets themselves, as at Holyrood, into the very mirror that reflected her features. This dramatic poem is too long, is somewhat confused here and there, and not quite sustained towards the end; but it is, on the whole, the most powerful picture ever given of Mary, of Darnley, and of Bothwell. Perhaps the masterful quality of this rude lover is as well given in Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations'; and there is nothing here so graceful and exquisite as the French songs in Swinburne's 'Chastelard'; but the strength of the royal Stuart quality—so much stronger in Mary than in her descendants—is here. At the crisis of her conflict she turns from Darnley and exclaims (p. 24):

"So much to do, so thick a knot to break!
(*Bending, she writes in her Book of Hours.*)
O, Lord, avenge me of mine enemies.
I set it down: make Thou a bond with me!
Have we not common cause? These hypocrites
Pull down all holy things. My sturdy mood
Rides not the click of rosaries; receive
This sentence writ across the partial psalms,
And levy for me from the ends of heaven
Thy laggard legions: make me, in thy stead,
Victor and sovereign."

It is a long step from Michael Field down to Alfred Austin, whose commonplace muse would probably never have been connected, even by way of suggestion, with the Laureateship but for its devoutly Tory quality. It is, however, pleasant to observe in his volume of 'English Lyrics,' edited by William Watson (Macmillan), something unconventional and affectionate in the love of nature, though there is something almost ludicrous, to an American mind, in attempting to resist by a sonnet the tunnel under the British Channel, as Wordsworth tried to resist railways by similar artillery (p. 25):

"That men who learned to lisp at English knees
Of English fame, to pamper womanish ease
And swell the surfeits of voracious trade
Shall the impregnable breakers undermine,
Take ocean in reverse, and, basely bold,
Burrow beneath the bastions of the brine?"

It is certainly a curious fact that while nobody in France appears to be in the least alarmed at the thought of a tunnel under the Channel, all England should be convulsed with terror at that simple convenience of civilization. Where were our New York poets that they did not rally in squadrons of sonnets to prevent the building of the Brooklyn bridge?

As Mr. Austin surprises us with love of nature, so Lord Lytton surprises us with modesty, and affords us, in his 'Poems of Owen Meredith,' selected by M. Betham-Edwards (London: Walter Scott), a sonnet similar and manly enough to do honor to any man, with a grace and vigor of poetic expression for him unusual (p. 88):

CONSOLATION.

When I perceive how slight and poor appears
(Though with sad care and strong compulsion brought
Down ranged rhymes with strenuous search of thought)
The express'd result of my most assiduous years;
Remembering, too from what divines it hereres
Stoop'd many a starry visitant, and taught
My spirit at her toils—how round her wrought
Strong Raptures, Sorrows, Splendours rich in tears,
My whole heart fails me. Then an inward voice
Replies, "Possess thyself, and be content.
Life's best is so and not by the universe
Of any word, nor may in sound be spent,
To win back echoes out of this low chance,
What thou hast *felt* is thine. If much, rejoice."

Among recent volumes by living Americans, Edith Thomas of course takes the lead, holding as she clearly does, with Gilder, the headship of our younger poets. Her new volume, 'The Inverted Torch' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is a requiem like 'In Memoriam,' but cannot claim, like that, to have absolutely escaped the peril of monotony; yet it has her accustomed elevation and her invariable fineness of perception. She does not touch an emotion with the single and irresistible needle-touch of Emily Dickinson, but her thoughts are always her own, and are uniformly noble. Who, for instance, has surpassed, upon its own ground, this lofty dirge, embodying the successive experience of every human generation as its elders pass away? (p. 23):

"Time takes no toll of thee,
Age spares the soul of thee.
They vex thee no more
Besieging thy door;
Nor without nor within
Shall the vantage win.

"The long years are fled from thee,
The winters are shed from thee
As the snows retire
For Spring's hidden fire,
And the gray of the fields
To the young green yields.

"The long years descend on me,
The winters bend on me
Their gathering might
As when dwindles the light,
And the gray of the fields
To the white drift yields."

This takes rank with Blake's delineation of the Soul and the Body, the old man descending feebly into the tomb, while the freed youth stands in fresh nobleness upon the other side.

Among minor Americans who have won honorable poetic fame must be classed Mr. Christopher Pearse Cranch, whose 'The Bird and the Bell, with Other Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a collection, which he seems to regard as final, of the productions of his thoughtful and cultivated muse; and Miss Nora Perry, who unites two volumes, still separately paged—a fashion we cannot approve—under the incongruous name of 'After the Ball, and Her Lover's Friend, etc.' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Miss Perry is always careful and conscientious in her work, though always with a flavor of artificiality; and there seems no reason why her publishers should not have altered the paging in the plates of her second volume, and then united the two in a common index. Miss Edna Dean Proctor has also brought her 'Poems' together in a welcome volume (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), in which the Russian and Oriental flavors are the strongest, although two fine poems on Kearsarge and Monadnock still prove her true to her native heath. Mrs. Mary E. Blake, as yet less widely known than the preceding, gives us, in 'Verses along the Way' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), something of that zest and heartiness which the Celtic element is beginning to add to our literature; and her translations, at the end, from Mexican poets, are admirably done, and suggest the attractive paper of Mr. W. H. Hurlbert, written many years ago, on "Spanish American Poetry."

Mr. Eugene Field, in 'A Little Book of Western Verse' (Scribners), has to contend with one formidable and most fatal enemy, himself; he is so comic when he is droll that one reads his most serious performance, for instance his version of Uhland's "Three Cavaliers," without doubting that it is to end with a guffaw. Something of the same drawback exists in the case of 'A Little Brother of the Rich, and Other Verses,' by Edward Sandford Martin (Scribners), but the author more rarely treats himself to the sentimental. We must by

no means neglect to praise 'Seven Sonnets of Sculpture,' by M. Virginia McClurg, which have an unmistakable sculptural dignity and some fine touches of real appreciation, as when, in "The Venus of Melos to Venus Anadyomene," we find a contrast like this (p. 11):

"Thy lips to kiss; mine of imperial mould
Shut love's own secrets all the long years through;
Closer than cæsus binds, real arms will fold:
Thy weak doves fluttered while my eagles flew.
Drift, Foam-Wreath! I to watch and ward am bold—
She who is strong to love must dare and do."

This book (Boston: The Soule Photograph Co.) is a beautifully printed quarto, with seven ample spaces for the insertion of the photographs of sculpture described.

A book of far greater value, however, for those who love the eternal youthfulness of Greek literature and art is 'Fifty Poems of Meleager, with a Translation,' by Walter Headlam (Macmillan). It is one of those charming books for which we must still look almost wholly to England—though Prof. Palmer's 'Odyssey' is an exception—books in which the very soul of antique verse is transfused into English, while the carefully edited original text appears in sumptuous type on each opposing page. The name of Meleager is that of the chief poet and first collector of the ever-delightful "Greek Anthology," which is to Homer and Plato what the Tanagra figurines are to the work of Phidias. We know Greek daily life, Greek trees and flowers, largely through his laughing and always graceful lines and those of his followers; and the very fact of his foreign birth, for he was a Syrian, gives in all its seductive charm the Oriental quality which had already begun to soften the severer classic outlines. Mr. Headlam, in his preface, treats him as being now known chiefly by the chapter on the Anthology in Mr. Symonds's 'Studies of the Greek Poets,' but he is as well known to Americans, perhaps, through the successive essays of Sainte-Beuve and of Saint-Victor ('Hommes et Dieux'), which the present editor does not mention. Mr. Headlam has great gifts as a translator in the combination of ease and literalness, but he surely spoils the grace of Venus amid the waves when he renders διὰ γλαυκοῖο φαρείσα κύματος as "through the green waves sent" (p. 3); and he vulgarizes the sudden appearance of the graceful Helicdora by translating καίτοι κτύπος Ἡλιοδώρας "but that rustle and rattle" (p. 55). There is also a slight tendency to that use of affectedly simple and archaic words, such as "whenas," with which Mr. Andrew Lang has demoralized the present school of English translators. But there are few criticisms to be made upon a book which comes very near being the most delightful product of the season.

Perhaps the most repulsive product, on the other hand, is the volume of 'Shadows and Ideals,' by the late Francis S. Saltus (Albany: Moulton), which seem the morbid and blasted dreams of some poor wretch wrecked on the hard asphalt of Paris, and lost to all his early dreams. A book more grimly insane—tried by all ordinary standards—but more innocently, is 'The Pleroma, a Poem of the Christ,' by the Rev. E. P. Chittenden, A.M. (Putnams)—300 pages of solid geology and theology, where one may happen almost at random on lines like these (p. 189):

"Sing the Lithic ages twain!
Mammoth and the reindeer reign;
Glacial drift and frozen train;
Man contending
And forefending
Heaths 'gainst frozen streams.
Sing brute force and stern recourse
Of Palæolithic and Neolithe
In Quaternary quarries:
Arrow flints and chippen glints,
Strown on mari, crunched in snarl
That bull and cave-bear parries."

The book has many terrific wood-cuts of the early geologic periods, and a glossary of hard biologic and theologic words at the end.

A thoughtful and agreeable English book is 'Wordsworth's Grave, and Other Poems,' by William Watson (London: Unwin). Mr. Watson, although he appears elsewhere as the editor of Alfred Austin, is free from the current London affectations, and gives us a series of strong sonnets called "Ver Tenebrosum," written during the Sudanese war. He has also a kindly quatrain "On Longfellow's Death" (p. 69):

"No puissant singer he, whose silence grieves
To day the great West's tender heart and strong:
No singer vast of voice; yet one who leaves
His native air the sweeter for his song."

'The Religion of Humanity, and Other Poems,' by Annie Matheson (London: Percival), is pure and strong with noble womanly feeling. There is a touching "Song for Women" in which the first part of each verse describes a London seamstress, starving, and the last half carries us to sweet rural scenes. It closes thus (p. 3):

"O God in heaven! shall I, who share
That dying woman's womanhood,
Taste all the summer's bounteous good
Unburdened by her weight of care?
The white moon-daisies star the grass,
The lengthening shadows o'er them pass;
The meadow pool is smooth as glass."

Stuart Sterne (Miss Bloede) gives us another of her vigorous dramatic stories in the narrative poem 'Piero da Castiglione' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), and Mr. Hamilton Aïdé offers us only a rather superficial and shallow melody in the third edition of his 'Songs without Music' (Scribner & Welford). Mr. Frank Dempster Sherman, in his 'Lyrics for a Lute' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is almost always graceful, though sometimes a little artificial.

Among recent compilations of miscellaneous verse, the largest place materially, and perhaps historically, must be given to Mr. W. L. Fagan's 'Southern War Songs' (Richardson), a bulky volume containing a vast amount of poor poetry, even the poorest of which has great value as a record of some feeling, some impulse, or some delusion; each having thus some bearing on the as yet unwritten story of our great national contest. It is curious, for instance, how many of these verses recognize slavery as being really the objective point of the whole war, after all. Miss Jessie O'Donnell's 'Love Poems of Three Centuries' (Putnam's "Nuggets" series) form a tolerably commonplace collection, whose grade may be best judged from the fact that the three American poets from whom she extracts most profusely are Mrs. Moulton, Joaquin Miller, and Ella Wheeler Wilcox. 'Musical Moments' (Chicago: McClurg) consists of "short selections in prose and verse for music-lovers," and the choice is made with some discrimination. 'The Painter Poets,' selected and edited by Kineton Parkes (London: Walter Scott, "Canterbury Poets"), is less fortunate, at least in this respect, that it contains so many names of which it is necessary to remind us either that they were painters or that they were poets. In the two cases where the combination is unquestionable—those of Blake and Rossetti—the selections are not peculiarly felicitous. There are, however, some valuable biographical notes at the end; Washington Allston being the only American included, unless we count Mr. W. J. Linton. 'Amherst Memories' (Springfield, Mass., Printing Co.) is a collection of undergraduate verse from the college designated, and is certainly better than such books are wont to be.

The great drawback upon these minor collections of miscellaneous verse is apt to be the carelessness in editing, which so often utterly sacrifices sound or sense by a misread word. Literature has this drawback, as compared with the other arts, that while the art of printing multiplies its products indefinitely, they may at any moment be put thereby in such a shape that the original author may wish that they had never gone into print at all. Thus, for instance, in "Musical Moments," Praed is made to say of his belle of the ball—

"She warbled Handel; it was grand;
She made the Catalina jealous"—

the name of an Italian singer (Catalani) being transformed out of all recognition. Again, when, in Higginson's "Ser-nade by the Sea," the editor of 'Love Poems' changes the couplet—

"Shadowy sloops are gliding in
Safe the harbor-bar within"—

so that the last line reads—

"Safe the harbor to be within"—

one wonders if it is meant for prose or poetry. Again, in Swinburne's graceful melody, "If love were what the rose is," as reprinted in the book just named, the pretty antithesis,

"Blown fields or flowerful closes,"

is utterly muddled by substituting

"Blown fields of flowerful closes,"

which is meaningless. Yet, when we consider that the late Prof. Longfellow, after invoking the aid of a whole Dante Club to correct the proofs of his great translation of the 'Divina Commedia,' was confronted with a misprint on first opening his bound volume at the breakfast table, one learns to be charitable to the young and the inexperienced.

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION OF MADISON.—II.

History of the United States of America during the First Administration of James Madison. By Henry Adams. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols. 1890.

In all that Mr. Adams says about the shortcomings of the Eleventh Congress he is undoubtedly right. It does not need the perspective of history to perceive the insufficiencies of that body. It had hardly adjourned before the *National Intelligencer*, the official organ of the Administration, wrote its epitaph, with words of apology indeed, but without a word of eulogy. It held the following language in its issue of March 21, 1811:

"We have mixed up the ingredients of a warlike and a pacific policy into a compound which has proved, in the end, to use a vulgar phrase, neither one thing nor the other. All calculations and experiments have failed. . . . and we have reached an equivocal state that defies definition. There has been all this time no want of spirit either in Congress or the people. If the former have not resorted to war, it has been from the conviction that it was not the interest of their constituents to make that solemn appeal. Until this great question is settled, serious embarrassments will continue to attend our Government."

We note that there is one historical moral which runs through both these volumes, as the *motif* runs through a whole opera. It is that in the practical administration of a government like ours, at least in all critical conjunctures, there is a choice only between the war policy championed by John Adams in 1798 and the peace policy promulged by Jefferson in 1801. This moral is pointed again and again by the historian for the purpose of exposing the inconsistency alike of the Republicans and of the Federalists. The two parties had come, in the drift of events, to change characters and places. From the frequency with which Mr. Adams makes this *rapprochement* between the principles of 1808 and of 1801 (he makes it more than a score of times in these volumes), we judge that the truth of his-

tory seems to him an ample vindication of the Alien and Sedition Laws which brought so much obloquy on the Administration of John Adams.

We observe, too, that John Randolph is used again and again as the Tragic Chorus is used in a Greek drama for the purpose of accentuating the moral lessons of the story as it evolves under the pen of the writer. As we know well enough the small esteem in which Mr. Adams holds the erratic statesman of Roanoke (see Adams's 'Life of Randolph,' *passim*), we are a little puzzled to account for the frequency with which Randolph is cited as an accusing witness against Madison. In his 'Life of Gallatin,' Mr. Adams expresses the opinion that, in 1811, the mind of Randolph, "never strong in common sense, was yielding more and more to those aberrations which marked his later years." Whatever may have been the acrid sayings dropped by Randolph in the stages of that "universal misanthropy" which finally caused his sanity to be suspected, these buzzing gad-flies of the pungent Virginian were hardly worth preserving in the amber of Mr. Adams's classic narrative.

Mr. Adams animadverts on the fact that, in the war message of Madison, as sent in to Congress on the 1st of June, 1812, the order of the American complaints was inverted, and that impressments were put in the forefront of the charges formulated against England, in spite of the fact that the whole stress of the controversy, in its later stages, had turned on the Orders in Council. He even thinks that "England might have fairly complained that she had received no notice of intended war on such a ground." Mr. Adams furnishes a sufficient answer to his own objection. He explains to us, on page 40 of his second volume, how the pinch of the controversy came at last to be narrowed down to the Orders in Council, considered as retaliatory to the Napoleonic Decrees. On page 45, in the same volume, he cites a despatch in which Foster, the British Minister, when he had been in Washington only two weeks, wrote to the London Foreign Office that the American Government meant to settle certain preliminary disputes in the most amicable manner, "provided the Orders in Council were revoked—otherwise to make use of it, *together with all other topics of irritation*, for the purpose of fomenting a spirit of hatred towards England, and thereby strengthening their party." A little later, on page 57, Mr. Adams remarks that if a simple issue with England had been wanted in 1811, it might have been found at once in "the permanent presence of British frigates off Sandy Hook, capturing American vessels and impressing American seamen." "No further protest against it," adds Mr. Adams, "needed to be made, seeing that it had been made the subject of innumerable protests." If the United States might have justly plunged into war with England in 1811, without a protest against impressment, seeing that innumerable protests had been already lodged against the impressment outrage, it does not very clearly appear that England had much right to complain because, a few months later, the subject of impressments was put in its proper chronological and logical place in enumerating the grounds of war.

In the hour and article of the declaration of war against England, neither Madison nor Monroe made any concealment as to the grounds of our just complaint against France. Only two days before the declaration of war was passed, but when its passage was assured, Monroe wrote to Joel Barlow, our Minister at Paris, that propositions to include France in the same denunciation were made in both houses of Congress. The motion failed in the Senate by a vote of seventeen to fifteen. The majority against it in the House of Representatives was proportionally larger, yet still the affirmative vote was respectable. So well founded were our complaints against France that Monroe felt obliged to explain to Barlow how it was that France had been pretermitted. Even Robert Smith, with all his Gallican sympathies, was not able to keep fair weather between Madison and the French Minister Turreau, insomuch that the latter was provoked into writing a hectoring letter which he was compelled to withdraw. Mr. Adams refers to the letter as being found to-day in the French archives at Paris. A translation of it may also be found in the Annals of Congress (Thirteenth Congress, vol. i., p. 922; *cf.* p. 1236).

The author is entirely correct in saying that the declaration of war was passed by an essentially sectional as well as party vote. Of the seventy-nine members who voted for it in the House of Representatives, sixty-two resided south of the river Delaware, which, in the parlance of the day, had come to be called the dividing line between the political North and the political South. Of the nineteen Senators who voted for the measure, fourteen resided south of the same river. The whole number of members of both houses residing north of the Delaware was sixty-eight. Of these only twenty-one voted for the war. We have not verified these figures by our own analysis of the vote, but take them from Sullivan's well-known 'Letters.'

The alternate chill and fever of the war paroxysms had followed each other in such quick succession, and the whole political temperament of the country had become so bad, that Mr. Adams thinks it "no wonder if large masses of good citizens who believed Napoleon to be Antichrist should be disposed to resist, even to the verge of treason, the attempt to use their lives and fortunes in a service they regarded with horror."

In one aspect of the long diplomatic struggle between the United States and England Mr. Adams admits that the United States, even before the war began, had won a triumph which was more complete than any achieved since the Definitive Treaty of Peace in 1783 It is known that on the 16th of June, 1812, and, therefore, two days before the declaration of war by Congress, the Tory leader of the House of Commons rose and proclaimed that the Government had decided to suspend immediately the Orders in Council. The suspension came too late to avert the declaration of war, but, as Mr. Adams observes, "the surrender lacked on England's part no element of defeat." "The British Ministry, like the British people," he adds, "shrank from facing the consequences of their own folly." If the American party leaders, from Madison downwards, may be said, as Mr. Adams thinks, to have thrust the country into a war it dreaded, under the hope that the war itself might create the war spirit which the country lacked, it is plain that the British party leaders must be taxed with pusillanimity at the very time when their courage should have been highest.

We have left ourselves no room for comment on Mr. Adams's account of the war in its preliminary battles on land and sea. After reciting with much precision the blunders and disasters of Hull's surrender, the Niagara campaign, the brilliant exploits by which our infant navy won laurels for American seamanship and American gunnery, and after referring to the preliminary but ineffectual negotiations set on foot to compose the war soon after it began, the author pays the following historical tribute to Madison's courage, unless we are to assume that Madison was building better than he knew, and therefore should not be credited with a result which was not the outcome of any deliberate and rational purpose. However this may be, the words of Mr. Adams deserve citation. Referring to Madison's determination to risk the charge of continuing the war till he should satisfy himself that England could not be forced into an express renunciation of the right of impressment, he says:

"The experiment was worth trying, and, after the timidity of the American Government in past years, was well suited to create national character if it did not destroy the nation; but it was not the less hazardous in the face of sectional passions such as existed in New England, or in the hands of a party which held power by virtue of Jefferson's principles. That the British Government should expressly renounce its claim to impressment was already an idea hardly worth entertaining; but if the war could not produce that result, it might at least develop a Government strong enough to attain the same result at some other time. If a strong Government was desired, any foreign war, without regard to its object, might be good policy, if not good morals; and in that sense President Madison's war was the boldest and most successful of all experiments in American statesmanship, though it was also among the most reckless; but only with difficulty could history offer a better example of its processes than when it showed Madison, Gallatin, Macon, Monroe, and Jefferson joining to create a mercenary army and a great national debt, for no other attainable object than that which had guided Alexander Hamilton and the Federalists towards the establishment of a strong Government fifteen years before."

This passage furnishes food for reflection as well as food for criticism in many directions, but we cannot pursue the inviting topic. We must satisfy ourselves with the simple remark that even here the result of the war which seems clearest and most significant to Mr. Adams is that Madison's war of 1812 vindicated the Federalist men and the Federalist measures of 1798. The late Dr. Francis Wharton, in one of the valuable and sometimes incisive notes with which he has accompanied his 'Digest of the International Law of the United States,' indulges himself with some reflections designed to point what he conceived to be at least one of the moral results achieved by the war of 1812. After reciting the insults so gratuitously and continuously offered to the United States by British Ministers and British diplomatists down to the outbreak of hostilities, he says that "it took the war of 1812 . . . to place the diplomatic relations of the two Powers on that basis of mutual respect and courtesy on which they have ever since remained."

While thanking Mr. Adams for the light he has shed on the transactions of this important epoch in our history and in the history of Europe, we are sorry that he could not find more to approve in the character and conduct of the men and measures here passed under his critical review. It is a just remark of Mr. John Fiske in his latest work, recently reviewed in these columns, that "government, however conducted, is necessarily a cumbrous affair." These volumes might well be studied as a commentary in support and explication of that proposition. History in the making—that is, history in the shape of current politics—is seen to pay a constant tribute to the maxim of Oxenstiern. There are times when, as it seems to us, Mr. Adams fails to make a due allowance for the difficulties of the statesmen whom he criticises. There are also times when he frankly acknowledges the difficulties which beset the rulers of the United States during this long period of stress and storm. "The process by which a scattered democracy

decided its own will, in a matter so serious as a great and perhaps fatal war, was," he says, "new to the world." This remark is so true that it atones for many of his censures, because it cancels them.

We have learned to be cautious in correcting Mr. Adams's spelling of proper names, but in the first of these volumes the German spelling "Helgoland" (p. 277) is hardly preferable to the English spelling Heligoland in the case of what was then (1810) an English island. The celebrated French marshal, otherwise known as the Prince d'Eckmühl, appears in the first volume as "Davout" (pp. 409, 425), and in the second as "Davoust" (p. 251). Both spellings are supported by good authority, but it might be better to adhere to one in the same narrative. "Littleton Walker Tazewell" (vol. i, p. 368) should be Littleton Waller Tazewell.

THE CALVERTS AND OGLETHORPE.

George Calvert and Cecilius Calvert, Barons Baltimore of Baltimore. By Wm. Hand Browne.—*Life of General Oglethorpe.* By Henry Bruce. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

MESSRS. DODD, MEAD & Co. have begun the issue of a new series of books, called "Makers of America." More than twenty biographies are announced, ranging from that of Christopher Columbus to that of the late Prof. Henry of the Smithsonian Institution. We are glad to see among them the name of Robert Morris, Superintendent of Finance under the Continental Congress; a man of great importance in making the United States, who has waited too long for a competent biographer. The appearance of the new series is creditable to the publishers. The print and paper are fair, and the duodecimo volumes pleasant to handle.

Among the first to appear is the account of George and Cecilius Calvert, by Mr. William Hand Browne, who has had the advantage of using papers of the Calvert family recently found in England among the ruins of an old conservatory. Some of these throw new light on the subject, and Mr. Browne has shown wisdom in quoting from them at considerable length. Altogether this is a solid and scholarly performance, well planned and adapted to its subject, with little attempt at description of manners, with few moving accidents, never exciting, but excellently written and readable. It is worth the attention of people interested in the early history of Maryland and of the United States. It has, moreover, the great merit of brevity, containing less than 200 small pages.

George Calvert, first Baron Baltimore, and his son Cecilius, were somewhat colorless persons. Had their characters been more picturesque, they would hardly have occupied the place they do among the makers of America. To found a colony of English Roman Catholics in the seventeenth century required tact, prudence, and moderation; qualities invaluable in life, but hateful to the biographer. George Calvert was a hard-working Secretary of State to King James I.; but we cannot agree with Mr. Browne that his was "a position somewhat resembling that of a modern prime minister." The Principal Secretary of those days was but a secondary personage in politics. Calvert retired with a peerage at about forty-five years of age, and was energetic enough to emigrate from England to Newfoundland, and wise enough, after spending one winter in that island, to transfer his colony to less rugged coasts.

In Cecilius, the second Baron, we have the true founder of the colony of Maryland, which he never visited. The charter was confirmed to him on the 20th of June, 1632, two months after his father's death. The territory was to be held in free and common socage, the feoffee rendering therefor two Indian arrows at the castle of Windsor, yearly, on Tuesday in Easter week, and the fifth part of all the gold and silver found. This charter, which is said to have been the most ample in its privileges ever granted by an English sovereign, erected Maryland into a palatinate. It invested the proprietary and his lineal descendants for ever with the perpetual and hereditary ownership of the soil and the waters. It empowered him to make peace or war, to confer titles and dignities, to erect churches and cause them to be consecrated according to the ecclesiastical laws of England, to make laws with the advice and consent of the freemen, and necessary ordinances not affecting life, limb, or property without that consent; to establish courts of justice and to appoint judges, magistrates, and other civil officers. His laws required no confirmation from King or Parliament; from his courts there was no appeal. Yet the colonists retained the rights and privileges of British subjects, while they were expressly exempted from taxation by the Crown.

It is evident that in giving such rights as these to a Catholic the advisers of King Charles I. intended to provide a place of refuge for the followers of the old religion. Baltimore's head was not turned by his powers. He recognized that, whatever the King might be, the English nation was decidedly, even fanatically, Protestant, and that his own privileges must be used with moderation. While sending out two Jesuits with his first emigrants, and appointing his brother and two other gentlemen, all Catholics, his Deputy Governor and Commissioners, he yet instructed the latter:

"that in their voyage to Mary Land they must be very carefull to preserve unity and peace amongst all the passengers on Shipp-board, and that they suffer no scandall nor offence to be given to any of the Protestants, whereby any just Complaint may hereafter be made by them, in Virginea or in England, and that for that end they Cause all Acts of Romane Catholique Religion to be done as privately as may be, and that they instruct all the Romane Catholiques to be silent upon all occasions of discourse concerning matters of Religion; and that the said Governer and Commissioners treate the Protestants w^th as much mildness and favor as Justice will permitt. And this to be observed at Land as well as at Sea."

Such instructions as these are often given to be disregarded; but Baltimore was in earnest. In him the Englishman was stronger than the Catholic. The Jesuits soon began to give trouble. They complained that no favor was shown to ecclesiastical personages, but that they were treated in all respects like laymen, as if the *jus divinum* had never been heard of. They asked that their churches and houses might be sanctuary, that their servants might be free from taxes and public services, "that though publicly they should allow their causes to be heard and tried by the civil authorities, yet that it should be with the private understanding that these authorities acted but as arbitrators and defenders of the Church, because the ecclesiastical jurisdiction was not yet settled"; "that though they should relinquish the use of many ecclesiastical privileges when they judged it expedient to do so, yet that the determination of that expediency was to be left entirely to their discretion." These demands were supported by some of the most influential Catholic laymen of the province. Yet Baltimore was unshaken. He applied to the Propaganda at Rome and received permission to remove the Jesuits and have secular priests sent in their stead. The order for removal was afterwards rescinded, but only on the submission of the Jesuits to the terms laid down by the Proprietary.

Meanwhile, all manner of persons had settled in the province, and toleration was practised to an extent rare indeed in that age. An act of the Maryland Assembly of 1649 provides penalties for the profanation of "the Sabbath, or Lord's day, called Sunday," for blasphemy against any Person of the Trinity, for reproachful speeches against the Virgin Mary, Apostles, and Evangelists. It also punishes all who shall call others by reviling names such as Puritan, Jesuit, or Papist.

Much discretion was needed on the part of Baltimore in preserving his charter through the time of the Great Rebellion. The Commonwealth and the Protector were not easy to deal with, and the Deputy Governor in Maryland complicated matters by going beyond his powers to proclaim Charles II. as King. That erratic monarch, on the other hand, then a fugitive in Jersey, declared that Baltimore "doth visibly adhere to the rebels of England, and admit all kind of schismatics, and sectaries, and other ill-affected persons into the said plantation of Maryland." Charles, therefore, gave a commission to Sir William Davenant, the poet, to proceed to America, dispossess Baltimore, and take the government on himself. Sir William actually set out on this undertaking, but was captured by a Parliament ship and thrown into prison, whence he barely escaped with his life. Of squabbles in England and riots in America, of the not very eventful history of the young colony, this book gives a careful account. Mr. Browne evidently dislikes Puritans and Quakers. Were it otherwise, he would hardly have written the history of the founders of Maryland.

The Life of General Oglethorpe will be less quoted by the learned than that of Lord Baltimore, and more enjoyed by the frivolous. Its author, Mr. Henry Bruce, is easily tempted away from his subject. On the smallest pretexts, we are given bits of biography and history; quotations in prose and verse, in English, French, German, Latin, Italian; passages from Mr. Bancroft, Pope, and Edgar Poe. Mr. Bruce's admiration for Carlyle would appear to be unbounded. He imitates the style which nothing short of the genius of that great Scotchman can make endurable. Even the quotations in this volume have at times a flavor of Carlyle, as butter kept too near to cheese acquires a pungency. Mrs. Oliphant is known as a writer of graceful English; yet one would think she had dipped her pen in a Chelsea inkstand before she (and who else?) assisted Mr. Bruce to compile the following sentences: "And the poor old futile Pretender had answered, 'Be careful of yourself, my dear boy. I would not lose you for the world!' 'With,' says Mrs. Oliphant, 'one can imagine, what smile and what sigh.'"

We will give one of Mr. Bruce's digressions in full, both because it is characteristic of the slightness of connection observable between his subject and its ornaments, and because it is entertaining enough in itself, as his digressions often are:

"In this year Oglethorpe made himself prominent as a member of the Council of the British Herring Fishery Company, particularly at a great dinner given at Fishmongers' Hall to Frederick, Prince of Wales, who was the President, and who was introduced by Oglethorpe. And in the following year, 1751, Prince Fred died. These lines, says Carlyle, are 'his main monument with posterity':

> "'Here lies Prince Fred,
> Who was alive and is dead.
> Had it been his Father,
> I had much ra'her;
> Had it been his Brother,
> Sooner than any other;

Had it been his Sister,
There's no one would have missed her;
Had it been his whole generation,
Fest of all for the nation.
But since it's only red,
There's no more to be said.'"

Of Oglethorpe we get a tantalizing picture. There must have been much individuality in the soldier of Marlborough and Prince Eugene; the philanthropist who defended duelling, and is said, at the age of ninety-three, to have challenged a neighboring gentleman for trespassing on his manor; the prisoner's friend, and the friend of Johnson, Goldsmith, and Boswell. Perhaps, as Mr. Bruce says, "the true life of Gen. Oglethorpe it is for ever too late to write." We have enough here to make us wish for more. Had Mr. Bruce given less space to Prince Eugene, and Bishop Berkeley, and the death-bed of Pope, at which Oglethorpe was not present, and to half-a-hundred other people and events but remotely connected with his subject, he would perhaps have written a less amusing book, but he might have found space to make clearer to us the behavior of Charles Wesley as the General's secretary, and might even have had room for a little more information than he has chosen to insert about the colony of Georgia and Oglethorpe's campaigns. After all, it was these which checked Spain and defended the English colonies, and it is to them that Oglethorpe owes his place among the Makers of America. *Malheur aux détails!* quotes Mr. Bruce from Voltaire. But surely the details which are accursed are not those which are pertinent to the subject in hand.

Belief in God. Its Origin, Nature, and Basis. By Jacob Gould Schurman, Sage Professor of Philosophy in Cornell University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

Prof. Schurman's book gets an extrinsic interest from the fact that the lectures of which it is composed were delivered in Andover before the Theological Seminary. They form the sixth course of lectures on the Winkley foundation, which is what our English cousins call an "open trust," being hampered by no conditions whatever—"a rare and surely a fortunate circumstance," remarks Prof. Schurman, "for any theological school." It is to be presumed that the Faculty, in inviting Prof. Schurman, knew what they might expect, and it would be difficult to overrate the significance of such an invitation. It may be there is little in these lectures which has not been implied in the writings of the Andover liberals, but it has not been expressed in those writings; or, if expressed, it has been in a language almost as remote from the vernacular, or from Prof. Schurman's lucid speech, as Hegel's dialectic from the poetry of Burns.

Prof. Schurman, without abusing his liberty, used it with the least possible restraint. There could be no better index to his position than the list of those to whom he expresses special indebtedness in his preface: Lotze, Martineau, Pfleiderer, Robertson Smith, Seeley, Fiske, Réville, and Thiele. Considerable exception is taken to some of Martineau's positions (Prof. Schurman calls him the "angelic doctor" of our time); but it is in the interest of a more radical philosophy. Where Martineau contends that God is transcendent of the universe, Prof. Schurman finds him wholly immanent in its wholeness, and where Martineau contends for a divine choice of possible worlds, Prof. Schurman argues that this world was the only possible. With these variations from a teacher at whose feet he sat in Manchester New College, and whom he so much reveres, it might have been well if he had abandoned his thoroughly gnostic and wooden conception of God as "vacating" the sphere of human freedom, with its sophistical suggestion that man, while included in what God has caused, is excepted from what he is causing.

Some of the more vigorous and rigorous deliverances of the evolutionist school are set aside with a feeble show of orthodox indignation and abhorrence of the infidel; but, in truth, it would be difficult to find a book more completely saturated than is this with the newness of scientific thought. While its method is predominantly metaphysical, it is checked at every turn by scientific tests, being impressed, like most of the more recent philosophizing of our time, with the necessity of making its peace with science and the evolutionists. These are sometimes spoken of in a superior way, but the acceptance of their conclusions is a finer compliment than the most fulsome adulation.

Of the dogmatic spirit there is not a sign in these lectures, nor of such a temper as that of 'Lux Mundi,' resolved on the adjustment of the traditional dogma with the results of modern science. Of the Deity of Christ there remains a shadow of such faintness that the conservative Unitarian might insist on having something more than this: "Nor among these choicest sons of the universal Father [such as Pheidias, Cæsar, Shakspere, Newton] is there any metaphysical impropriety in supposing one to be in some preëminent sense the Son of God." "Oh, how frail to that large utterance of the early" Andoverians! The satisfaction of Divine Justice was the centre of their creed. Prof. Schurman will not predicate justice as an attribute of God. "Justice is a civic virtue, which has too narrow a meaning to predicate of the Christian conception of God." "External punishment is unthinkable of human sins," here or hereafter. In short,

"Modern science is not antagonistic to the religion of Christ, but it is fatal to those confessions of the Christian religion which have been embodied in an antiquated psychology, anthropology, cosmology, and history. The process of readjustment is going on rapidly, and it is much more thorough in the actual beliefs of men than in the revised creeds that are supposed to represent them. Even the new Biblical criticism has won a victory almost as complete as that of astronomy, geology, and zoölogy. The sober and cautious spirit of modern culture has once for all domiciled itself in the realm of theology also."

After this it is remarkable that Prof. Schurman makes a rhetorical escape from the question of miracle by affirming every human soul to be a miracle, and that he succumbs to the temptation to rationalize the ascension of Jesus, loosely confounded with his resurrection, which "is in fact," we read, "an obsolete picture of an eternal truth"—"the fact of continued life with God."

Not only is Prof. Schurman's book without a remnant or a trace of theological dogma, but it does not attempt to obtain for us any certainty of the existence of a beneficent Deity corresponding to the "dead certainty" of the traditional dogma. He does not believe in the possibility of any mathematical demonstration of the existence of God. Our assurance cannot be so positive as the mathematician's. He returns frankly to the much-abused opinion, Probability is the guide of life. Belief in God is an hypothesis as incapable of verification as the hypothesis of a luminiferous ether, but, like that, accounting for admitted facts. In the course of the six lectures in which this argument is worked out, there is much solid ground to walk upon; but in chap. iv. there is a stretch of metaphysics where we are not certain of our steps.

The strength of the book is much more in its negative criticisms of traditional ideas than in its positive results. Some of the former are extremely pertinent and forcible. The scepticism of Hume and Kant is assailed from the standpoint of the new psychology. The impossibility of proving an external, mechanical Creator is ably argued, if not clearly shown. But with the immanence of God in the universe comes the old difficulty of man's "life in himself." It is a difficulty which no argument of Prof. Schurman's wholly dissipates. But for our inexpugnable consciousness of freedom, it is greatly to be feared that we should all be necessarians. Chapter v., "God as Realizing Purpose of the World," is a vigorous onslaught on the old teleology, but the teleology it substitutes is dim and vague, more a matter of feeling than of logic; and Prof. Schurman does not flatter himself that it would have much force with one not otherwise convinced. At the end one is glad of his assurance that the general naïve belief in God is quite independent of philosophical considerations. These are an account of the faith that is in us. However unsatisfactory the general course of his thought may be, his book contains a multitude of pregnant observations, and the whole is presented in a style so fresh and vivid that it holds the attention and compels our interest on every page.

The Pine Tree Coast. By Samuel Adams Drake. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1890.

Mr. Drake, who has been a diligent collector of the local traditions of the New England Coast, and a fertile writer on the subject, describes in the present instance a summer journey along the Maine shore. He passes through the old towns and fishing villages, by the beaches, cliffs, and islands, from Kittery to Eastport, and gathers about each spot a story of the early Gorges adventurers or the colonial captains, of Indian and French and English fighting, and of the innumerable wrecks which the great storms have always thrown upon the reefs and rocky headlands of this long coast line. The materials are ample for an interesting narrative; the names of the actors, from Champlain to General Knox, are often well known, or, if the participants were obscure, their deeds were heroic; and frequently the author is able to grace his own account with the verses of the New England poets who have found in these local annals, or in the scenes amid which the events took place, a congenial subject. Mr. Drake does not confine himself, however, to this phase of the country, but describes the landscape with much truthful effect, sketches the inhabitants, and occasionally introduces their conversation, with a realism of phrase and thought which the modern novelist must envy. The principal points are now well known as seaside resorts, but fortunately Mr. Drake has not thought it necessary to dwell upon this aspect of the coast, except very briefly at Bar Harbor. He endeavors rather to photograph the nature of sea and rock, the old look of the old towns, the memorial buildings and places, and the life of the people; and in this attempt he derives much assistance from the illustrations, which appear on almost every page of the volume. Antiquarian notes are added at the end of the chapters. The book shows throughout evidence of being a labor of love, and consequently it is entirely

successful in depicting the scenes and the life which it deals with.

Outings at Odd Times. By Charles C. Abbott, M.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

DR. ABBOTT'S contributions to the literature of out-of-doors are more in the vein of the naturalist and the investigator than of the landscape-lover; and, in particular, he attends most to the common things that are not commonly known. He combats a number of popular errors, and is fond of illustrating his points by taking examples from the mistakes of the country people with respect to the world about them. In New Jersey, at least, he makes it appear that the winter season is far less one of torpor and silence on the part of outdoor life than is commonly supposed, and several of his short sketches are directed to the proof of the activity of the inhabitants of the ponds and the gathering of the birds in sheltered places and their keeping in voice through the frost. Even on the coldest days and in tempestuous weather he succeeds in finding nature still alive, and in waylaying the small animals, the blue jays, and others of the stay-at-homes. He has a special curiosity, also, for the neglected side of the way, for the mudfish in the disused ditches, the creatures that come to his pond by night, the field-mice, owls, and, in the vegetable world, the "carrion-flower." Consequently, his little volume is distinguished from others of its kind by freshness in the subject, by an individual point of view, and by attention to what seems exceptional in the open book of the fields and woods. This interest, pertaining more particularly to the naturalist, is reinforced by the author's knowledge of the relics of primitive man found in his region, of which he gives some account, and by such episodes as his description of the results of the attempt to naturalize the Egyptian lotus in the Jersey waters. Occasionally, too, as is the wont of such writers, he goes back to the farm-house of his boyhood, to the Quaker Christmas and the old haymow, to lend a certain sentiment to the papers. Altogether the brief essays are well varied and make the most agreeable of wayside reading; but we must regard the winter scenes and adventures, the explorations under the mud and by night, as the most successful parts of his work.

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Ashby-Sterry, J. Nutshell Novels. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Ashton, J. Curious Creatures in Zoölogy. Cassell Publishing Co. $3.50.
Bacon, E. M., and Aaron, E. M. The New Jamaica. Wallbridge & Co.
Blackmore, R. D. Lorna Doone. 3 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.75.
Blackstone's Commentaries, edited by W. G. Hammond. 4 vols. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Blanford, H. F. India, Burma, and Ceylon. Macmillan & Co. 70 cents.
Booth, General. In Darkest England, and the Way Out. Funk & Wagnalls.
Brohon, Rhoda. Alas! United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Brown, N. The Whole World Kin: A Pioneer Experience among Remote Tribes. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros. $1.50.
Caine, W. S. Picturesque India. George Routledge & Sons. $2.50.
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Church, W. C. The Life of John Ericsson. 2 vols. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $6.
Coignet, Mme. C. La Réforme Française avant les Guerres Civiles, 1512–1559. Paris: Fischbacher.
Delphton, K. Shakespeare's King Richard II. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Dobson, A. The Sun Dial: A Poem Illustrated by Geo. Wharton Edwards. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Ellis, E. S. The Cabin in the Clearing. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Ely, T. Manual of Archæology. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Froude, J. A. The Earl of Beaconsfield. Harper & Bros.
Gardiner, S. R. A Student's History of England. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Gross, C. The Gild Merchant. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.
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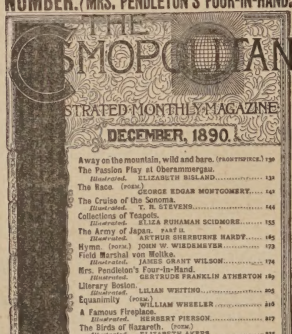
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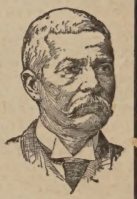

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Mr. Henry M. Stanley will contribute to the January number an article upon "The Pigmies of the Great African Forest" giving a most interesting and complete account (with illustrations) of these strange dwarfs.

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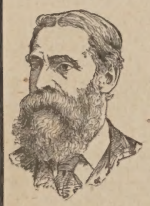

PROF. JAMES BRYCE, M. P.

Sir Edwin Arnold's papers entitled "Japonica," and begun in the December number, will be continued through the spring. They form an unusually striking series upon Japan and Japanese life, and **Mr. Robert Blum's** illustrations are of peculiar interest, as he went to Japan for the express purpose of collaborating with the author. Other articles upon the new Japanese Government, by Prof. John H. Wigmore of Tokio, are also in preparation, for which Mr. Blum will furnish the drawings.

SIR EDWIN ARNOLD.

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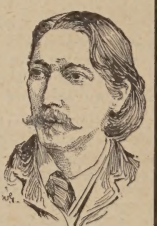

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 4, 1890.

The Week.

THE President says in his message that "American legislation should conserve and defend American trade and the wages of American workmen," and then, a few sentences further on, expresses satisfaction because the McKinley tariff has not had the "prohibitory effect upon importations" imputed to it. If importations have not been lessened, while duties upon them have been raised, it necessarily follows that prices are higher than they were. The American people, including American workmen, are paying more for what they buy, therefore, than they paid before the McKinley Law went into effect. But it was the purpose of the law to have a "prohibitory effect upon importations," and by thus increasing the demand for American manufactured products to increase the wages of American workmen. Why does the President rejoice because this has not been accomplished? Even he has heard that prices have been raised because of the new tariff, but has he or any one else heard of *wages* being raised because of it? If so, will he or any one else give us the particulars? If wages have not been raised, while prices have, can it be said truthfully that the McKinley tariff "conserves and defends American wages"?

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury shows a probable surplus of current receipts over expenditures for the year ending June 30, 1891, of $52,000,000. Allowance is made in this estimate for a net loss of $9,000,000 in the receipts from customs duties, the repeal of the duty on raw sugar not taking place until the first of April. The increased allowance for pensions as compared with the previous year is $27,000,000, which seems to be rather under the mark. But there is not much doubt that the Treasury will start on the 1st of next July with a balance of $50,000,000. The estimated revenues for the year 1892 from ordinary sources are $373,000,000, and the expenditures, not including the sinking fund, $357,852,209. The sinking fund calls for $49,224,928, so that there is a deficiency of $34,000,000 in prospect at the end of the fiscal year 1892, which can only be made good out of the reserves left over by the previous Administration, plus the National Bank redemption fund. Exclusive of the sinking fund, the receipts are expected to be about $15,000,000 in excess of the revenues. That this is an optimistic estimate is made clear by the fact that only $36,676,000 is allowed for a full year's increase of pensions, whereas the Commissioner of Pensions calls for $33,000,000 as a deficiency on the present year. It will be remembered, too, that Senator Davis, Chairman of the Committee on Pensions, estimated the new call for pensions at $44,000,000 the first full year, while this was considered much too small by other members of the Committee. In fact, the Secretary's estimates on the subject of pensions are hardly intelligible.

There is a delightful passage in the Postmaster-General's report on what he calls "a delicate question," namely, whether inspectors' reports about postmasters and "other confidential papers" touching appointments and removals should be "accessible to persons more or less interested in special cases." Here is the more enjoyable part of Mr. Wanamaker's reflections:

> "I do not agree with your predecessor that these papers should be denied to a committee of the Senate; for, as I am informed, a request of this nature from a committee of the Senate was once denied by him. The Senate has a constitutional right to inquire about appointments. An investigating committee of the House deserves, as I beg to submit, a similar courtesy. The same would be true of a court of law. Perhaps it might be said to be the right, rather than the privilege, of the court of law to have the papers. Beyond this category of Senators and members, however, the confidential papers must not go. Rather must the Department, if necessary, suffer the odium of appearing to remove a person without cause. The confidential reasons which compel the Department to act must not be disclosed, first, because communities might in some instances be involved in strife and bitterness, and families might be subjected to disgrace and ruin.'

That Wanamaker "does not agree" with Cleveland on a constitutional question is serious enough, but, before disagreeing with him, our pious friend should have informed himself fully about the controversy between Mr. Cleveland and the Senate. If he had done so, he would have discovered that the Senate has no constitutional right to ascertain the grounds on which the President nominates for office, any more than the President has the right to ascertain the grounds on which each Senator votes for confirmation, and that when the President refused to give his grounds, the Senate dropped the matter. He would have discovered, too, that the Senate did not make the inquiry for the purpose of improving the civil service, but avowedly for the purpose of proving that Cleveland was a hypocrite, and the Constitution does not provide for Senatorial examinations of the moral condition of the Presidential heart. Whether the President ought or ought not to make such papers public as a matter of duty to the country and to the civil service, is another question. We think he ought.

The Postmaster-General's notions of constitutionality, however, seem rather confused, for he calls "the constitutional right" of the Senate a "courtesy," which the House "deserves," as also courts of law. He is even willing to admit that a court of law may "have the right rather than the privilege" to demand the papers. But whenever a court of law wants the papers, it will not take Mr. Wanamaker's opinion on the matter of rights. It will send for them, on its own view of the matter, and, if he refuses to furnish them, will send him, good as he is, to the county jail. That he is in dead earnest about this question, however, and approaches it in the spirit of a martyr, is shown by his willingness, sooner than surrender the papers, to be suspected publicly of dismissing officers without cause — that is, without proper cause. Willingness to submit to suspicion of this kind, after all that has happened, sooner than do wrong, shows that in John Wanamaker Philadelphia and the Union have really one of "Plutarch's men." He has evidently the firmness of an old Roman ennobled by Christian motives, and is, taken altogether, the most amusing and impudent of contemporaneous humbugs.

Much has been made by Mr. McKinley's friends of the fact that he made an extraordinarily good run in his district, and came near overcoming the normal Democratic majority. Unfortunately for Mr. McKinley's reputation, however, it appears clear that intimidation was one of the elements employed to secure the large vote which was cast for him. Remarkable revelations have just been made by a citizens' committee at Massillon, Ohio. Russell & Co., manufacturers of that town, employ more than 600 men. The members of the firm are Republicans and warm friends of Mr. McKinley. Immediately after his defeat, charges were made of the revenge which they had taken upon some of their workmen who had supported the Democratic candidate, and a mass-meeting of citizens was held, which appointed a committee to investigate the matter. This committee consisted of a member of the State Senate, one of the clergymen of the place, and three other citizens, and they are unanimous in their report that the charges were well grounded. It appears that for years every position in the company's shops in which a man has any control over his fellows has been held by a Republican; that in the last campaign, as well as in previous ones, Republican foremen were active in electioneering in all parts of the shop at all hours of the day, and that bulletin boards were placarded with epithets denunciatory of Democratic candidates and principles; that, if Republican meetings were held at other points in the district, these foremen distributed the tickets advising Democrats that it would be to their interest to go; and that foremen have called the men of their departments together to advise them how to vote. Immediately after Mr. McKinley's defeat, between thirty and forty workmen who had voted against him were notified that their wages were to be cut down one-third; this notice of reduction being intended as a request to quit. Many of the men thus punished were among the oldest employees, having worked 7, 10, 15, 20, and even, in one case, 26 years, and they are perfectly respectable citizens.

The only defence made by the firm was the complaint that the Democratic workmen thus punished had been offensive in the expression of their political views.

There is evidence coming from Paris that the Government of France will have very serious representations to make at Washington if this country perseveres in the attempt to require of French shippers of goods to the United States a written statement to our consuls of the cost of producing articles shipped by the French producers. Possibly France may not concern itself with American shippers overhauled in France by our consuls, but when Frenchmen are, under the McKinley Law, unduly nagged and worried within French territory, France will not stand mute. The acts complained of by France are done under the "Customs Administrative Law," which is quite as iniquitous as the McKinley Tariff Law, and with the latter should be instantly repealed. Each is incapable of amendment, so interlaced are its deviltries. Nobody denies that the United States can offer any conditions they please, consistent with existing treaties, to the importation of foreign goods, if the conditions and examinations are to be and are enforced in our own territory. France, however, denies that our executive officers can enforce *in France* all possible examinations of Frenchmen. The *place* of examination of shippers is the turning-point of the controversy. Our Tariff Law requires that an importation of goods sent hither from France by a French producer (who is not a *buyer* of them ready made) shall be accompanied by an invoice declaring the *market value in France*, and that the invoice must be *verified* by an American consul at the place where the shipment begins. Market value was formerly required, and only market value. But the McKinley administrative deviltry enacts that, as *evidence* of that market value, the American consuls in France shall, before a verification of the invoice, require the French shipper to disclose to them the details of the cost of production. France denies that, either by treaty or public law, American consuls in France can demand such facts from French shippers as a condition of verifying an invoice, or sending it forward to the port of destination of the merchandise. When a French shipper has declared his opinion of the market value of his shipment, he has done, says France, all that should be exacted of him *in France*. Would not the United States say the same were French consuls to endeavor thus to interrogate in Massachusetts our manufacturers?

American manufacturers who have no export trade, though they would like one, may take a hint from the present attitude of French manufacturers, who have a large foreign trade but are in danger of losing it. The rising tide of protectionism in France, with its proposal to lay taxes on raw materials, has alarmed the great manufacturers and exporters of Lyons, Bordeaux, Roubaix, Marseilles, and other industrial cities, and they have begun an agitation in defence of their own interests. In each of those cities a league or union has been formed to protest against the enactment of laws which will close factories and throw workingmen out of employment through making it impossible for French exporters to compete with England in foreign markets. Now these separate organizations have been merged into a national "Union for Free Raw Materials and the Defence of the Export Trade." This consolidation was effected in Paris on November 5, delegates being present from all the principal manufacturing centres. The aim is to present a united front in opposition to the proposed taxes on raw materials, in the name both of the French consumer and the French workingman. The agitation, however, is thought to have begun too late to stop the threatened mischief. It deserves to be noticed, together with the Swiss "League against Higher Prices for the Necessaries of Life," as a sign that the protectionist folly is not blinding all minds in Europe. The American people formed their corresponding league on November 4.

The full Congressional vote in New Jersey is as significant of what is going on in the public mind about the tariff as the votes of other States have been shown to be. In 1888 the Republicans elected four of the seven Congressmen, and had a majority of over 1,400 on the total Congressional vote. This year the Democrats have elected five of the seven Congressmen and have a majority of nearly 14,000 on the total Congressional vote. The total vote this year is, in round numbers, 243,000, against 290,000 in 1888. The Republican vote this year is over 31,000 smaller than in 1888, while the Democratic vote is less than 16,000 smaller. In other words, two-thirds of the total falling off of 47,000 votes from the vote in the Presidential year belongs to the Republicans. They have lost heavily in every one of the seven districts—nearly 6,000 votes in the First, nearly 5,000 in the Second, nearly 5,000 in the Third, nearly 4,000 in the Fourth, nearly 5,000 in the Fifth, over 4,000 in the Sixth, and over 3,000 in the Seventh. The First District contains Gloucester County, with large glass-manufacturing industries; the Second contains Trenton, with its iron and pottery industries; the Fifth contains Paterson, with its silk, iron, and other large industries; and the Sixth consists of the city of Newark, which is one of the largest manufacturing cities of the country. The great gains by the Democrats in all these districts furnish most significant evidence of the verdict of the laboring classes upon the McKinley Bill and McKinley prices, for in every one of these districts the Democrats have made large gains on their vote of the last "off year," namely, that of 1886. Their total vote this year is 128,617, while in 1886 it was only 98,562. Here is a total gain of over 30,000. The Republican total vote of 1886 was 105,468, and this year it is 114,808, a gain of only 9,000. The largest Democratic gains over 1886 have been made in the Third District, where the gain exceeds 6,000, and in the Sixth, or Newark, where it exceeds 10,000, being more than 23,000 this year, as against 13,000 in 1886.

The new Ballot Law of Vermont, which was approved on November 25, is an excellent application of the Australian system, being in all essential respects similar to the Massachusetts and Rhode Island laws, and the other most desirable laws thus far enacted. It provides for the use of exclusive official ballots and for the printing of the names of all candidates upon a single blanket ballot, the names to be grouped under the various offices to be filled at the election, and each name to be followed by the candidate's place of residence and his political designation. The voters are to indicate their choice by making an X after the name of the candidates for whom they wish to vote. There is no provision forbidding electioneering within the immediate vicinity of the polling-places, but it is forbidden to interfere with or endeavor to induce any voter to vote for any particular candidate inside the polling-place under penalty of $50 fine.

The enactment of this law in Vermont increases the number of States which have adopted reform election methods to fifteen. Not all of these are thoroughgoing reform measures, but all are steps in the right direction. The poorest laws are those of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Michigan. The Michigan law, of which we have not hitherto given a synopsis, is in many respects unique. It provides, like the Connecticut law, for the printing of all ballots upon the same kind of paper, to be furnished by the Secretary of State, and requires that all ballots shall be uniform in size and appearance, with no distinguishing mark upon the outside. Each party can, however, have a vignette or device of its own choosing placed at the head of its list of candidates upon the face of the ballot. Ballots are printed by the State for regular party organizations only, there being no provision for nominations by petition, and are furnished in advance of the election. They are therefore distributed, as in Connecticut and New Jersey, in and out of the polling-places on election day. The voter is required to go into a booth to prepare his ballot, and must fold it in such a way that its contents cannot be seen. It was noticeable at the first trial of the law at the last election, that while the peddling of ballots about the polls was not forbidden, the managers of all political parties in many parts of the State, including some of the largest cities, put all the ballots in the booths, and allowed the voters to choose their own. The law worked to the satisfaction of all parties, and, whatever its shortcomings, secured for the first time a practically secret ballot.

Mr. Herbert Welsh says the critical condition of affairs in the Dakotas is due principally to the fact that both the Pine Ridge and the Cheyenne River Agencies are in the charge of new and inexperienced men, placed there not because of their expe-

rience and knowledge, but as an outcome of spoils politics. "As to the Cheyenne River Agency," says Mr. Welsh, "the former agent, Dr. McChesney, who was one of the most capable men in the service, was recently removed against the most earnest protests of the Indian Rights Association. At the Pine Ridge Agency the former agent, Major Gallagher, was removed without our knowledge, so that it was not possible for us to act in the matter." Indians are, in many respects, like children in their management. When their confidence is once gained they can be easily controlled; but, placed in charge of persons they distrust, they are at once suspicious and obstinate. The "Messiah craze" appeals strongly to the Indians' imaginative nature, and an Indian can in such a case be persuaded that he is wrong only by a person in whose wisdom he has implicit confidence. Hence the misfortune of having two great agencies at this time in charge of men whom the Indians do not know, and whose displacement of their old friends, the former agents, is very likely to be in itself a cause of their distrust. If there should be an Indian outbreak in Dakota, with the loss of many lives, it might add a most impressive object-lesson of the heinous character of the Harrisonian spoils doctrine.

The fact is now coming to be confessed by the newspapers of Kansas and Nebraska that the western portions of those States are incapable of supporting a farming population—unless some system of irrigation shall be introduced. When the "boom" in those States was at its height a few years ago, settlers rushed into the regions in question, and for a while it appeared as though the rainfall might suffice to raise good crops. But for two or three years past the western part of Kansas has had almost no rain, and the settlers have been forced to abandon it, until now a Topeka journal does not hesitate to speak of "the desolate and arid lands which irrigation alone can render productive." The emigration has been so great that it has more than counterbalanced the immigration into the eastern and central parts of the State, and the total population, according to the recent Federal census and censuses taken by the State Board of Agriculture in previous years, is less in 1890 than in 1889, and was less in 1889 than in 1888. Nebraska has not suffered to the same extent, only because the western part of the State was not so generally settled; but the destitution in several counties this year is so great that an appeal for aid had to be made recently to the more prosperous regions of the State.

The Methodist churches throughout the country are voting on the question of admitting women as lay delegates to the General Conference of the denomination. The Burlington *Free Press* makes some interesting comments upon the results of the poll in Vermont. The church in Barton having voted unanimously in the affirmative, the Burlington newspaper remarks that this is the first instance of the kind that it has noticed in the State. As a general rule, it says, the question has been considered by very thinly attended gatherings, the votes have been as often or oftener in the negative than in the affirmative, and in all cases the vote has been absurdly out of proportion to the membership of the churches voting. These facts, in the opinion of the *Free Press*, "tend to show how very weak is the hold of what used to be known as the 'woman's rights' idea on the people of this State. One would naturally look for interest on this subject in the Methodist Church if anywhere, where the greatest liberty is given to the women, both in the matter of 'speaking in meeting,' and in taking an active interest and an active part in the management of church affairs generally. But apathy regarding the matter seems to be more marked here than elsewhere. In a word, it would seem that the women of the Methodist churches of the State do not care whether or not they are admitted to the General Conference of the Church." It is much the same way in regard to the question of voting in the State as in the Church. The hardest argument for the advocates of woman suffrage at the recent session of the Legislature to answer was the fact that very few women seemed to care anything about having the suffrage. "General Apathy," says the *Free Press*, "seems to be the officer in command of the women of the State just now in matters relating to an extension of their privilege in either Church or State."

An Iowa newspaper, the Keokuk *Gate City*, notes some instructive facts regarding the vote on the same question in a Western State. Interest in the matter would seem to be far livelier in Iowa than in Vermont, and the feeling much more one-sided, except among a certain class of Methodists. Thus the vote in a Burlington church showed a total of 166, all but 16 of which were in the affirmative; and a church in Mt. Pleasant cast 134 votes, of which all but 15 were in favor of admission, while in Sioux City and in many other places there was not a vote against the proposed change. The exception to this general rule is found among Methodist churches composed of people of foreign birth. For example, the Swedish Methodist church in Burlington cast only two votes for the women and fifty against, while the German Methodist Church in the same city was unanimously against the change.

A more discreditable document than Mr. Parnell's manifesto has not been issued by a public man in any country for many a day. In avoiding all mention of the real question—whether his continued leadership of his party will not, under existing circumstances, seriously injure the Home Rule cause—and talking at considerable length about something else, he adopts one of the worst tricks of "journalism," which may possibly be forgiven a man who is fighting for his life. But his revelation of his consultations with Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley looks like a piece of pure malignity, and will, of course, prevent any public man on the English side from ever entering into confidential relations with him again. In truth, it seems the desperate act of one who was indifferent to everything but some sort of vengeance on people who were annoying him. The English Liberal leaders, and especially the two we have named, have made great sacrifices, both political and personal, for the Irish cause. They have had literally to educate their own party in England not only into political sympathy with but into common humanity towards the Irish Catholics, and they have done it untiringly, unstintingly, and through much evil report. It was natural and proper that they should communicate to Mr. Parnell the full extent of their hopes and fears, and their full estimate of their powers, which naturally varied from month to month and almost from day to day. That he should now give it all to the world with a sneer, and with the deliberate purpose evidently of breaking up the alliance between the Irish Nationalists and the English Liberals, shows that the estimate of his character held by so many of his enemies was not wholly mistaken. He has done a base and treacherous thing—a false thing, in view of Mr. Gladstone's and Mr. Morley's denials—to save himself from the natural and inevitable consequence of a piece of deliberate folly.

The Irish cause has never, in all its long and dreary history, had so much need, not only of common sense, but American "horse sense," as at the present crisis, and we are glad to see there appears to be a sufficient supply of it among the members of the Irish Parliamentary party to prevent Parnell's inflicting on it the greatest of its many disasters. The great majority of the members refuse to follow him in his crazy course, and the delegates now in this country have sent a long despatch full of the wisdom which the occasion calls for, dissociating themselves from him. The Catholic clergy, too, have declared themselves against him, and his following in Parliament will probably drop at once to a score or so of those most dependent on him pecuniarily—for he is the chief custodian of the fund out of which the salaries of the poor men are paid. The folly of Parnell's course must in charity be ascribed to some failure of his mental powers. If he had promptly acquiesced in the view generally taken of the situation in which the judgment of the divorce court placed him, and withdrawn at once from the leadership of the party, if not from his seat in the House, there is little question that six months of retirement would have expiated his fault in the public eye sufficiently to enable him to reappear. People forgive sins such as his readily enough if not accompanied by gross duplicity or cruelty, and he was armed against too much English indignation by at least one notorious case of condonation on the part of the whole Tory and Liberal-Unionist party. It is the Nonconformists he had to fear, and he has, through his base defence, made forgiveness from them impossible, and doubtless greatly reduced the majority at the coming election, on which the Liberals had good reason to count.

GAIN AND LOSS IN PUBLIC INDEBTEDNESS.

THE census bulletins already published give the amount of the entire public indebtedness, Federal, State, and local, except that of the school districts, townships, and smaller towns and villages. In 1880 the aggregate amount of the net indebtedness of these excepted places was $117,112,862. It is not possible to separate the amount of their debt in 1870 from that of the other municipalities and quasi-municipalities of the country. In the preparation of the following table, it has been arbitrarily estimated that their debt in 1870 was about $90,000,000. The figures published by the Census Office, it is distinctly stated, are merely preliminary, and are subject to revision.

Subject to the above-mentioned qualifications, the following table will give for 1870, 1880, and 1890 the net Federal, State, and local indebtedness, except that of school districts, townships, and the smaller towns and villages, together with the increase or decrease in each kind of indebtedness during each decade, and the percentage of such increase or decrease:

AMOUNT OF INDEBTEDNESS.

Nature of indebtedness.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Federal ...	$2,331,169,956	$1,919,326,748	$623,376,119
State.....	352,866,698	226,597,594	132,336,639
Local.....	425,810,060	704,373,585	738,287,576
Total.....	3,109,846,714	2,850,297,927	1,794,000,334

INCREASE OR DECREASE—AMOUNT.

Nature of Indebtedness.	From 1870-1880.	From 1880-1890.	Percentage	
			From 1870 to '80.	From 1880 to '90.
Federal.	—$411,843,208	—$895,950,629	—17	—52
State....	—126,269,104	—94,260,905	—35	—42
Local...	+278,563,525	+33,913,991	+65	+5
Total...	—259,548,787	—1,056,297,543	—8	—37

The reduction in the aggregate amount of public indebtedness of all sorts has thus been more than four times as great during the last decade as it was during the decade extending from 1870 to 1880, and the fact that in ten years more than one thousand millions of the public debt have been paid off is a striking demonstration of the enormous and apparently constantly accelerating growth of wealth. The annual outlay for the payment of the principal of the debt, in fact, exceeds the total annual revenues of the Government during any year prior to 1863. It is more than twice as great as those revenues were in any year before 1853. The reduction during the decade was more than eight times as great as was the national debt at any time prior to the civil war, and about thirteen times as great as it was after Hamilton had carried through Congress the bill for the assumption of the State debts. It was about twice as great as was the total national debt of Great Britain when Hume affirmed that "the ruinous effects of it are now apparent and threaten the very existence of the nation," and twice as great as the sum Walpole declared would exceed the ability of England to stand under. It was more than sixteen times the amount of the English debt at the close of the seventeenth century, when that debt appeared to so competent an authority as Davenant so great that he asserted that the country could never flourish in trade or manufactures until the greater part of it was liquidated.

Of the total reduction, nine-tenths has taken place in the Federal debt, which is now less than one-half what it was ten years ago. The aggregate amount of State indebtedness has also during the decade been reduced nearly one-half. Unfortunately, some part of this reduction has been brought about either by absolute repudiation or by various sorts of partial repudiation, euphemistically styled scaling, readjusting, or the like. The genuine reductions by payment have nevertheless been considerable, and there are now, outside the South, no States whose net indebtedness is at all important, while there are six States absolutely without any bonded debt, and no less than eighteen in which the cash and funds on hand, according to the census returns, exceed the total combined amount of the bonded and floating indebtedness. It may be stated that in the above table the figures for the net State indebtedness in 1880 are those of the tenth census, and not those given by the bulletin of the eleventh census. There are a number of serious and largely unexplained differences between the figures given by this bulletin for the debts of many of the States in 1880 and those furnished by the census of that year.

The most interesting and most important portions of the statistics relating to indebtedness thus far made public are those which show the amount of local indebtedness. During the two decades from 1860 to 1880 the sum total of this indebtedness increased by leaps and bounds. It is probable that in 1860 it was not great, and yet when in 1870 it was first made the subject of census inquiry, it amounted, including that of the school districts, etc., to $515,810,060, and by 1880 this had risen to $821,486,447, an increase of 59 per cent. Public opinion took alarm none too soon, and, by constitutional provisions in many States requiring popular ratification of every new loan, or restricting the aggregate amount of indebtedness which a municipality might lawfully contract, to a certain percentage of the assessed valuation, attempts were made to prevent further reckless borrowing. The preliminary census figures seem to show that the efforts thus made have been measurably successful. It is true that there has been no reduction in the aggregate amount of the local indebtedness, but, on the other hand, the increase indicated is so small when compared with that of the previous decade (being relatively but one-twelfth as great) as to indicate a most important and satisfactory progress in the right direction. While our cities and towns are growing as rapidly as the census shows they are, it is inevitable that they will have to be large borrowers in order to supply themselves with the expensive necessaries of urban existence. If under such circumstances the aggregate amount borrowed but slightly exceeds the amount paid off, we are doubtless doing, if not as well as we might hope, or as well as we should if more honesty and intelligence and less politics and jobbery were found in our municipal boards, still quite as well as we have, under existing conditions, any reason to expect.

The reduction in the annual interest charge has doubtless been proportionately still greater than in the principal of the public indebtedness, although the information thus far published by the Census Office is not as complete with reference to the changes in the interest as it is with respect to the principal. It seems probable, however, that the annual outlay for interest on all kinds of public indebtedness is now between $60,000,000 and $70,000,000 less than it was ten years ago. This reduction is in itself more than eight times all the revenue received in any one year of Washington's Administration.

If attention be confined to what is ordinarily called public indebtedness, it thus appears that, both in the principal and the annual interest charge, there has been a very great reduction in the last decade. If by the charge of the public debt, however, we, as it would seem we should, include all the payments we shall be called upon to make in return for or in consequence of services rendered long since, the comparison with ten years ago is not so satisfactory. Pensions are nothing but annuities granted by the Government for past services, real or supposed, and as such are in fact part of the public debt. They are, moreover, a form of public indebtedness which cannot be made, as Government stocks can be, a convenience in the business and financial operations of the country. The expenditure for pensions in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, was $57,273,536, and in 1890 $106,493,890, an increase of $49,220,354; and yet in the expenditures for 1890 are not included any of the dependent pensions authorized by the act of June 27, 1890. Within three months after the passage of this act 460,000 claims for pensions under it had been filed. The increase from 1880 to 1891 in the expenditures for pensions will, therefore, exceed the amount by which the interest charge on the public debt—Federal, State, and local—has been reduced during the same time. In spite, therefore, of all the sacrifices which in the meantime have been made to reduce the indebtedness of the country, the annual outlay for debt and pensions combined will soon be greater than it was ten years ago.

DELIBERATIVE BODIES.

IT is not improbable that the present Speaker of the House of Representatives will cease to be a very influential person after his term of office has expired; but that is no reason for ignoring the service that he has done the country. That service might be described concretely as the same as that of the drunken temperance orator—furnishing a horrible warning; or, more scientifically, as exhibit-

ing clearly the pernicious results of certain theories of government. Mr Reed is not a hypocrite, and his frankness, although perhaps somewhat brutal, renders his principles unmistakable. They are summed up in the earnest expression of his gratitude that the body over which he presided was no longer a deliberative body, and it will be profitable to consider what is necessarily implied in this proposition.

The most obvious corollary is, that if there is to be no deliberation in Congress over the laws that are to be enacted there, deliberation must be had elsewhere. Laws are frequently not what they purport to be, but they are always the result of design. It is impossible to throw off a statute like an epigram, and most legislation requires an immense amount of preparation. In the view of the framers of our Constitution, this deliberation was the proper function of the representatives of the people. The *Federalist* is full of this theory, and its importance in the development of the English Constitution is well known. But if this is not the true theory, there is only one other that is possible in a popular government—the theory that a representative is a mere delegate, a mouthpiece of the *vox populi*; and that the people deliberate and employ their servants to frame the results of their deliberations into decrees. This is the theory which Mr. Reed has got hold of, and, as we have said, he has rendered an important service not only to the country, but also to political science, by showing experimentally how the theory works in practice.

For it cannot be denied that *a priori* the theory is defensible. The people, it is said, are the rulers; those who are called rulers have only to ascertain what is the popular will, and then carry it out. But when we come to practical considerations, we find that it is impossible in advance of action to ascertain the popular will, and impossible for the whole people to deliberate. From the very conditions of human existence no very great number of men can be gathered at one time to engage in deliberation, while the actual participants must be very few. Even here, the idea of representation reappears; the audience, by the clashing of swords upon shields, or some modern equivalent, showing what leader they approve. And again we must inquire whether this audience is itself representative of other audiences and of the people who have not formed a part of any audience. In short, unless every individual is asked his opinion of every legislative question, the principle of representation must be recognized; and if the regularly chosen representatives of the people do not deliberate, they must accept the deliberations of those persons whom they consider to be most representative.

The fatal difficulty with this course is that of all it requires the most deliberation. How is it possible, without the most careful investigation, to determine what men hold representative opinions? Is it the party managers, the political "bosses," the men who foreordain the nominations of caucuses, and construct the party platforms? Or is it the men of substance who furnish the sinews of war? These are shrewd men. They can tell what legislation will be satisfactory to the business interests which they represent, and they can report the feeling prevalent among their henchmen. But their views are often discordant, and they rather perplex than aid deliberation when they disagree. After their opinions have been ascertained, it is still necessary to consider whether these opinions will prove to be those of the people.

Moreover, deliberation of this kind must be secret. Discussion is transferred from the legislative chamber to the lobbies and committee-rooms, to hotels and bar-rooms and private apartments. While much valuable information is gathered in this way, it is unavoidably fragmentary, and frequently misleading. It lacks the corrective criticisms of debate, and, more than all, it is of a character to excite popular suspicion and jealousy. The American democracy is easy-going, but it is at the same time high-spirited. It indicates the main outlines of a policy that it will approve, but it is suspicious of all secret influences that affect details. If it sees that its representatives are framing legislation in secret, determining important matters without public discussion, registering the requirements of mysterious interests, its wrath is excited. It is a patient people, but there is one thing that its patience will not stand—the spectacle of its representatives entering into private arrangements under pretence of carrying out the popular will. This is in our Government the crime of *læsæ majestatis*.

No doubt Mr. Reed and his followers would laugh derisively at the mention of Pericles as an authority upon government, but there is some suggestiveness in his observation that the Athenians regarded as the great impediment to action not discussion, but the want of that knowledge which is gained by discussion preparatory to action. The appalling disorder that has befallen the Republican party is enough, at all events, to prove that action without public deliberation, even if in obedience to privately received intimations and manifestations of the popular will, is not a policy that is secure against miscarriage.

Action after prolonged deliberation, during which the representatives of the people sincerely try to ascertain what, in the light of reason and experience, appears to be for the good of the people, not concerning themselves with surreptitious inquiries as to what the people want, is a policy that is also not free from danger. But the danger of miscarriage in the latter case cannot, in the light of recent events, be regarded as so serious as in the former, and it has a great many advantages that the non-deliberative method has not. Among them is the possibility that the people may be convinced, being themselves rational beings, by the arguments which have convinced their representatives; in which case their representatives would enjoy the honorable pride of genuine leadership, a pleasure of a much higher order than the somewhat mercantile complacency over a cleverly anticipated popular want. When Mr. Cleveland reverted to the old theory of representative government, and declared in his celebrated tariff message what he thought the country needed, not what he thought the people wanted, Senator Edmunds is said to have exclaimed: "The Lord has delivered him into our hands!" But if there is any public man who can contemplate his standing with the people with more serene satisfaction than Mr. Cleveland to-day, his reflections and the reasons for them ought to be communicated to the world.

SENATOR HOAR'S EXPLANATIONS.

Senator Hoar has added his explanation of the Republican defeat to those of McKinley and Reed. "The three weeks' discussion of this great statute [the McKinley Bill]," he says, "was insufficient to convey to the American people an adequate understanding of its beneficent provisions." In this diagnosis, the nine months' discussion in Congress and the press that preceded the three weeks' discussion on the stump, counts for nothing. It is non-existent in the mind of the Massachusetts Senator. So, too, is the discussion which preceded the last session of Congress, and which took the form in his own State of a house-to-house canvass of the iron industries, leading to the presentation of the most formidable petition for lower duties that has been sent up since 1857. Of this petition, headed by ex-Gov. Ames, and bearing the signatures of such leading Republicans as Mr. Tobey and Mr. McFarlin, he has no recollection, or none that he thinks worthy of mention. The State was lost and the country was lost for want of time to prove to those iron-men, as well as others, that all industries would have been benefited by that "great statute," the McKinley Bill.

At this point the Senator enables us to take an inventory of his mental equipment as relates to the tariff question in general. He does not seem to be aware that we had a tariff anterior to the McKinley Bill, a tariff averaging 47 per cent. on dutiable goods, and reaching 58 per cent. on pig-iron, as to which Massachusetts had expressed some particular irritation. For all that we learn from him we might suppose that the country was on a free-trade basis, and was just embarking upon the experiment of a protective tariff. "There never was a bill framed," he says, "with more anxious, careful, conscientious study than the tariff of 1890." Indeed! But was not the tariff of 1883 framed with equally anxious, careful, and conscientious study? What was the matter with that tariff? What was the matter with the fourteen or fifteen other tariffs that the Republican party has passed since it came into power? We are not wholly without an answer to this question, and it is here that we discern the make-up of Senator Hoar's mind on tariffs in general. "It [the McKinley Bill] is framed," he goes on to say, "upon a principle which has been discussed from a time long before the foundation of the Government of the United States. This principle has gained steadily in public confidence with every discussion." Which means that

in his view, if the first Congress, that of 1789, passed a protective tariff averaging 8½ per cent., all subsequent Congresses ought to add something to that figure, as pious travellers add stones to a cairn, in order to show their attachment to the principle. They ought to go right along piling up duties to the end of time. This is a conception of the protective theory that has not found its way into the text-books, although it has been frequently imputed to the advocates of the system by its adversaries. Stated shortly, it means that trade restrictions ought never to cease, but on the contrary ought to be multiplied and augmented continually. It is the Chinese-wall doctrine without any disguise or qualification.

This being Senator Hoar's frame of mind on the tariff question, why does he put so much stress on the "careful and conscientious study" of it? Why not make one job of it by passing a bill prohibiting the importation of anything that can be produced in this country? It is true that even this kind of a bill would leave room for dispute as to what things can and what things cannot be produced in this country. There would still be scope for "careful and conscientious study" to determine whether carpet-wool, for example, can be produced in this country or not, and here we should look for some fun in a joint debate between Mr. William Whitman and Mr. Columbus Delano, with Senator Hoar as an impartial judge inclining to support Delano on broad grounds. Looking strictly to the "principle which has been discussed from a long time before the foundation of the Government of the United States," we should expect him to solve all doubts in favor of the wool-growers. There is certainly no reason why the duties on iron ore and coal should not be made prohibitory at once, since it is acknowledged that we can and do produce these articles in abundance. It would save a deal of time and talk to adopt the Chinese wall forthwith, instead of approaching it by successive bills, as in the recent disastrous McKinley experiment.

That there may have been some errors of detail in the McKinley Bill, Senator Hoar allows; but these were unintentional. "Experience may *perhaps* show," he says doubtfully, "that this adjustment was in some particulars unwise. But it was made under the recommendation of an able, wise, and faithful committee, who had nothing but the general interest *at heart*." Here we have another chart of the Senator's phrenology. So long as your heart is in the right place, you are not to be blamed for shutting up half of the carpet-mills of the country, or for compelling the sewing women to pay three prices for pearl buttons, or for adding five cents to the cost of a dozen eggs and twenty-five cents to the price of a bushel of potatoes. Think, dear laboring man, think of McKinley's *motives* when you approach the ballot-box. He may have made a mistake when he put the potato tax on you, but his heart beat true all the same. He may have overdone it when he put a new tax on the tools of your trade, but his intentions were of the most excellent description. He may have erred in handing part of the contents of your dinner-pail over to some would-be worker of tin plate, but he meant well. Whatever he did, he is a good man. And so are all of *us*, who followed his lead and voted for his bill, without knowing very much about it. The terms of the Senator's endorsement of the bill show that he would have voted for any other with equal alacrity if convinced that the Committee had "the general interest *at heart*." So it comes about that if tin plate and eggs and potatoes had been put on the free list, instead of being taxed 50, 60, or 70 per cent., as the case may be, Senator Hoar would have been equally gratified, provided he were sure that McKinley was a good man. But surely the Senator must have had some doubts as to the state of McKinley's heart when the latter was changing so rapidly on the subject of hides.

Evidently Mr. Hoar took protection as a bolus when he was young, and never made any inquiries about it. Anything that comes to him with that label is *Thus saith the Lord*. He has spent his growing years on other subjects, and as to these he can give a reason, good or bad, when occasion calls. But as to the tariff he can give none except that he has confidence in the good intentions of the Committee. The State of Massachusetts has been studying the tariff question while Mr. Hoar has been studying the other things. While he has been satisfying himself of the rectitude of McKinley, the State has been considering the simpler problems of each man's right to his own earnings. As to the good intentions of the Committee, or of Mr. Hoar himself, for that matter, the State has voted practically that there is a hot place paved with such, or at all events that their intentions are of no account.

PARNELL—QUAY.

PARNELL's address to his Parliamentary followers on Monday shows that he is determined to continue the work of demolishing his own reputation in the eyes of the civilized world. He is fighting hard against political extinction, and using every weapon that comes to hand. He abuses and ridicules all his late English allies, including Gladstone and Harcourt, as well as the ablest of his own followers, and is apparently determined to seek a "vindication" by some sort of popular vote in Ireland. His notion is, that if he can keep his men together in the House of Commons under his lead, he can, by holding, as he does hold, the balance of power between the two English parties, extract concessions from each in turn, which will eventually restore his old prestige. In order to attain this he is apparently willing to sacrifice utterly his reputation for honesty, fidelity, truthfulness, and fair dealing.

What is most interesting in his present attitude, however, is its resemblance to the old-fashioned American modes of getting a "vindication." That he has studied the system of our political malefactors with care and profit is plainly to be seen, and the likeness between his methods and Quay's is worth attention. For example, one of the first rules of this system is to avoid making an issue on the real question, and to keep up the defensive fight by starting new subjects of controversy. If the accusation, for instance, be fraud or falsehood, the practitioners answer by an attack on unchastity. If the charge is embezzlement, they show up the possible evils of free trade. If the charge is literary piracy, they show that some one of the accusers is also a pirate. In fact, they take the utmost pains to prevent any debate over the real facts of the case. All through the recent canvass in Pennsylvania it was impossible to engage any Republican in a discussion of the question whether Quay had or had not twice robbed the State Treasury. No matter how pointedly or circumstantially the charge was made, the answer of Quay's editors always was that you were attacking the American tariff in the interest of Great Britain. In truth, dexterity in this sort of evasion is actually taught to young men in the offices of party newspapers, and excites their admiration more than any other branch of the journalistic art. It cannot be practised successfully, however, as bald and simple evasion. It has to be enveloped in clouds of rhetoric and accompanied with prodigious noise. It does not do, when A is accused of lying and corruption, to answer simply that B has been unchaste and is a free-trader. The evasion has to be wrapped up in an essay on the enormous evils of unchastity, or in a narrative showing the terrible condition of the working classes in free-trade countries.

Parnell is, in truth, managing his affairs with the hand of a "trained journalist." There has really been little condemnation of him, everything considered, among English Liberal politicians on account of the O'Shea affair, bad as the evidence has shown that to be. His persistent duplicity in it has probably disgusted far more of them than his licentiousness. But what they say—what Mr. Gladstone has said, and Mr. Morley has said, and they all, in fact, have said—is that they do not undertake to sit in judgment on Parnell's private character, but that the judgment of the divorce court in the O'Shea case has, in their opinion, so prejudiced a large body of English voters against Parnell that they would consider the success of the Home-Rule cause, either in this Parliament or the next, impossible if he remained in the leadership of the Irish party. They therefore ask him to retire, at least until after the election. A proper human answer to this view from Parnell would be, either (1) that he had a good defence to O'Shea's charges, but did not produce it in court for such and such reasons; or (2) that although the O'Shea charge was true, it would not have the effect on English voters which Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley supposed; or (3) that even if it did have the effect on English Liberals that they anticipated, he had good reason to believe that he could extract Home Rule from the Tories. In any of these answers, however, the O'Shea case would have occupied the leading place.

Instead of this human answer, Parnell,

like Quay, makes a journalistic answer. He has actually ruled the O'Shea case wholly out of the discussion as irrelevant. He made not the slightest mention of it in his manifesto. He forbade all allusion to it as chairman of the meeting of his Parliamentary followers. What he says is, that Mr. Gladstone and Mr. John Morley are traitors to the Irish cause; that both of them made him dishonorable proposals about Home Rule in private and confidential interviews, and that they undoubtedly intend to betray the Irish when they again come to legislate about Home Rule; and he intimates that English assistance is of no consequence to Home Rule. Why he did not produce these startling facts sooner, he does not explain. Nor does he account for his continuing to act with the Liberals so long without discovering their treachery; nor does he say whether he would have exposed them if Capt. O'Shea had not exposed him. In fact, he answers the charge of unchastity by a counter charge of deceit.

The coolness of his demeanor and his good humor and even jollity through all this trying crisis, on which all the correspondents dwell, constitute another striking point of resemblance to Quay. The worse Quay's situation in Pennsylvania seemed to be in the eyes of decent people, the more jovial he seemed to grow, and when final defeat came he went to Florida in high spirits. But it must be said for Quay that he had no such advisers or allies as Gladstone and John Morley to bid him get out of sight for a while, as the only way of allaying public disgust. He had to rely on his own instincts and experience for the proprieties of the occasion, and they taught him nothing except that when in trouble the best course is to brazen it out. Parnell has sinned against greater light, and has, therefore, done more damage. He has inflicted injury on the Irish cause, the full extent of which cannot now be estimated, but it is probably very great, if not irreparable. The discovery of his protracted intrigue gave the cause a severe blow, and he is now apparently bent on saving himself from one of the natural consequences, which he must have all along foreseen, by involving as many friends as possible in his own ruin.

PRISONS AND PRISONERS.

THE condition of prisoners has been in all ages so wretched as to call for the prayers and the labors of the benevolent, but it is only in recent years that the treatment of this unhappy class has become the subject of scientific study. John Howard and his followers compelled recognition of the fact that convicts were men, and therefore entitled to humane treatment; and though their aim was not to establish a science of penology, their agitation was the remote cause of that result. Recent as this science is, it has attained an unusual degree of perfection, and its principles have been already to a considerable extent adopted in practice. These principles are set forth with admirable clearness and succinctness in an essay by Mr. Eugene Smith, long Secretary of the Prison Association of New York, which is just published by the Society for Political Education.

Mr. Smith points out that the vindictive theory of punishment has been superseded by the view that the sole end of a penal system is the protection of society. This end, however, is not secured by the temporary incarceration of criminals, because it has been found by experience that after their discharge they may be more dangerous than before. The management of many prisons is such as to stimulate the criminal tendencies of their inmates. After some misunderstanding a substantial agreement has been reached upon the proposition that the reformation of the prisoner is the controlling aim of prison discipline. This is not upon any theory of paternalism or charitable agency, but because it is the best way of protecting society. The criminal is not to be reformed for his own sake, but for the sake of others. He has no special claim upon the Government, but by treating him as if he had the common safety is promoted.

The term reformation, however, as applied to criminals, has a technical meaning. It does not mean, as most people not unnaturally suppose, a regeneration of the spiritual nature of the criminal. He may be as bad a man after he is reformed as before, but he is changed in one important respect: he will not violate the law. A story from the Elmira Reformatory throws more light upon the meaning of this term as well as upon the nature of the criminal than will be derived from much explanation. At an examination of the class in "Practical Ethics," the question was put, "Is it better to beg or to steal?" One prisoner replied: "A hundred years ago the question presented no difficulty; it would have been better then to beg than to steal. But *now*, when such great progress has been made in prison reform, it would be better to steal than to beg; for the thief, being imprisoned, would enjoy all the benefits of a reformatory training, which would enable him on his discharge to take care of himself so well that he would never afterwards have occasion either to beg or to steal."

On account of the existence of this distorted and morbid standard of morality among criminals, it is indispensable that the prison regimen should be severe. The disgrace of imprisonment is a sufficient deterrent to most men, but for the typical criminal this is not sufficient, and a painful discipline must be added. The convict must be made to dread the thought of a renewal of his sentence. Subject to this fundamental requirement, the general principle governing the treatment of convicts is laid down by Mr. Smith as follows: "Those methods of prison management are the best calculated to reform the prisoner which assimilate his condition to that of the free workman outside, which cultivate in him the same habits, appeal to the same motives, awaken the same ambitions, develop the same views of life, and subject him to the same temptations that belong to the free community of which he is fitted to become a member."

The convict, therefore, ought to be made to feel, with the honest man, that he must earn his living. The Government deprives him of his liberty, and it must, therefore, furnish him with the opportunity of labor. Only in this sense does it owe him any support. The convict, therefore, should be paid wages—low wages, if his labor is of little value, high wages if his labor justifies them. Out of these wages he should pay for his living, and if he earns more than will pay for the scanty fare of the prison, he should be permitted to accumulate the surplus. In this way the habit of industry and the habit of self-support are formed, and the fundamental maxim of political economy, that capital is the result of saving, is inculcated. Upon this point the generally admirable statute of the State of New York known as the Fassett Act is obnoxious to some criticism. That act provides that meritorious prisoners may receive ten per cent. of the earnings of the prison as compensation —compensation, apparently, for good behavior. While good conduct deserves recognition, it is undesirable that it should be paid for in money. Pecuniary recompense should be reserved for labor alone.

Another fundamental principle of prison science is "the individual treatment of convicts." The inmates of a prison cannot be reformed *en masse* by the application of the same influences. "As well might the patients in a general hospital, afflicted with divers diseases, be all cured by one universal and unbending regimen." It is obvious that this system of treatment implies a high order of ability on the part of the governors of prisons; no legislation will avail against weakness here. "The whole administration must be pervaded by the *personality* of a warden who shall possess keen insight, broad human sympathies, and a strong and masterful nature; and that personality must be brought into separate and direct contact with each prisoner."

If it be once admitted that a criminal should not be discharged from prison unless he is reformed, *i. e.*, unless a reasonable probability exists that upon his regaining liberty he will not violate the law, the indeterminate sentence is a logical necessity. It is absurd to turn loose upon society a man who will immediately renew his attacks upon it. "It is just as irrational," Mr. Smith observes, "to send a lunatic to an insane asylum for the predetermined period of two years as it is to sentence a felon to two years' imprisonment, decreeing in advance that when the two years are up both shall go scot free. Both should be confined until they have become so far *cured* that they may be set at large without danger to the community." Theoretically, therefore, there should be no predetermined limit to imprisonment for crime. But practically the New York statute goes as far as is at present desirable, in providing that the imprisonment shall not be shorter than the minimum term nor longer than the maximum term for which, under existing laws, the convict may be sentenced.

It is not encouraging, although under our system of nominating the judiciary by

"halls" and party conventions, it is not surprising that no judge has yet pronounced an indeterminate sentence. On the other hand, it is very encouraging that the efforts of a small body of disinterested citizens to reform our prison system should, in the face of tremendous opposition, have attained so great success as is marked by the enactment of the Fassett Bill. This result is enough to convince all sincere reformers that no good cause is hopeless. Those who desire to learn how reason and experience may triumph over prejudice and ignorance, can do no better than study Mr. Smith's little tract. It might be well in case, as we hope, another edition should be required, to print with it the enlightened statute by which the penal system of New York is now regulated.

THE LEGAL CHARACTER OF AFRICAN EXPEDITIONS.

THE answer of Mr. Smith, the English Ministerial leader in the House of Commons, to the question, the other day, whether the Government would issue a commission of inquiry into the doings of Stanley and his officers in Africa, was a decided negative. He said the Government was "in no sense responsible for the selection of Stanley's staff," which means, of course, that the expedition was a private affair. It does not, indeed, seem to have been the expedition even of the [illegible] Company. It was, in truth, [illegible] of Commit- [illegible] philanthropic organization [illegible] to accomplish the rescue of [illegible] who was supposed to be [illegible] very anxious, therefore, to [illegible]

This has given a distinctly new turn to the controversy over "the rear-guard" and its troubles. The English public is at last waking up to the fact that the dispute concerns not simply Stanley and his officers, but the reputation of the English Government and people. The last issue of the *Spectator* gives expression most effectively to the thought that is now rising in the minds of most educated men over this miserable business, and to which Mr. Smith's answer will give increased impetus. It says:

> "This kind of thing is not endurable, and must be stopped, even if Parliament has to interfere with enterprise by a strong restrictive law. We are not going to conquer Africa as the Spaniards conquered Peru, or to degrade the national reputation and impair the national character for the sake either of tropical trade or widely extended dominion. The English claim to rule the dark races consists in this, that their rule is at once lenient and vivifying; and their acts of invasion in Africa, if these two claims are to be disregarded, become nothing better than grand dacoities. We have dealt elsewhere with the horrible personalties now being exchanged among the African explorers and their friends; and though we see reason to believe that the two men most bespattered with charges were either in part innocent or morally irresponsible, we are none the less convinced that the general position assumed by explorers, and revealed in this disgraceful controversy, is perfectly intolerable. They obviously consider themselves released in Africa from all laws, and at liberty to act, either, as an insane officer did at Yambuya, with cruelty which shocked even negroes, or with the relentless but calculated and purposeful severity which we take Mr. Stanley to have displayed, or with the large humanity and tolerance which undoubtedly marked the irresolute Emin Pasha, and which appear, as far as we can read him, to have distinguished the conduct of Mr. Jephson, according, not to principle, but to individual temperament. They are all Czars, Ivans or Alexanders, as may happen, but all Czars. The men are 'released from law,' as the Romans used to say, and give sentences of death or torture, or protect or pardon suppliants at their own discretion, irresponsible either to civilized States or, in many instances, to their own inner consciences. They care nothing about opinion, for there is no opinion—at least, so they consider—in Africa; and they are themselves, as a rule, the reporters to Europe of their own deeds. That position is the position of slaveholders, which demoralizes even the best; and it is aggravated by the fact that the explorers are slaveholders whose slaves may rise at any moment, and are, till drilled into soldiers, always on the verge of that irritating form of mutiny, desertion *en masse*."

That is to say, at the close of the nineteenth century, and not the close of the seventeenth, when Christian missionaries are swarming all over the world, and no man can get more than a month in distance away from the strong arm of his own government, England allows private individuals to fit out expeditions which are, in the eye of public law, however praiseworthy their aims may be, distinctly piratical. The commander carries no commission from any lawful government; he selects his own subordinates, he enlists armed parties, and places them under military discipline, and then starts across the African continent, making private war on the way. He seizes from peaceable natives such supplies as he may need, takes to himself the power of life and death over everybody with whom he comes in contact, delegates this same power to such subordinates as he may [illegible] on special duty, [illegible] ravages the territory of [illegible] local potentate [illegible] as may resist him, hangs, shoots, and flogs as many men as he occasions seem to him to require, reports to nobody but himself, and then sells the [illegible] acknowledging no responsibility to anybody in particular for any of his doings.

It appears clearly enough in the rear-guard controversy that the subalterns have no idea of responsibility to anybody but their chief when they are dealing with the natives. The great guilt of Barttelot's atrocities seems to have lain in the fact that he was endangering the success of the expedition and disobeying his chief's orders, not that he was committing murder under the law of nations. The truth is that, from the legal point of view, no such expeditions as Stanley's have been permitted or fitted out since the days of the Buccaneers on the Spanish Main. As the *Spectator* well says, if these men had chartered a ship and simply ravaged the African coasts, they would, when they got home, have been brought to trial without any doubt for the slaughter which they acknowledged they had committed. The captain and owner of an English brig was tried in Australia some years ago for simply carrying a war party of natives against their enemies, as an accessory to murder. In fact, we feel little doubt that if an expedition like Stanley's had been on shipboard and had sent home accounts of its doings as it proceeded, a man-of-war would have been despatched for its capture. Why are things permitted on shore which would be peremptorily stopped on the sea?

This is the question which the British public is now beginning to ask itself, and with good reason. The question is asked with all the more force because we are nearly all afflicted just now with a mania for civilizing Africa. Every newspaper tells us that the great obstacle in the way of this beneficent work is the raids of the Arab slave-dealers. They carry on private war against the unfortunate natives. They kill the tribes who oppose them and burn their villages just as we do. True, the end they have in view is nefarious, and the end of our expeditions is beneficent. But what do the natives think or know about the difference? We do not carry off the people into slavery, but we act as if such was our design. How many of those who encountered Stanley's army fully understood that he was going to rescue Emin, and open up darkest Africa to the Bible, the sickle, and the ploughshare? What is more to the purpose, how many knew that he really had not as much authority in the eye of the law or usage of Christian nations to shoot one of his enemies or "give a dozen" to a mutineer, as Tippu Tib or any other slave-dealing chief? The whole business of exploration in Africa calls for a thorough overhauling at the hands of the Government, as the *Spectator* suggests. If the deeds which Stanley and his rear-guard have done in Africa are necessary, and have any wise purpose in view, then in God's name let them be done under a lawful flag, a public commission, and the articles of war, and make the perpetrators report to the constituted authorities of some civilized Power, or answer before some [illegible] of their acts as

JEANNE D'ARC—THE RUSSIAN ALLIANCE

PARIS, November 12, 1890.

THE French have at the present moment two fixed ideas—two things on the brain, if I may use the expression; one is Jeanne d'Arc, the other is the Russian alliance. The two things seem at first sight to be different, but they nevertheless are the expression of the same preoccupation, of the same thought—one of those thoughts which Sainte-Beuve well defined when he called them the thoughts *de derrière le cerveau* (from behind the brain).

The revival of Jeanne d'Arc's cult is a distinct form of patriotism: she saved France at the time of the English invasion; she took her young King to Reims and saw him crowned. She certainly is one of the most fascinating and poetical figures in history; but the French nation has not always looked upon her with the same eyes as it does now. Voltaire did not offend the national sentiment when he wrote 'La Pucelle.' The philosophers of the eighteenth century would certainly not have burned the "bonne Lorraine," but they looked upon her as an hysterical fanatic. The Roman Church has never been willing to beatify Jeanne d'Arc and to give her a place among the saints. The reasons for this opposition are obvious: Jeanne was condemned by an ecclesiastical tribunal, and, even after centuries, the Church has no desire to protest against the decisions of such a tribunal.

Jeanne d'Arc has now a statue in front of the Tuileries. This equestrian statue,

which is not without merit, was made some years ago by Frémiet; the same sculptor has since made a sort of duplicate of it, with very slight changes, and has made a present of it to the birthplace of Jeanne d'Arc. Our greatest modern sculptor, Paul Dubois, who has achieved a world-wide reputation by his magnificent monument to Lamoricière (bearing at its four corners four statues, two of which, "Charity" and "Military Courage," are comparable to the best works of the Italian Renaissance), has been haunted for many years by a desire to make a Jeanne d'Arc. I have seen him at work at it in his studio, never contented with himself, always longing for something better. He has at last consented to exhibit his equestrian statue to the public. The horse is magnificent, full of life. Dubois has kept a horse in his stable, studied every bone in the horse's skeleton, and has succeeded in making a true horse, which, however, does not look like a common horse, and is in some degree idealized. As for Jeanne, she is in full armor, but her armor is so made that you feel all the movements and sinuosities of the body under it. She is sword in hand, and, with a most noble and graceful gesture, she makes a salute with her sword—keeping her head slightly backward, in an attitude of respect, and reining in her horse. These details will be all the more striking when the statue is placed in front of the Cathedral of Reims, which is its future site. Jeanne will then stand before the church in an attitude at the same time of triumph and of humility, having accomplished what she meant to accomplish, but feeling that her work was the work of God, and that she was only his instrument.

Lately we have had a Jeanne d'Arc on the stage; and who would and could play the rôle if not Sarah Bernhardt? Jules Barbier, the author of the play, told me that she was completely engrossed with her part, for a time at least; that she could talk and think of nothing else. Alas! Jeanne d'Arc had soon to give way to Cleopatra, and the versatile Sarah entered as easily into the skin (as we say in French) of the dissolute Queen of Egypt as she had done into that of the Maid of Orleans. I do not speak of a Jeanne d'Arc represented at the Hippodrome: it was a great show, and one of the attractions was the burning of Jeanne at a real stake, surrounded with real flames, by some sort of artifice which I don't pretend to explain.

You see that I was not mistaken when I said that Jeanne d'Arc has become the most popular historical figure of the time in the people's mind. She means revenge, deliverance of Alsace-Lorraine. Our English neighbors know very well that this instinctive movement is not directed against them; the French have never been more Anglomaniac than they are at the present moment. You meet almost as many Englishmen as you do Frenchmen in some quarters of Paris. Chantilly has become a second Newmarket; the races (which are run nearly every day in the year) have their public, which is Anglo-French; our literature is invaded by English expressions; all our clothes are English; even our ladies patronize English tailors. I know a man who has his linen washed in London! Our diplomats may keep up old quarrels about Egypt, write more or less angry notes about our influence in the valley of the Nile; the nation cares little for it, and it may be said that the traditional hostility towards England is completely on the wane.

The cult of Jeanne d'Arc is universal; you will find her equally worshipped by the royalist and by the republican. The royalist speaks in glowing terms of the girl who took her King to Reims and saw him crowned; the republican makes phrases about the peasant girl, the "bonne Lorraine," who saved the country when King and Princes could not do it. In fact, she embodies at present, and, it must be said, in the most touching form, the national instinct; she is the image of France—she gives us hope of a miraculous succor.

Russia represents the terrestrial hope; and it is for this reason that I said that the cult of Jeanne d'Arc and the faith in a Russian alliance are parts of the same sentiment. The diplomats will tell you that there is no treaty of alliance, such as exists between Prussia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy; that the Emperor of Russia cannot bind himself to a country whose Ministers are constantly changing; that, being the Czar Autocrat, he has no sympathy for republican institutions; that he is the most pacific of sovereigns, and that his policy is simply a masterly inactivity; that he is satisfied with reorganizing the administration, with improving the finances of his vast empire; that he is the most Russian of Russians, and means to have as little as possible to do with the affairs of the west of Europe—all such talk is vain, and people will respond that there is no need of written treaties when a community of interests demands united action. There is a widespread, a universal belief that if Russia were engaged in a war with the Powers of the Triple Alliance, France would immediately seize her opportunity and pounce upon Germany; that if France were obliged to draw the sword first, Russia could not allow the Powers of middle Europe to crush her, and would immediately attack Germany in the rear. This belief, instinctive, unreasoning, has entered into the mind of every man, woman, and child. The minor details of politics are neglected; the main point is never forgotten: France and Russia must, sooner or later, be engaged in a common struggle with Germany.

In this situation, the position of a Russian Ambassador becomes very pleasant—so pleasant that at times it becomes almost painful. In "Cinna," *Augustus* says to *Cinna*, after having pardoned him and reminded him of all the good things he had given him:

"Je t'en avais comblé; je t'en veux accabler."

We also sometimes seem to overpower the Russian Ambassador with our flatteries and courtesy. Baron Mohrenheim was sent to Paris at a difficult time; he had to replace Prince Orloff, who was a grand seigneur, universally popular, a handsome man, though he wore a band of black silk over one eye (everybody knew that he had been almost killed by sabre cuts at the siege of a Turkish town); he was a hero, a great favorite of his Emperor, and his immense fortune allowed him to live in splendid style. Baron Mohrenheim was Russian Minister at Copenhagen at the time of the marriage of the present Emperor to a Danish princess; he himself married a Danish lady, and her acquaintance with the Empress contributes to his advancement. He was sent to Paris at a time when Russia merely wished to be well informed of all the intricacies of French politics, and when republican institutions still seemed not to be assured. He was an intelligent witness; he knows French to perfection, and is well versed in all our literature, and he rapidly extended his acquaintance in the literary and even journalistic world.

The first symptoms of what may almost be called the Russian fever had not escaped him; Russian literature was becoming very popular: the names of Turgeneff, Tolstoi, Dostoievsky were in all mouths.. This literary *engouement* was a clear indication, and he was not long in seizing it. His position in the diplomatic world soon became almost unique. A certain sort of courtesy is always, in a polite country like France, proffered to every member of the diplomatic body. Baron Mohrenheim became the object of a peculiar courtesy—he was *persona grata*, *persona gratissima*.

Not long ago his daughter married a French officer, M. de Sèze, who belongs to a good French family, and this event assumed extraordinary proportions. A love match (for the marriage was one of those which we call *mariages d'inclination*) was treated in our newspapers as a political event. People had a vision of the marriage of the French army with the Russian army, of a second triple alliance of France, Russia, and Denmark. Distinct allusion to the hoped-for Franco-Russian alliance was made at the Mairie, where the civil marriage took place before the religious marriage; and, by the by, it must be noted that our mayors, instead of celebrating the marriage, as the law requires, merely reading some articles of the *Code Civil*, have formed the habit—at least when they marry people whom they think important—of making speeches which they think eloquent. It did not use to be so, in old times, and this habit ought, in my opinion, to be deprecated, as you never know what a mayor may say, and the reading of the articles of the Code is quite sufficient.

I have only referred to this little episode in order to show the current of public opinion. It is no use to deny it: we are determined to be friends with Russia, whether the Russians are demonstrative or not. We have no doubts on the subject of their sentiments; we have forgotten Poland and the Poles, and don't mean ever to remember them. We try to be as anti-Semitic as the Russians themselves; we console ourselves for all our woes with the idea that some day Russia and France together will dictate terms to the world in arms. I do not discuss this state of things, I note it; for in politics, as in science, you must deal first with facts.

ENGLISH TALK AND FRENCH WORK.

LONDON, November 12, 1890.

THE National Association for the Advancement of Art and its Application to Industry has just held its third annual Congress at Birmingham. More remarkable than its proceedings has been the complete indifference of the general public. But one or two men of note, or notoriety, joined in this year's discussion and speechmaking; there were no socialist artists, except Mr. Holliday, who kept in the background, to give the meetings that element of sensation which has heretofore distinguished them; there was no attraction such as Mr. Alfred Gilbert's pleading of Mr. Stirling Lee's case proved two years ago at Liverpool. As a natural consequence, the Congress has been all but ignored by the press. The *Times*, of course, printed a report, and architectural papers have found space for matter of technical interest to their readers, but most of the other dailies and weeklies have been content to dispose of the whole performance in a short paragraph. And, finally, it has been asked whether, after all, there is any use in holding such meetings at so short an interval as a year.

Had the Congress been one of jockeys or publicans, half the country would have rushed to Birmingham. But still the prevailing apathy is due not solely to British indifference to art, but in a measure to the Association itself.

For its special subject this year was the art education of the people at large, and therefore one that concerns every payer of rates and taxes. The South Kensington and all the schools run by the Science and Art Department are State-supported; many others throughout the country are municipal institutions. Almost every good citizen is more sensitive to a demand upon his purse than to an appeal to his æsthetic sense, and hence one might have thought the discussion of that education for which the public has to pay would have secured at least its attention. But the truth is, the members of the Association in the treatment of their problem have added the crime of incompetency to that of dulness. Beyond platitudes few seem able to go. Again, this year, we have heard of the brutalizing influence upon the workman of "lines of ugly, undecorated, unpicturesque buildings, cubes of glass and iron for shops, hideous squalid rows of brick boxes for houses"; again we have been reminded of the "soulless character of machine work" and the moral degradation wrought by the "miserable sky sign," or bill-poster. We have heard the old story of the beauty of the artisan's life in the golden days of Italy, and of the superiority of the Japanese system of apprenticeship. The names of the great Renaissance designers have been quoted with the usual parade of knowledge; the artistic foibles of the modern lover of blue china have been laughed at with the usual laugh of pity.

Even when the subject was approached in more serious fashion, there was no genuine effort to treat it sensibly or practically. No sooner had Mr. Rathbone, a modern Liverpool version of the Medicean art patron, placed all his hopes in South Kensington, of which he said we had every reason to be proud, than Mr. Hodgson, the President, who is known to a few, perhaps, as R. A., to none as painter, denounced South Kensington and all its ways. No sooner had Mr. Orrock repeated his favorite abuse of the National Gallery for its partiality to "golden-gloried, squint-eyed, triangular Byzantine saints," than Mr. Conway declared such talk "absolute folly." The one man who really pointed out an easy remedy for existing difficulties was Mr. Brett, R. A., whose simple and ingenious solution was the doing away with all art education. Technical education in the sense of practical training by artists, he asserted, was not necessary; it has already done more harm than good; and, anyhow, if it were wanted, it could not now be had. The only practical business of the Congress was the report of a visit to a school of jewelry lately established in Birmingham. I regret that I myself could not go to see it, for, if report is to be trusted, it more nearly realizes the ideal of a good technical school than anything of the kind yet started in England.

The failure of the Congress to cope with its subject is all the more deplorable since the need of good technical education in this country is so great. But few doubt the necessity of technical schools, save Mr. Brett; few agree with Mr. Rathbone that those in existence are satisfactory. The fact that a commission, of which this very Mr. Rathbone was a member, was appointed to inquire into the French system of popular instruction in art, shows that Englishmen begin to realize the fallacy of the South Kensington creed, that all art is theory to be learned by passing different grade examinations; the absurdity of Mr. Morris's doctrine that all art is play; and the inefficiency of polytechnic and people's-palace methods, which give chief prominence to the mechanical side of work, and which have brought down upon them the derision of even Toynbee-Hall "love-workers." The results of its inquiry, however, the Commission does not seem willing to share with the public, though Mr. Rathbone has admitted that the French method of instruction in schools of decorative art appears admirably adapted to form the good decorative artisans who are in demand, rather than the indifferent artists who, thanks to South Kensington, are already a drug in the English market. But it remains to be seen whether the Commission has grasped the real reason for the superiority of the French school. This it could not have failed to do had its members visited none other but the École du Livre, opened very recently in Paris, but destined to become famous before many months have passed. Apparently, the Commissioners, together with all other Englishmen and most Americans, are still ignorant of its existence, and yet it is a perfect model of what a technical school, giving both artistic and mechanical training, ought to be. It furnishes the very best solution of the problem which at the Birmingham meetings was left unsolved.

While in all art matters Englishmen talk and make a great noise, Frenchmen hold their peace and go actively to work. The École du Livre came into being unhelped by art congresses or the liberality of city companies eager to curry favor with a suspicious public, or of individual philanthropists with bank accounts larger than their art knowledge. It needed no sensational novel to give it a start, no fashionable fad to support it. It was founded by the city of Paris at the instigation of M. Hovelacque, well known in the French political as in the scientific world, and after M. Magnuski, its present manager, had devoted years of study and research to the subject, travelling to every European country except England, where he knew he should find little or nothing to learn, and examining above all the municipal typographical school of Barcelona, the wonderful photo-engraving school of Vienna, and the Plantin Museum at Antwerp. As the name implies, the object of the École du Livre is to instruct pupils in everything that relates to the making of books, from the casting of type to the drawing of illustrations. Intended for boys from the age of twelve, it does not neglect their scholastic education, but continues this from the point where they left off at the primary schools. However, even here the main object of the institution is not forgotten, everything being done to make the instruction in science and letters increase interest in the profession or trade which pupils are ultimately to adopt. These classes, while due attention is paid to them, are subordinated to the more essential studies—chemistry to its practical application by engraver or photographer, for example, general history to the particular history of art and printing, and so on with all other branches; the school is meant to turn out intelligent and well-educated workmen, and not clerks or literary hacks.

These essential studies are seventeen in all, without counting subdivisions. The principal are type-founding, type-setting, and printing, the workrooms being supplied with every possible necessity which the practical printer would require; engraving, lithography, and photography, now so important in reproduction (and not only are pupils trained in the use of the necessary tools for these arts, but also in the necessary chemical and mechanical processes); modelling and drawing, artistic as well as geometrical—for though artisans rather than artists in the usual sense of the word are to be developed, the illustrator will have every opportunity to perfect himself; and book-binding in its highest and simplest forms. In fact, all the many arts and industries exercised in the making of a book, with the exception of the manufacture of paper, are actively represented.

Not only this; there are workshops in which once every fifteen days the boys spend three hours in acquiring the use of tools and learning something of carpentering and practical mechanics, not that they may become mechanics any more than artists or scholars, but that they may understand their own mechanical needs—that they may be able to use the chisel or the hammer, should an emergency arise. While still more importance is given to the artistic—theoretic if you choose—side of the bookmaker's training, the boy who is to become printer or engraver, type-founder or compositor, is in every possible way to be reminded that his special work is not a mere trade, but an art. Already a museum has been founded in the school; it is to contain examples of everything connected with books and the making of them—histories and handbooks of the art of printing, as well as beautiful specimens of the printer's work both past and present, so that the latter-day printer can learn something of the possible beauty of type and page; old and new presses, matrices and casts to help the inventor; drawings and engravings and lithographs by the masters in these arts. In a certain way, of course, no new museum can pretend to rival the wonderful Plantin Museum in Antwerp; but for merely practical purposes that attached to the school hopes eventually to surpass it. This is a brief outline of the scope of the École du Livre.

Its great advantage over the average technical school is easily seen. The pupil will acquire not simply a mechanical knowledge of his trade (all that can, as a rule, be obtained in polytechnics), but a scientific and artistic understanding of it as well. It is true that no man can be taught to be an artist. Thousands take lessons in drawing; the Vierges and Abbeys are the exception. We have to-day a multitude of wood-engravers, but the Kruells and Coles are in the minority. But a right artistic feeling, an appreciation of what is good in everything pertaining to his trade, is a distinct gain even to the man who finds he cannot engrave on wood, and takes instead to preparing the block for the engraver; to the man who realizes that he cannot draw, and devotes himself, therefore, to the mechanical reproduction of the draughtsman's work. And in the same manner, the lithographer or photo-engraver may not want to prepare his own inks and acids, but it is to his own interest to be able to do so in time of need; the compositor or printer may not make his own press or tools, but he, and his employer also, can but profit by his ability, in case of accident, to repair them himself. The minor importance attached to the manufacture of tools and appliances is shown by the very small portion of time set aside for the purpose; the value ascribed to artistic training is manifested in the time, care, and money expended upon the Museum.

The first year, pupils pass through all the workshops and studies; they are then distributed, each according to the aptitude he has shown in the various departments, this distribution being managed by the directors of the school. A boy, instead of having no choice, and being forced to devote himself to engraving, printing, or illustration from the first, can test his talents for each; his ultimate profession, or trade, thus depending upon his own desires and inclinations. It is worth noting that this is really the scheme suggested by a well-known

American illustrator, before the school was opened, in an article in the *Contemporary Review* last spring—a suggestion which was laughed to scorn as visionary and impracticable by the proprietor of the *Graphic*, who has himself started a school of illustration after his own narrow and primarily commercial ideas, which so far has borne but indifferent fruit even as an economic feeder for his own paper.

A few other facts in connection with the École du Livre, though of less significance in the present consideration, are of no less interest. In the first place, it is a full day-school for French boys residing in Paris, their admission depending upon their success in passing certain competitive examinations. The hours are from eight in the morning until six in the evening, and the dinner and *goûter*, or afternoon lunch, for the boys are as free as their classes; this arrangement having been made from wholly matter-of-fact motives, *i. e.*, to keep the boys on the premises and to save time, and without any of the hysterical socialism which characterized the London School Board's advocacy of free meals. The appointment of professors was also the result of examinations, the competitors having themselves named their jury. Some of the most eminent men in their respective professions, Palmaker, Demangeat, Mouchon, for instance, were among the successful candidates. To show how thoroughly the well-being of pupils is studied, I cannot but mention that the course of instruction includes gymnastics and military exercises. There are night classes for men. An enormous building is now being put up in the Rue Vauquelin for the school, which at present is occupying temporary premises near the Panthéon. Already its advantages have been well appreciated: only 100 pupils could be admitted its first year; there were over 300 applications.

Of course, the Paris École du Livre has nothing to do with the arts of design in their application to household decoration; but it can at least show how these also could be grouped together, and how instruction in them could be made at once mechanical and artistic. The technical school is needed to-day to counteract the narrowing influence of modern methods of work, when what used to be a task for one man is divided among many, and the individual workman spends years in producing over and over again an infinitesimal part of some great whole. Thus the man who goes into a machine-shop may devote his life to making cylinders, and yet never know how to make a piston-rod or a boiler. The artisan from the École du Livre would probably pass all his years either at the compositor's desk or the press, either engraving on wood or binding books, for even the socialist or fourteenth-century maniac cannot get rid of the modern exigencies of work; but there is no doubt that even if he were but of average ability, he would work with an intelligence and an appreciation of everything relating to his trade not often found in the ordinary printer's apprentice. This intelligence is exactly what is needed in every modern industry. And so long as industrial conditions remain unchanged, only by the establishment of schools upon the same basis can it be developed. It is not enough to master the tools of a trade; they should be used with clear and intelligent understanding of their scientific and artistic relations. When this fact is recognized in England, and not before, will the problem of technical education be satisfactorily disposed of. Art congresses held every year, or every month, will never accomplish what has been quietly done by M. Magnuski and the authorities of Paris and the Department of the Seine.

Correspondence.

THE INDIAN MESSIAH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recent excitement at the Sioux agencies on account of the "Ghost" or "Messiah" dances must have become a matter of grave consideration to every reflecting mind within our boundaries. The settler seeking for lands upon which to plant his home; the capitalist on the look-out for new investments; and the taxpayer who will be called upon to foot the bill for the hurried massing of troops or the accumulation of supplies at the points supposed to be menaced by the concentration of excited dancers, will all feel a very natural desire to know what it all means. There have been numerous reasons assigned for the holding of the Messiah dance, but to none of them do I care to refer in this letter, which is written merely to call your attention to the immense influence still exerted upon the minds of the aborigines by the medicine-men, and to start the inquiry, Are there no means by which such influence can be lessened or destroyed?

The medicine-man of the American tribes is not the fraud and charlatan many people affect to consider him; he is, indeed, the repository of all the lore of the savage, the possessor of knowledge, not of the present world alone, but of the world to come as well. At any moment he can commune with the spirits of the departed; he can turn himself into any animal at will; all diseases are subject to his incantations; to him the enemy must yield on the war-path; without the potent aid of his drum and rattle and song no hunt is undertaken; from the cradle to the grave the destinies of the tribe are subject to his whim.

I could fortify my own observations with the remarks of such men as Sahagun, Landa, Boscana, and others who passed their lives among the tribes to the south of us, and who recognized the fact that the life of the Indian rested upon his religion, and that the medicine-man was the one individual in the tribe whose actions and motives must be understood and frustrated. But nothing that I could say, nothing that any one could say, would change the national indifference to all that relates to the inner life of our interesting savages. Well did Francis Parkman say that Spanish civilization crushed the Indian, English civilization *ignored* and *despised* him, French civilization embraced him. We know very little, if any, more about our Indians to-day than the Dutch did in New York when, on account of a senseless scare, they massacred a lot of peaceable Indians near Du Fauw's Ferry several centuries ago.

These medicine-men, doctors, priests, or wise men—by whatever name they may be called—are of great importance to the aborigines. If a horse has been stolen, they consult the medicine-man; if a raid has been threatened by a hostile band, the medicine-man can sing and prevent it; have the rains failed, the medicine-man can make more; has scarlet fever carried off any of the children, has whooping-cough swept down upon young and old, has the measles seized upon infant boys and girls, the medicine-man knows the song, the charm, the amount of singing and bathing and painting and dancing requisite for driving them away—or, if his incantations cannot drive them away, then he can point out the wrinkled old crone who has rendered them all abortive, and whose death must expiate the crime of being a witch. He can talk in the depths of his stomach, he knows all the tricks of jugglery similar to those at which the heathen priests of Rome laughed in their sleeves in the first years of the Christian dispensation; he knows everything.

We may shrug our shoulders and talk about quackery and lament the superstition of deluded men and women and children, but that will not bring the problem any nearer solution. We must break down the power of the medicine-men, and no effort is too great or too small to effect this. We must do just as the French were obliged to do with their tribes in Algeria, when they sent Houdin, the wizard, to work among them, and show that the medicine-men of the French could do more even than those of the Kabyles boasted of being able to do. Such a thing has already been done with excellent results among the Sioux themselves at their Sun Dance, in 1881, but as it was done by a volunteer and not under Government auspices, perhaps the experiment did not meet with the fullest success. There was a strolling "magician" who asked me to allow him to go with me to the Sun Dance at that time, as he thought it would do the Sioux good to see what a white "medicine-man" was capable of performing. It is hardly worth while to say that when the Sioux warriors saw their biggest medicine-men smacked with full force on one cheek and a ten-dollar gold piece knocked out of the other—or saw a great warrior, like "Little Big Man," wrenched violently by the nose and another gold piece pulled out of that important organ—they were amazed, and began asking themselves the question, Why couldn't their medicine-men do the same and make all the tribe rich?

The remedy suggests itself that we should take up the whole matter of the medicine-men with earnestness and intelligence, and do our utmost to remedy the mental condition which permits their existence, whether as a premeditated or an unintentional menace to the frontier. At Carlisle and Hampton there should be introduced an elementary course which, if it did no more, should give an inkling of the advances made in electricity, chemistry, the use of the solar spectrum, microscope, telescope, and other instruments, the power of steam, and other forces which the white man has harnessed to do his bidding. For the more capable scholars, there should be a supplementary course in rudimentary therapeutics, or household medicine, so as to render them independent of the medicine-men of their own tribe. When a scholar returns from one of our Indian schools, he at present finds himself instructed in some handicraft, and able to read and write pretty well, but he is still no match for the vaunted pretensions of the medicine-men, who leave to him the knowledge of the material world, but retain for themselves the mysteries of the supernatural.

Wherever the tribe is found to be so deeply rooted in its old ideas that its members will insist upon sacrificing chickens, sheep, and horses upon the death of great chiefs or medicine-men, or upon the appearance of epidemics,* let care be taken to supply them with little figures of paper representing such animals, and they will soon learn to regard the symbol to be of as much value sacrificially as the live creature, and very soon the symbol itself will disappear; but, whether it does or not, the In-

* When an epidemic of scarlet fever proved fatal to many of the Apache children some years ago, the medicine-men advised that sacrifices be made over the graves, and not less than two thousand sheep were killed by the infatuated survivors.

dian will still hold his property and be on the road to wealth, which means conservatism, peace, and prosperity. The use of symbolic or substitutive figures in sacrifice has prevailed, and does still prevail, in many parts of the world—among Chinese, Thibetans, Mongols, negroes, and others. The Abbé Huc gave a very interesting description of what he saw of this sort in the snow-clad peaks of the Himalayas in 1844.—Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOHN G. BOURKE,
Captain Third Cavalry, U. S. A.

NOVEMBER 28, 1890.

A HOUSE DIVIDED AGAINST ITSELF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Within twenty-four hours of each other two pamphlets have reached my table from the Department of Agriculture—the Second Annual Report of Secretary Rusk and the Statistician's Report on the Yield of Crops per Acre.

The Secretary deems it his first duty "to congratulate you [the President] and the country at large upon the generally improved outlook in agricultural matters." After referring to the agricultural depression at the opening of the Harrison Administration and the attention given to the matter by Congress, he announces with fervid eloquence that "The cloud which seemed to rest gloomily upon American agriculture has been lightened, while the wise, economic legislation already secured holds out still brighter promise for the future." He then gives a comparative table showing the increase in price of a number of agricultural products, which he attributes largely to the increased tariff rates recommended in a former report.

So much for the Secretary. I open the other pamphlet, and am told on the very first page that the average yield of corn for the current year is the lowest ever reported, except in 1881, and that the yield in 1889, the year chosen by the Secretary for comparison, *was nearly one half larger*. The shortage for this year, it is said, is principally "in the corn-surplus States." Reports from the corn-growing States tell the disastrous story in detail. In one county the crop has suffered "all possible drawbacks"; in another are "half-filled ears, soft and unmerchantable"; in another, "damaged by excessive rains"; elsewhere "by midsummer drought"; elsewhere, "by frost"; elsewhere, "by worms"; here, "by hot winds"; there, "by hailstorms in August," etc., etc., for almost five dreary pages.

We turn to the report on potatoes, and find the lowest average, with two exceptions, ever reported, with an acreage so small as to make the actual supply per capita "smaller than in any recent year." These facts, in the opinion of the statistician, "amply warrant the advance in prices now ruling in all markets." He thinks, also, that the recent change in customs duties may check the large importation which these facts would prognosticate; which means, thanks to McKinley, that the poor will go hungry for potatoes, their staple dish, with no gain, either, to the masses of the farmers who have none to sell. The mind of the thinking man will go back to the time of the Corn-Law agitation, and draw a few interesting conclusions.

But to return to the statistician: "The season has been the worst for fruit that this Department has ever reported"; tobacco shows "a return somewhat below the average for the last decade"; buckwheat is lower than last year, and sorghum "reports a poor yield" in "its favored region." For hay, "the season was in the main favorable," while of cane-sugar alone it is said that "the crop will be a large one."

Is it simply "the irony of fate" that the Secretary's Report should be followed so closely by so crushing a refutation from one of his own subordinates? Or is it a terrible scheme against the "American system," concocted by the fiendish emissaries of the Cobden Club? Has it come to this, that a part of an Administration supposed to be devoted to the most rock-ribbed protectionism ever known has been bribed by British gold to betray American institutions? A Congressional investigation of the Department of Agriculture should be moved by McKinley, seconded by Cannon, and passed by the Speaker on the very first day of the approaching session.

AGRICOLA.

NOVEMBER 28, 1890.

MORE MISUNDERSTANDING OF THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The country weekly press is still copying the report of the interview with Mr. Chauncey M. Depew sent out by the Associated Press on the day after the recent election. Mr. Depew endeavored to explain the causes of the political cyclone, and, as usual, had a little story to relate, but his story evidences that he is only familiar with the title of the McKinley Bill and not with its contents.

He tells us that, "all over the country, prices are going up or going to go up because of the McKinley Bill, and generally on articles which were not affected by that measure." Now comes the story: Some friends of his went to New York to buy a piano, and were told that they had better buy one at once, as pianos were going to increase $100 in price because of the McKinley Bill, "*though as a matter of fact pianos were not in the new tariff.*" Mr. Depew has probably never read or heard of the famous section 215 of the new law, which reads: "Manufactures, articles, or wares, not specially enumerated or provided for in this act, composed wholly or in part of iron, steel, lead, copper, nickel, zinc, gold, silver, platinum, aluminum, or any other metal, and whether partly or wholly manufactured, 45 per cent. ad valorem." The fact that one very seldom hears of any other pianos but those of American make does not correct Mr. Depew's error.

I notice a request by Mr. Thos. W. Smith in last week's *Nation* for the names of Republican firms announcing the rise in prices since October 6. It would be easy to fill a column with names. I shall only state that the Central Stamping Co. of New York, the largest manufacturers of tinware in the world, whose president is an ardent Republican and protectionist, has repeatedly advanced its prices since October 6, so that its present schedule is more than 40 per cent. higher than it was before the Tariff Law was passed.

Apropos of Mr. Smith's inquiry concerning pearl buttons. A salesman recently told a retail merchant, evidently a "dyed-in-the-wool" Republican, that next season certain kinds of over-shirts used by workingmen and farmers would have vegetable-ivory buttons in place of pearl buttons as heretofore. "Don't let me hear any more of that nonsense," was the reply; "if they don't like the buttons, let them do without the shirts." S.

ST. PAUL, MINN., November 22, 1890.

A PROBLEM IN McKINLEYISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: After reading your remarks on the "Republicans and Science" in No. 1325, I am reminded of a proverb which provides for the giving of his due to the power not ourselves which does not make for righteousness; his name being excluded from respectable journals. The McKinley Bill, for some reason or other, has helped science by allowing books published in languages other than English to be imported without tax. Why was this provision made? If your remarks are correct, there could have been no intentional provision for poor scholars. Two solutions occur to me, but both may be incorrect. Perhaps the American language is to be protected from the English, so that we may build up a language of our own. This cannot be adequate, for there is no money to be made in manufacturing an American language. But why cannot we see a bid for the Chinese and Italian votes here? Will not the un-Americanized foreigner see a delicate compliment to his native land in this provision? Who can tell or who can explain? M.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY, November 22, 1890.

PARTISAN USE OF CENSUS EMPLOYEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That the appointments of census-enumerators were made by Republican politicians for the benefit of the Republican party, is of course generally understood; but the shameless way in which these men, while doing census work, were also required to do party work, is perhaps not so well known. I am informed by men high in Republican councils that the State of Indiana was polled for the Republican State Central Committee by the census-enumerators when they took the census. Each one carried a special polling-book, and he was nominated by the chairman of the county committee with especial reference to that work, "though, of course, good men were always named." Presumably this was done in all the States, but I am sure only with regard to this one. This poll of the States at Government expense, one would think, should have lessened somewhat the need for assessments of Government officials.

In another case that has come to my knowledge, the use of the public funds was even more direct. A subordinate officer in the Census Bureau at Washington, who did not feel able to pay the expenses of a trip of 2,000 miles or more, home and back, to vote, was assigned work in the field and given tickets, properly enough, at the expense of the Government, to his new field of labor. He was expected to stop on his way thither and vote, and did so. To enable him to do this, however, the route followed in going to his new position was no more direct than to go from Washington to Indianapolis via Boston, with a halt for a day or two with old friends at some village in northern New Hampshire.

This carrying of polling-books by enumerators, and the devious ways by which they reached their fields of work, are enough, I think, to explain the curious returns without charging poor Superintendent Porter, who has a good many very hard things to explain, with deliberately issuing orders to make the returns in Democratic strongholds small. J.

INDIANA, November 24, 1890.

ANOTHER EFFECT OF PENSION LAWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to mention another "effect of pension laws." In a small town in the State of Indiana lives an old soldier who, for some

years, has made a living by selling candy and sweet stuff at a street corner, and, as a general thing, was fairly sober. Under the new pension law he was allowed, as back pay, some three thousand dollars, which he gayly proceeded to drink up among like-minded friends and old soldiers enjoying similar windfalls. After leading a merry life for some months, the money ran out, and our friend is now in much the same state as of old, with nothing to show for his "back pay" except an increased love for strong waters. B. G.

PITTSBURGH, PA., November 24, 1890.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a depreciatory outcome of pension legislation, your correspondent, "E. A. B." of Washington, Ga., cites the case of a woman in his section, the widow of a soldier in the war of 1812, who receives a pension on account of her deceased husband, and is now living with a man to whom she is not married, and who gives as a reason for her conduct that, if she was married to the man with whom she is living, it would discontinue her pension. The recent extravagant pension legislation of Congress is exceedingly objectionable, but there is no remedy for it in indiscriminate criticism. Section 2 of the amendment to section 4702 of the Revised Statutes, passed August 7, 1882, provides that "the open and notorious adulterous cohabitation of a widow who is a pensioner shall operate to terminate her pension from the commencement of such cohabitation." The amendment referred to applies alone to widows of Union soldiers in the War of the Rebellion. E. W. BAGBY.

PADUCAH, KY., November 25, 1890.

MASSACHUSETTS IN THE LAST ELECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial of this week on "The Popular Voice in the Elections," you say: "But the vote at the Congressional election of 1886 cannot be taken as a basis for comparison with the vote of 1890, for the reason that the tariff issue played a very small part in that contest." This is undoubtedly true of the election of 1886 in New York and the West, but in Massachusetts the tariff was made the most important issue in that election, and four Democratic Congressmen were elected, as against one in the election of 1884. The tariff fight was notably vigorous in the Third District, where Ranney, who had been elected in 1884 by four or five thousand Republican majority, but on a tariff-reform platform, and who had voted against the consideration even of the Morrison Bill, was defeated by Leopold Morse by a majority of over two thousand.

A comparison of the Congressional vote of Massachusetts in 1886 and in 1890 will show, I believe, that the Republican stay-at-home vote this year was not abnormally large, and that in Massachusetts, as in Iowa and Illinois, many Republicans have burned their bridges and have voted for Democratic Congressmen on the tariff issue. MUGWUMP.

BOSTON, November 29, 1890.

FRANCE AND ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your Roman correspondent writes, in his letter of October 17 (*Nation*, p. 340): "It is a fact well known in official circles, though denied with derision by the French journals, that two years ago France had planned an attack on Italy, etc. . . . I have sufficient information from the highest official sources to leave no doubt of its reality."

I can only wonder that such absurd talk can have found its way into your columns. Saying this, I do not mean in any way to put in doubt the insight and good faith of your correspondent, but only to call attention to the atmosphere of misrepresentations and extravagant fancies which seems to be that of certain political circles in Italy. I showed the passage of "W. J. S.'s" letter to a well-informed statesman, who simply shrugged his shoulders in reply, and I hardly believe that any competent judge of our foreign policy would answer in another manner. There is no more foolish idea than the belief that France, with her present Government and Constitution, can wage war at a day's notice to surprise an unprepared neighbor. A war against Italy, if it were not wholly defensive, would be so unsupported by public opinion in France that a minister who should take *one* step towards that result would not hold his portfolio for a week.

I must add that the very unfriendly tone of your correspondent's letter with regard to France, whose natural sympathy for Italy and love for peace he deliberately ignores, can only affect an unprejudiced looker-on as the echo of hostile feelings which, prevailing in Italian official circles, have fortunately not yet spread over the Italian people at large.

Truly yours, SALOMON REINACH.

CLEOPATRA'S COMPLEXION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I see that Mme. Bernhardt is playing *Cleopatra* in a mahogany-red wig, with her skin stained copper color (*your* correspondent says "auburn" as to hair and "brown" as to skin). I suppose this is in accordance with the rule that *Othello*, a *Moor*, must wear wool, instead of hair, and smutch to the blackness of the negro. Cleopatra was, as you know, a Greek by blood, descended in the eighth degree from Ptolemy I. (Soter), the reputed son of Philip of Macedon, the honored and trusted half-brother of Alexander the Great; hence, although an Egyptian queen, she was not of the Egyptian race. While she may have worn royal Egyptian robes, she herself, physically, must have possessed the characteristics of the Aryan—at least a *white* skin, and, possibly, blue eyes and golden hair. Now, under these circumstances, will not one of the several "Cleopatras" at present about give us the Queen in all the splendor of *Aryan* beauty?

C.

Notes.

ESTES & LAURIAT have in press, in connection with the Browning Society of London, Robert Browning's 'Prose Life of Strafford,' with an introduction by S. B. Firth and preface by F. J. Furnivall.

A former secretary to Mr. Ruskin, Mr. W. G. Collingwood, has been allowed to compile, edit, and publish as much of the former's poetic productions as may be deemed worthy of preservation. The sole volume of 1850 will be nearly doubled in size, and a chronological arrangement will be observed. Twenty-five plates from unpublished drawings by Mr. Ruskin will be inserted. Three editions will meet a variety of tastes.

W. S. Gottsberger & Co. publish directly 'The Elixir, and Other Tales,' by Georg Ebers, translated by Mrs. Edward Hamilton Bell—an authorized edition with the author's portrait.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'The Story of My House,' by George H. Ellwanger.

'The Heart of the Golden Roan' is the title of a poem of action which D. Lothrop Co. will shortly bring out. It is by O. C. Auringer, author of 'Scythe and Sword,' who is engaged upon a story of the navy entitled 'The Enchanted Marine.'

'How to be a Pastor' is the title given to a practical work by the Rev. Theodore L. Cuyler, now in the press of the Baker & Taylor Company.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert are about to issue a paper-covered edition of 'An Appeal to Pharaoh,' a fantastic "solution" of the Southern problem, which, we are now told, was written by Mr. Carlyle McKinley, one of the editors of the Charleston *News and Courier*.

The J. G. Cupples Company, Boston, will soon issue 'Aunty's Elfin Land,' a fairy tale, by Mrs. Maria Hildreth Parker, sister-in-law of Gen. B. F. Butler.

Ginn & Co. have assumed publication of a little work hitherto issued by another Boston firm, changing the title ('Bedside Poetry') to 'Good-night Poetry,' as being unambiguous. This anthology is offered as a "parents' assistant in moral discipline" and as an aid to the cultivation of the literary taste in children, the selections having purposely been restricted to a high grade of verse. Its present publishers think its usefulness not limited to the home circle, and accordingly recommend it to teachers and the class-room.

A sixth edition of the 'Mikado's Empire' is being issued by Harper & Bros. Dr. Griffis's work has held its own during fourteen years, and has been a quarry for most bookmakers in the same field since it first appeared. It has now three supplementary chapters, on Japan in 1883, 1886, and 1890, the history being brought down to August in this memorable year of the trial of parliamentary government. Thus renewed, the work enters upon a fresh career of popularity at home and abroad.

The author of 'Vice Versa' and 'The Tinted Venus' has a secure place among English humorists, but his longer efforts have not escaped a certain monotony and even tedium. In the character of an overhearer and reporter of public conversations, Mr. Anstey, as the columns of *Punch* have demonstrated, is at his best. The collection he has just made under the title 'Voces Populi' (Longmans) is capable of affording lasting amusement, and some of these mirth-provoking scenes and dialogues are well adapted to being acted on the private stage. Such, for example, is "Third Class—Parliamentary," which takes place in a smoking compartment between a suburban tradesman and a "seedy but burly Stranger," or the unsurpassable discourse of guides at show places. Political satire finds a subject in "Trafalgar Square" and "Sunday Afternoon in Hyde Park"; social satire in "At a French Play," "Picture Sunday," "At a Wedding," "Choosing Christmas Cards," and in many other of these two dozen snatches; while the British tourist is hit off to the life in "At a Highland Table d'Hôte," "At a North British Hydropathic," "On a Trip to Staffa and Iona," etc. Mr. Anstey has been particularly fortunate in his illustrator, Mr. J. Bernard Partridge, who has a genuine eye for types of man and womankind. The book is beautifully made.

Mr. John Ashton's forte lies in the selection of antiquarian topics fit for some one to make a book out of. His native ability to work up his own material is very inconsiderable, and there is hardly one of the many expensive volumes he has brought out which is not open

to censure for its literary execution. His lack of orderliness, of scholarly precision, of a good English style, is very apparent in the latest, 'Curious Creatures in Zoölogy' (Cassell Publishing Co.). It is a handsome volume, with a great store of illustrations, and confusedly deals with real and with mythical curiosities, with giants and pigmies, Amazons, tailed men, cyclops, chimæras, krakens, leviathans, harpies, sphinxes, pelicans, salamanders, the barnacle goose, etc., etc. All sorts of authorities, from Darwin to Marco Polo, Pliny, Herodotus, and Homer are drawn upon with very great indifference to particularity of reference. The odd figures are also very imperfectly accredited, and Mr. Ashton resorts to his favorite practice of tracing from the original instead of giving a photographic facsimile and retaining the character of the copied drawings. Such a medley may afford a certain degree of amusement or mental dissipation if taken piecemeal; otherwise it is well calculated to excite either fatigue or irritation.

A Berlin journal which, like the *Nation*, has just celebrated its quarter-century, has made an interesting souvenir of its career, 'Zum fünfundzwanzigjährigen Bestehen der *Modenwelt*' (New York: International News Co.). This fashion magazine attained in ten years a circulation of 30,000 copies (since swelled to 165,000), began at once to be printed in three languages in as many countries, and is now issued in fifteen. All this is related, together with details and cost of production, titles of works published in connection with the magazine, and an account of a Pension, Widows' and Orphan Fund established by the founder, Mr. Franz Lipperheide and his wife, for the benefit of their employees. Facsimiles of the several editions of the *Modenwelt* and of a century of fashion plates are succeeded by a bibliography of fashion journals 1798–1865.

Present-day interest in Brazil is scarcely ministered to by the doing into English, at this late day, of Mme. Toussaint-Samson's 'A Parisian in Brazil' (Boston: James H. Earle). The narrative is vivacious, however, and bears the stamp of sincerity in its account of a state of things now past. The funny French-English of the translation—the translator is Mme. Toussaint-Samson's daughter—is put forth in the most serious good faith, but almost deserves classification with "English as she is wrote."

Dodd, Mead & Co. publish, for the holiday season, 'A Marriage for Love,' by Ludovic Halévy, translated by Frank Hunter Potter, and profusely illustrated by Wilson De Meza. The story is charming, the translation capable, and the illustrations clever and pleasing. The decorations of the printed page are noticeably good, but the same ones should not have been repeated throughout. The book is in paper, but is provided with an outer cover in old figured silk as well as with the regulation box. It would make a pretty Christmas gift or a still prettier wedding present.

Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole, whose 'Life of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe' appeared two years ago in two volumes, and was reviewed by us at the time, has considerably cut down the bulk of the work, "chiefly by the omission of the longer despatches and memoranda," and without sacrifice of anything of general interest. Thus reduced, and compressed also in the printing, the Life makes a single volume of a "Popular Edition" just issued in good style by Longmans, Green & Co. Less than four hundred pages are advantageously substituted for the thousand that could only be read by skipping.

We are requested to state that the privately printed 'Memoir of Algernon Sydney Sullivan' has, in response to numerous requests, been put on sale at Brentano's, No. 5 Union Square, at the price of one dollar. It contains portraits of Mr. Sullivan, and, besides a sketch of his life, the tributes, civic, legal, and clerical, to our late well-known fellow-citizen.

"The Whole World Kin" is the sub-title appropriately given to a biography of the late Rev. Nathan Brown, D.D., one of the scholarly American missionaries who in two countries of Asia have reflected lustre upon the country from which they were sent. Descended from the same ancestral stock as John Brown of Kansas and Harper's Ferry fame, and reared on a New Hampshire farm, Mr. Brown went out in 1833 to Burma as a Baptist missionary. Quickly learning the language of the country watered by the Irawadi and the Brahmaputra, he became a pioneer in Assam, building up schools, translating the Bible, furnishing the elements of a Christian vernacular literature, and serving in the itinerancy and pastorate as a missionary and factotum, until 1855. His linguistic work in grammar, lexicography, and translation has been generously acknowledged by Max Müller. Though his general methods are now looked upon as old-fashioned, if not obsolete, yet much of what he did remains as solid foundation upon which others have built and may build. From 1856 to 1872 he was editor of the *American Baptist*. Under appointment of the American Baptist Missionary Union, with restored health, and having remarried, the veteran sailed for Japan January 6, 1873, and in Yokohama at once began the mastery of the Japanese language. His knowledge of Sanskrit and the southern Asiatic languages gave him an immense advantage, and at his death on January 1, 1886, he had, with native assistance, translated the entire New Testament, and seen the formation of eight churches with 800 members. His version of the New Testament in Japanese is far from being invulnerable to just criticism, especially in his employment of supposed equivalents for the demonology of the Bible. Nevertheless, his work has distinctive merits of its own, and is of permanent value. He had a robust common sense that served him well at all times. The biographical volume prepared by his daughter is an octavo of 606 pages, with portraits, but without index (Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.).

Reprinted from the New York *Ledger*, with revision, condensation, and manifest improvement, Mr. W. C. Kitchin's story of Portuguese Christianity in Japan in the seventeenth century now appears in book form from the press of Robert Bonner's Sons. Mr. Kitchin is a Harvard graduate who spent three years, from 1882 to 1885, at Nagasaki, within sight or easy reach of the scenes made memorable by the great insurrection of 1637. Accurate as a rule in historical and geographical perspective and detail, the author's plot is light, and the treatment of character is scarcely more than upon the surface. The use of modern words such as *tempo*, a brass coin first struck in 1830 and named after the chronological period then inaugurated, and of *sampan*, the "pidgin" English term for boat, is anachronistic. The author never saw a Japanese crucifixion in which bamboo, ropes, and impaling spears, without nails, constituted the apparatus of torture. There are several other decidedly un-Japanese conceptions and phrases attributed to the native Christians and pagans, but on the whole the author has made a story that is full of brisk movement and perhaps well suited to his *Ledger* readers. In revising it, however, the name has been changed to 'Paoli, the Last of the Missionaries.' In its improved form, it is well worthy of a place in the libraries as illustrating a stirring phase of the contact between European and Asiatic civilization in the seventeenth century. The numerous illustrations are interesting, not as works of art, but as the attempts of Occidental draughtsmen to represent the far-Oriental visage, dress, motions, and scenery. Naturally, the features emphasized and even exaggerated are those in which native Japanese artists would proceed to the opposite extreme.

It was worth while to collect from Roman Catholic newspapers of the last forty years the reports of speeches, and addresses, and replies of Cardinal Newman on various occasions, as is done in 'Sayings of Cardinal Newman' (Catholic Publication Society). Some of them are so good that they must have been taken down verbatim, or have followed a manuscript, but they are very unequal, the first, "About Poetry," being one of the best, and "Accepting First Praise" being one of the worst, mean-spirited in its harsh contempt for the Church from which Newman had seceded, and false in asserting that never before 1851 had he received any praise. "On the Pleasant Care of Boys" is such a happy title that what follows disappoints. There are others "On What a Cardinal Ought to Be," his literary standing, his trepidation as an author, and so on, thirty-three items in all. There is a frontispiece, from a photograph taken shortly before Newman's death, and pathetic in its sorrowful senility.

The edition of Dr. Edersheim's 'Jesus the Messiah' which now appears in holiday dress (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), is considerably abridged from the two-volume edition of 1883, and Dr. Sanday frankly confesses in his preface that "much has been lost which constituted the peculiar and unrivalled excellence of the larger work." This was its collection of materials illustrating Jewish life and belief in the time of Jesus. The scholar, therefore, will still go to the first edition, checking the author with Hausrath's admirable book and the exhaustive five volumes of Schürer. As a life of Jesus the book is a harmonistic combination of the Gospels, and its apologetic method allows but few concessions to the criticisms of contemporary scholars. The attempt to make a beautiful Christmas volume is only partly successful. The paper is so thin that the print shows through, and the illustrations, photographic reproductions in the main, are generally the least admirable in the case of famous pictures.

The writings of James Russell Lowell (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are now completed with vol. v., Political Essays, and vol. vi., Literary and Political Addresses. They will be not the least prized of the ten. Earliest in point of time is the ineffaceable judgment of the American Tract Society (1858) for its subserviency to slavery. The Rebellion and Reconstruction and the Seward-Johnson Reaction conclude vol. v.; vol. vi. opens with the sage and optimistic defence of Democracy delivered in 1884, to English auditors. This is followed by other utterances abroad, mostly literary, and then by those addresses in America revisited which earned Mr. Lowell the cordial hatred of the Republican Machine—the Harvard Anniversary address, in President Cleveland's presence and to his honor; the hardly less signal Boston Tariff-Reform address; and the New York address on the Independent in Politics. These are permanent contributions to the political high thinking of the age; and they link Mr. Lowell with Emerson as poets whose prose could hardly less well be

spared than their verse, and who have no American superiors in either.

The *Andover Review* for December prints the first of two papers entitled "The Preludes of Harper's Ferry," based upon note-books of John Brown in the possession of the writer. The earlier note-book covers the period 1838-1845, when John Brown was, as he styled himself, a "Practical Shepherd" in Ohio. Examination of its contents is accompanied by constant reference to Sanborn's Life of Brown; and the discussion tends to disprove negatively the legend propagated by that work as to Brown's having conceived at a very early period his plan of attacking slavery by force, and having shaped all his adult life towards it. In fact, it would not be incorrect to say that in this paper John Brown is made to sit in judgment on his own biographer.

The January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* will be awaited with interest, as it tells of a happy discovery by Mr. John Ward Dean of the name of the lady who rejected Roger Williams's suit, before he came to America. She was, it appears, Jane Whalley, a sister of the regicide who took refuge in Connecticut, and a first cousin both of Oliver Cromwell and of John Hampden. She afterwards married the Rev. William Hook, and came to New England, residing in Taunton, not far from Williams in Providence.

We have received the first two numbers of the *Salem Press Historical and Genealogical Record*, July, October, which we commend to all who are interested in Essex County, Mass., its history and its families. It has no novel features, but it seems to have a good excuse for existence.

The October number of the *Asiatic Quarterly Review* contained a very interesting article on Semitic eschatology by Dr. Édouard Montet. Though the author is better known among us by his exhaustive researches in Waldensian literature, he is Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Geneva, and his true vocation is as an Orientalist. By a comparison of texts he establishes the virtual identity of the Assyrian Arâ'û with the Hebrew Sheôl (the limbo of darkness), where the Ékimmu, or Rephâim (the shades of the dead) exist, but do not live. The only Phœnician inscriptions throwing light on the subject indicate a similar belief in that branch of the Semites. The development of the theory of a future life and retribution Dr. Montet does not ascribe to Mazdean influence, but to Hellenic—the Platonic doctrine of the soul being adopted and modified by the Semitic idea of the dependence of the soul on the body, resulting in the evolution of the dogma of the resurrection. Through Judaism and Christianity belief in immortality was transmitted to the Arabs and was adopted by Mohammed, thus disseminating the Greek idea throughout the world. It is not likely that the last word has been said on a topic so suggestive of discussion, and on which new light may be thrown any day by the discovery of additional inscriptions; but Dr. Montet's familiarity with all existing sources and his careful balancing of probabilities render his thoughtful paper an exceedingly valuable contribution to the literature of the subject.

—In the Christmas *Harper's* the series of Abbey's designs for "As You Like It" is not in accordance with the common imagination of lovers of Shakspere—of this there can be little doubt; but they are not therefore deprived of their interest or in some instances of attractiveness. The picturing of Shakspere is not unlike the acting of the plays, in that each cultivated reader has, as Mr. Lang says of himself, "a vision of his own," and hence is unsatisfied with the interpretation of others, though he may learn from them and must tolerate them. Mr. Abbey's *Adam* and *Jaques* are not to our mind, but to say why would take us into dramatic criticism. Mr. Lang, in his comment, is unusually felicitous, and writes with a certain abandon to his own love for the play, and with an absence of his merely clever vein, which makes his eulogy wholly charming, while he touches always with good taste and excellent judgment upon many of the points raised or suggested by Mr. Furness's recent Variorum edition. Besides this Shakspere series of cuts there are several others, the most important of which are the Californian scenes in connection with Mr. Warner's text, the Rossetti and Burne-Jones pictures, and the house-interiors in connection with Mr. Child's account of the London mansion of Mr. Leyland, and the Japanese illustrations to Pierre Loti's paper on "Japanese Women." All of these are noticeably excellent in one or another way, and the reproductions of the works of the "Pre-Raphaelites" have a more permanent value. The criticism of Mr. Child is of the slightest, but he succeeds in giving a more exact account of the two painters whom he deals with than is usual, as to both their temperament and genius; and the interest of his article lies much more in this than in his catalogue of the decorative pieces and furnishings of this noted London house. This number, as is commonly the case at this season, is largely occupied with short stories of several varieties, but with a tendency to the homespun. There is but one poem, by Mrs. Fields, and this is not a Christmas ballad.

—The December *Atlantic* brings to an end the interesting series of papers upon the translation of the greatest foreign poets in Greek, Italian, and German, with Mr. Andrews's discussion of English versions of 'Faust.' A final note upon each article also appears in the "Contributors' Club." The example of Goethe, in the present paper, is treated with less fulness than is desirable, and calls for no comment. The three articles are, taken together, noticeable for the width of the subject, inasmuch as the hexameter, *terza rima*, and broken rhyming chorus, none of which have flourished in native English verse, are all included. The impracticability of translation is the one thing which is brought out in each case, though none of the writers has insisted upon this or assigned reasons for it with any clearness. The inferiority of the translator to the original author in power of expression is, of course, the sufficient reason for failure by itself, but beyond this the great distinction between them, in that the poet is preoccupied with the ideas and the translator with the form, makes an insuperable difficulty. The poet is not hampered or confined or compelled by the form, he is its master; the translator is, on the contrary, its slave. In other words, the power of translation is the inverse of that of creation, and success is not to be expected; it is not unlike the habit of writing imitative verse after some reigning poet, such as Tennyson, with the added difficulty of using another's fixed thought. The result never rises above minor poetry, so far as expression is concerned; and unless the translator be himself a poet, and puts his own voice and melody into the work, the result is usually minor poetry of a particularly insignificant kind. The story, the intellectual contents, may be given; the expression of the original, the art, cannot be transferred to the new work except that sometimes enough may shine through to show us the "archangel ruined." This would be still more apparent if the authors selected had been those whose sense of form was most refined, such as Virgil or Petrarch. The proof is perhaps most evident in the fact that translations do not make the appeal to the mind that the originals do; they are read not for themselves, but for their fame. In the rest of the number we cordially recommend to our readers Capt. Mahan's thoughtful and comprehensive article on the world-relations of this country.

—*Scribner's* presents us with a novelty in the shape of a "Pastoral without Words," a series of twelve drawings by Howard Pyle, in which a complete story is told with grace and effect, with just that touch of unreality that belongs to the pastoral, and which is perhaps more easily achieved by the artist than by the poet or romancer in our time. It makes a delightful innovation in the resources of magazine illustration, and is the more pleasing because it has no superfluous verses tagged at the bottom of the page. The main paper is that which opens the number, the first of Sir Edwin Arnold's promised contributions upon his journey in Japan. We have had much writing in the magazines of late upon this theme, but each new author seems to find his own peculiar freshness of inspiration, unlike and yet the same with one another's, and here we have, as in the recent sketches of La-Farge, an individualized and poetical view, a eulogy of the softer aspects of social life and childlike qualities of the race, and a vigorous account of the landscape. The writer begins with a very full description of the place held in the nation's taste by flowers and of the art of arranging them, the associations attached to them separately, the courtesies springing out of their charm for the people; and in general he sets before us this single trait of the country as if he would make of it a note in which to pitch his whole work. He then attends to the landscape and climate, and gradually winds into the ordinary road of travellers. Kenilworth and Warwick Castle are made the occasion of a commonplace article by Mr. Rideing, and the auction-room of "Christie's" is employed in the same way, but with the advantage of more novelty in the matter and better handling by the writer. A more noticeable paper is the sketch, by A. F. Jacassy, of the works and career of the Neapolitan artist Morelli, who is little known, but whose place in the "new Italy" is so conspicuous that knowledge of him will be very welcome. The illustrations to this article do not seem to us up to the mark which is to be justly required in such a case.

—The *Century* opens with a generous instalment of early Californian history—a chapter on the period before the gold discovery, by Gen. John Bidwell, one upon the "Ranch and Mission Days in Alta California," by Guadalupe Vallejo, and two minor notes on American Trading and the Yosemite, making in all a very solid block of reading; but the romantic and half-foreign interest inherent in the theme relieves it from tedium, and the reminiscences of Gen. Bidwell, in particular, have that mild flavor of the early rude time of the first occupation which never tires the student of human life. Another American article takes up the story of our navy in its first brilliant era, and treats it with more minute and thorough consideration than it has hitherto received, not without gain to our knowledge and useful correction of misconception or of British error. The cuts illustrating this article are very

striking, and show the remarkable power of our magazines in handling designs on the page. The second article upon Thibet takes the reader across the Chinese border into a strange land, and, notwithstanding the novel scenes about Tankar and the religious seat of Kumbum, gives promise of still greater interest in the unknown country lying before. Of the remaining papers, the most curious is that entitled "The Record of Virtue," in which the ideas of some boys who had not been under the best conditions of life, are set forth in their own language and spelling, and in some instances their own chirography, upon the subject of the greatest or the kindest actions of which they had heard. Salvini contributes his support to the theory of acting which requires the actor to feel the emotion he assumes, and he gives very briefly his own method of studying his impersonations. The moral article is by Dr. Lyman Abbott, in advocacy of the doctrine that though a State must not have a church, a nation must have a religion. His way to the paradox lies through an identification of religious with moral life.

—A correspondent writes to us:

"Your reviewer of 'Modern Ghosts' does not mention the extraordinary awkwardness of some of the translations, and especially of those executed by Charles Flint McClumpha. Such phrases as 'thoroughly affrighted,' 'eyes staringly fixed,' 'or culled from the dish one of the choice fruits or little bonbons,' are not calculated to give pleasure to the reader; but when it comes to 'you dare not' (meaning you must not), p. 212, 'soon after *that* she had vanished in such a mysterious way, the bridegroom went below,' and 'he [Leb Narr] approached the miserable mother, and in a tone least becoming his general manner inquired' (meaning in a tone as little as possible in accordance with his usual manner), one cannot help wondering what hodge-podge of languages this may be. The fact that the translator bears the name of an instructor in a well-known college makes his incompetence for his task all the more remarkable."

—Under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture, Dr. C. Hart Merriam, Chief of the Division of Ornithology and Mammalogy, made a biological survey of the San Francisco Mountain region of Arizona in the summer of 1889. The results of his explorations are published in a bulletin entitled "North American Fauna, No. 3," which, in addition to the scientific descriptions of many new species of animals, contains interesting accounts of the physical features of that remarkable district. The summit of the mountain, a great volcanic cone rising to an altitude of 12,794 feet above sea-level and about six thousand feet over the desert plateau, possesses a well-marked Alpine flora, including, strange to say, no less than nine species of plants identical with forms brought by Greely from Lady Franklin Bay, in latitude 81 degrees north. The seven faunal and floral zones which Dr. Merriam recognizes on the mountain are neatly illustrated on several maps. His graphic account of one of the peculiarities of the storms and streams of that region is worth presenting to our readers. "Following the course of a gully or 'wash' across the Painted Desert, we saw a heavy rain-storm raging over the high mesas to the north and east during the entire afternoon of August 14, though not a cloud came between us and the parching sun. Before dark, a furious wind, the vehicle of a sand-blast, swept down the wash between the row of cliffs which mark its course, abating as night came on. About ten o'clock we were startled by a loud roaring in the North, which at first gave the impression that a severe storm was advancing upon us, but not a cloud could be seen, and the stars shone brightly in every direction. The roaring increased and came nearer until it was evident that something was coming down the bed of the wash; and in a moment a great wave of thick mud rushed past, with a tremendous roar, accompanied by a fetid stench. The first wave was about five feet high, but it soon rose to eight feet, where it remained for an hour, and then slowly subsided."

WOODBERRY'S ESSAYS.

Studies in Letters and Life. By George Edward Woodberry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

It is well for the public that these remarkable essays have been rescued from the periodicals in which they first appeared, and presented in a more permanent and accessible shape; it would be the greatest pity if, in the rush and glitter of publication that floods the season, they should be swept aside into some nook or corner of temporary oblivion. Brief as they are, there is nothing ephemeral either in their matter or their form. The beauty and distinction of their style, the wisdom and rightness of the opinions they express, entitle them to a longer lifetime than the allotted span of critical work. There was a time when the reviewer wielded a bludgeon like Polyphemus, and, like him, "cared not for strangers nor for the immortals." Mr. Woodberry does not belong to this ruthless race. The author of "Agathon" has a right to discourse of poetry, because he has shown a rare and refined gift of poetry; the author of that conscientious and painstaking piece of work, the 'Life of Poe,' in the "American Men of Letters" series, shows that he has the insight, the culture, the sympathetic spirit, the patient research which are necessary to the man of letters and the critic.

The range of Mr. Woodberry's interests and appreciation is remarkable. Spenser and Shelley and Keats are in the direct line of his poetic ancestry; and he writes of them with the complete and subtle understanding which might be expected of a spiritual descendant who has some strain of their blood running in his veins. But he also discusses with justice and discrimination the work of craftsmen so opposed in style as Landor and Crabbe; he can mention Scott without aversion; he treats of Mr. Pater's 'Marius' and the Pergamon Marbles, and of Darwin's Life; and, in a sympathetic sketch of the training and experience of Bunyan, he makes the origin of his gifts intelligible, and successfully combats a characteristic opinion of the late Mr. Arnold, who described the author of 'Pilgrim's Progress' as a "Philistine of genius." These widely diverse studies and appreciations are unified by the point of view of the author. At a time when realism is everywhere the mode, he has the courage to be an idealist; and at a time when we are urged to pursue art for art's sake only, he points us to the fact that nothing has endured in art and poetry which is not rooted in the soul of man and in his highest aspirations. How wholesome it is just now, for example, when so many ardent ladies, under the guidance of Mr. Gladstone, have been admiring without measure the journal of Marie Bashkirtseff, with its precocious talent, its selfishness, its inhumanity, its insatiable lust of fame, and its pathetic close, pointing nowhere, to be reminded of this sentence of Keats: "Women must want imagination, and they may thank God for it; and so may we, that a delicate being can feel happy without any sense of crime." Keats also, that English avatar of the Platonic spirit, had the artistic temperament in the highest measure, like this unhappy young girl whose fate resembled his; but his fame has in it the salt of a human and moral purpose which all her aims and aspirations lacked. As Mr. Woodberry finely remarks: "To other men beauty has been a passion, but to him it was a faith; it was the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things unseen—*a shadow of the reality to come.* . . . But although to Keats the worship of beauty in all things was the essence of his life, and the delight that sprang from it the essence of his joy, he did not find in these the whole of life." The critic reminds us once more that this Platonic soul, with his transcendental faith, could write in his later letters: "I find earlier days are gone by, . . . I find I can have no enjoyment in the world but continual drinking of knowledge. I find there is no worthy pursuit but the idea of doing some good to the world." "In this constant expansion of his view and faithful laying of his experience to heart; in the wisdom of his interpretation of what came within his scope; in a word, in his teachableness as well as in his steadier enthusiasm, his uncloyed sensibility, his finer spirituality," Mr. Woodberry discovers the promise of Keats; and, in the remarks we have quoted, reveals something of his own artistic doctrine and method of thought.

We find it impossible to resist further illustration of these, because nowhere of late have we seen distinctions so clearly expressed in a region where vague notions flourish and lead to endless hazy controversy. If we ask, for example, how Landor differed from the great poets, what better answer could be given than this?—"He did not bind his work together by the laws of his own mind; he did not root it in the truth, as he saw the truth; he did not interpenetrate and permeate it with his own beliefs, as the great masters have always done. . . . And so he became hardly more than a mirror of beauty and an Æolian harp of thought; if the vision came, if the wind breathed, he responded." If we ask, again, what constitutes the "classical" in literature, and what the "romantic," wherein did they differ, wherein did they excel, we are told with a clearness which illuminates the whole subject:

> "This self-effacement [of Landor's], this impersonality, as it is called, in literature, is much praised. It is said to be classical, and there is an impression in some minds that such an abdication of the individual's prerogatives is the distinctive mark of classicism. There is no more misleading and confusing error in criticism. *Not impersonality, but universality, is that mark;* and this is by no means the same thing differently stated. In any age, the first, although not the sole characteristic of classical work is, that it deals with universal truth, of interest to all men; and hence the poet is required to keep to himself his idiosyncrasies, his hobbies, all that is simply his own; . . . but the statement that Shakspere or Swift obliterated themselves from their works need only to be made to be laughed at. The faith of Æschylus, the wisdom of Sophocles, are in all their dramas: Anacreon is in all his songs, Horace in all his odes. . . . The classical poet usually perceives the object by his intellect, and makes his appeal to the mind; the romantic poet seizes on the object with his imagination, and makes his appeal to the heart."

The complete truth of all such definitions depends on the limitations with which they are presented, limitations which we must necessarily omit; but we are tempted to add one more gnome or maxim, not merely because it is perfectly expressed, but because it contains for the author the statement of a creed: "Art is, in a sense, a world removed from the actual and present life, and beauty is the sole title that admits any work within its limits. Of this there is no question. But that world, how-

ever far from what is peculiar to any one age, has its eternal foundations in universal life, and that beauty has its enduring power because it is the incarnation of universal life."

From such a declaration of faith it is natural to turn to Shelley, of whom Mr. Woodberry writes with his usual critical perception, warmed by the eloquence of a disciple as well as an admirer. The author of the "North Shore Watch" will hardly disclaim this attitude entirely. He is far from being bound to the formula of any master; yet his poetic creed undoubtedly approaches that of Shelley; and it is no disparagement to say that stanzas of the "North Shore Watch" in music and in sentiment reflect gleams of the "Adonais." Under these circumstances, it is natural that he, too, should feel "the charm which fascinated Shelley's familiar friends," and that his remarks should leave the poet's memory invested with a halo. For ourselves the halo is broken and dimmed by those artless letters of Harriet Shelley published more than a year ago in the *Nation*. Who that has observed the successful inequalities of marriage, and the impossibility of mating genius, can deny that, to all appearance, Shelley began better than Heine and Goethe ended? Who can maintain that a little good sense and decision would not have routed the household foe, if Mary Godwin had not made her appearance? But such conjectures are perhaps endless and idle. Our point is different, and it is this. It is not proved that the first marriage was necessarily unsuitable or necessarily a misfortune. It is far from proved that Harriet Shelley was unfaithful, though it is not unfair to say that Shelley made haste to believe her guilt, and, in doing so, let his passion steer him to his conclusions. It appears, too, that long after her death he was willing to repeat insinuations against his unfortunate wife, though, as far as can be discovered, his suspicions were unfounded. We grant that if allowance is made for Shelley's temperament and organization, almost any vagaries and errors may be excused in him. If he is canonized, he must be judged by ordinary standards. With all its reservations, Mr. Woodberry's estimate borders on canonization. We, too, are admirers, ready to be votaries, and awaiting full conviction. But we are troubled with scruples.

The brief appreciation of Browning is an interesting example of sound and penetrating judgment, pronounced while we were still in the thick of Browning circles and societies, and unsafe within the wind of their commotion. But our readers can turn back to it, and we need not dwell upon it.

In commenting on Darwin's Life with great fairness, acuteness, and good sense, Mr. Woodberry notes the curious deadening of the æsthetic tastes which the great man himself confesses—the gradual fading of his interest in poetry, in art, in landscape, and of his belief in religious subjects; and he inquires, not how much we have lost in Darwin through this, but how much Darwin himself lost. "Darwin's was a character," he observes, "which might well spare the humanities. The fact remains that he did spare them. What he lost was culture." The world at large will not regret this; and a genius so definite, so predestined, one may say, might well be permitted to narrow and concentrate its work and its faculties in the interest of science and of mankind. But the personal results of this narrowing process were so marked that they may serve as a beacon and a warning against the natural effects of exclusively scientific education upon the ordinary mind. The average mind is, on the whole, that with which education deals and with which it is concerned. The average intellect cannot expect to work the wonders in observation and generalization which were achieved by Darwin, but it may count on the same narrowing influence which he underwent from his special studies.

We cannot pursue these illustrations of idealism, and we can only allude to the survey of Italian Renaissance literature, which discloses a perfect understanding of the Italian race and a delicate perception of their national genius. *Ex pede Herculem* hardly holds in works of art; and we have no excuse for our extended quotations, except that they show the thoughtfulness of the critic, his openness of mind, how straight he goes to the heart of things, how unerringly "he strikes his finger on the place." With all this, Mr. Woodberry joins something more—the Puritan conscience and some grains of the mystic's faith. He refers us to certain old enduring standards—he still listens to those high voices of the spirit, "mächtig und gelind," which inspired all that survives in literature and art, but which are growing confused and distant to many of us in an earthy and "faithless generation."

WEBSTER'S INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY.

Webster's International Dictionary of the English Language; being the authentic edition of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, comprising the issues of 1864, 1879, and 1884, now thoroughly revised and enlarged under the supervision of Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D., of Yale University. With a voluminous appendix. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam & Co. 1890. Pp. 2,118, royal 4to.

THE many columns we have felt constrained to devote of late to notices, more or less elaborate, of different dictionaries of the English language, either completed or in course of publication, show how much of the literary activity of the day is employed in this direction, and how keen is the rivalry between the various competitors for public favor. The latest is this new edition of a well-known and popular work which requires no introduction at our hands. We shall, accordingly, only attempt to indicate, at no very great length, some of the particulars in which such an extended examination as we have been able to give to it has led us to regard it as a very decided improvement upon the earlier editions. The matter of orthography, unfortunately, is not to be counted in this category; and its fantastic method of spelling, which from the outset has been its chief blemish, has been retained. In all other respects it seems to us to record the standard usage of our language.

This substantial volume is a dictionary intended for popular use, rather than for the scientific student of words; and still less could the merits of an encyclopædia be claimed for it. But accurate scholarship at all points is evident throughout it, and fulness of illustration is nowhere wanting. In saying that it is intended for popular use we only mean to declare that in nine cases out of ten in which a dictionary is consulted, unless as a spelling-book, it is to learn the definition of a word. For this purpose convenience in use is essential, and therefore a single-volume dictionary must always possess a great advantage over those of larger bulk. Then the style of printing, shown in the typographical arrangement of the subject-matter, must be such as to facilitate a rapid mastery of the contents of each article. But something more than facility in handling and clearness of typography is needed for the ideal dictionary for popular use; and we venture to assert that in the four chief requisites of such a work, *completeness*, *accuracy*, *terseness*, and *perspicuity* in its definitions, 'Webster's International Dictionary' is equal, if not superior, to any similar work in the English language. All departments of knowledge, including etymology, in which the work has hitherto been admittedly defective, have been intrusted to competent hands. Illustrative wood-cuts have been introduced in abundance, and we have been struck by the good judgment displayed in their selection, and by the very decided improvement in this respect manifested in this new edition. It is clear that great pains have been taken to correct errors of definition that have been detected in the earlier editions, and to keep up with the multitude of new words that the advance of science, or other causes, are constantly introducing into our language.

The following are some instances we have noticed of improvements of this character: Under *academy*, the employment of this term for "a school, or seminary of learning holding a rank between a college and a common school," has been pointed out as a popular rather than a correct usage. *To sell bargains* is now defined as "to make saucy (usually indelicate) repartees,' instead of restricting its signification to the latter only. Mr. Trumbull's derivation of *caucus* from the Indian languages has been adopted instead of the former one, which regarded it as a corruption of *calkers'* [meetings]. Under *explode*, as an intransitive verb, the figurative signification of the word has been admitted, as, "his wrath exploded." *Grisette* is no longer restricted to "a young working-woman who is fond of gallantry," and the character of a large and deserving class is thus cleared from an unmerited slur. Under *lithophyte* the singular blunder of the insertion of a woodcut representing *Petricola pholadiformis*, as an illustration of its meaning, has been corrected. *Majolica* is now properly defined, and *phantomnation* has disappeared from the scene. We find the proper etymology of *rum*, from *rumbullion*, duly chronicled; as well as the technical significance of the word *signature*, used by printers. To *stale*, as an intransitive verb, is no longer marked as obsolete; in fact, we remember that Motley used the word in his 'Dutch Republic.' The erroneous definition of *tomahawk*, copied from Palfrey's 'History of New England,' has been set right. Finally, we notice that *bonanza*, *boodle*, *boycott*, and *mugwump* all duly appear in their proper places, adequately explained.

The following terms, however, in common use by writers upon archæology, are not to be found: *labret*, *terremare*, and *scarab*, all of which, we think, ought to be inserted in the next appendix that appears. We present also *Bowdlerize*, *heteroclital*, *puntpole*, and *to pull up stakes*, as deserving candidates for admission. We notice that the verb *disinteress* has been dropped from the new edition; but a word used by Bacon may have a claim to retain its place in the history of the language. It can be found in his 'History of King Henry VII.' (Spedding & Ellis, American edition, vol. xi., p. 120): "the higher bond . . . doth *disinteress* him of these obligations of gratitude." So, also, with regard to the expression *vale water*, as employed by Ralph Lane, in Hakluyt, vol. iii., p. 313, "the current runneth as strong . . . as at London Bridge upon a *vale water*." This is explained by the Rev. Edward E. Hale to mean "a tide running with the current of the stream," and it was long ago pointed out by

him as not recognized in the popular dictionaries ('Archæologia Americana,' vol. iv., p. 30).

Of recent coinage we would suggest for adoption *saugrenu*, which Matthew Arnold, in his essay on Joubert, calls "a rather vulgar French word, but, like many other vulgar words, very expressive; used as an epithet for judgment, it means something like *impudently absurd*." So, too, with the term *horse-breaker*, which is defined in the 'Imperial Dictionary' as "a female of the demi-monde; generally accompanied by the epithet pretty." If the editors desire any authority for its use, we would refer them to an epigram by the late Richard Grant White, "Horse-Breaker and Grey Mare," to be found in a note to the edition edited by him of Burton's 'Book Hunter,' p. 292, which begins as follows:

> "Aurelia, prettiest of horse-breakers,
> Caught Nobleigh, lord of many acres," etc.

One of the most useful of the many valuable appendixes to the work, which, we are informed, has been "carefully elaborated" and enlarged, is the Dictionary of Noted Names of Fiction, compiled by the late William A. Wheeler. Although, of course, it is impossible to define accurately what such a list should, or should not, include, we venture to suggest that *Dunciad* and *Laura Matilda* certainly ought to be found there, and we think that *Widow Bedott*, *Marquis Posas*, and *The Sacred Band* might very well be allowed a place. *George Dandin* is said to be the name of a mock judge, in Rabelais. But his name is actually Pierre (book iii., chap. xii, 38).

We will conclude this notice by pointing out the very few defects we have met with in the course of a somewhat extended examination of the work. *Amphitheatre* is defined as "an oval or circular building." This we consider misleading, and should prefer *elliptical* for *oval*, although *oval* is defined as "a body or figure in the shape of an egg, or of an ellipse," while *ellipse* is called "an oval or oblong figure." We are told that the *bronze age* is "characterized by the use of implements of copper or brass." Now the composition of copper and zinc, called brass, was unknown in the bronze age, but used in classic times; hence it is clear that *bronze*, which is an alloy of copper and tin, should be substituted for *brass*. Under *clam* a citation is made from William Wood's 'New England's Prospect,' but a wrong date is given to it, 1684 instead of 1634. The assertion that to *claim*, used in the sense of "to assert, to maintain," is only colloquial, cannot stand; the usage is common among good writers on both sides of the water. It is stated that *continent*, "that which contains anything," is obsolete; but it is found in Shelley, in "Epipsychidion":

> "True love never yet
> Was thus constrained; it overleaps all fence:
> Like lightning, with invisible violence
> Piercing its *continents*."

So too of *discretion*, in its original sense of *separation*; but it is used by Sir William Jones in his noble translation of Alcæus's ode, "The Fiend *Discretion*."

If it is thought best to insert *horn*, "the emblem of a cuckold," the use of the term should be traced as far back as possible. It can be found in the 'Oneirocriticon,' of Apollodorus, Lib. ii., chap. xii. Standing is allowed to the expression *the lay of the land*, although no authority is cited for it and no reference is made to naval usage; the English locution *the lie of the land* is also given. Under *namby-pamby* it ought to be stated that the name was originally given to Ambrose Philips by Henry Carey, as Mr Gosse relates in his account of Philips, contributed to Ward's 'English Poets.' It should also be stated that *nom de plume* is not a good French phrase. Both under *pander* and *Pandarus*, Chryscis is improperly substituted for Cressida. *Pentacle* is defined as "a figure composed of two equilateral triangles intersecting so as to form a six-pointed star." The derivation of the word shows that it could not have *six* points. Its true figure is given under *pentalpha*, of which it is a synonym. The illustration inserted for the word *prow* (of an ancient galley) is wrong, if by *ancient* is meant what was used by the Greeks and Romans. We have also noticed upon the page of illustrations to *Archæology—Stone and Bronze Periods* (which, by the way, are copied from Warsaæ's 'Nordiske Oldsager'), that what are there called *coronet of bronze*, *bronze breast-pin*, and *ax of deer-horn* would not be so denominated in the light of present knowledge. Under the word *rare*, in the quotation from Dryden, *with* should read *which*. We would call attention to a new derivation of *shanty*, proposed by Dr. Boudinot, in the *Scotch Review* (April, 1887): he says it is a corruption of *chantier*, used by the French Canadians. Under the word *stone* we find it asserted that *bowing-stone* is "the same as Cromlech. Encyc. Brit." No such statement can be found in the last edition of that work, and there is no authority for it. Finally, *sumptuosity* is said to be obsolete; but Froude uses it in the second chapter of 'The Two Chiefs of Dunboy.'

These are all the blemishes we have noticed in this noble volume, which, both in its design and its execution, reflects the highest credit upon all who have been concerned in its production.

A Russian Journey. By Edna Dean Proctor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Tsar and his People. Harper & Bros.

It is to be regretted that Miss Proctor's book was not subjected to a thorough revision before this second edition was issued. The illustrations cannot be regarded as satisfactory or first-class now, whatever they may have been considered twenty years ago; and the one which purports to represent the Assumption Cathedral in the Moscow Kremlin is, in reality, a very poor picture of a church on the Pokrovka, a mile away from the Coronation Cathedral in space, and equally distant in architecture. Amendments in the text would improve it. Each flight of steps at St. Isaac's Cathedral is not composed of a single stone; people do not kiss the ground when they bow low in church; in St. Petersburg the summer sun is not like a late afternoon sun in an American November; the Kremlin Palace is not built of marble; the nurse's costume and court-dress for ladies are not the same; kumys is not made as described. These are some of the changes we would suggest for the third edition. The book still possesses interest as a record of the manner in which things were done at a recent date, which has been rendered antiquity by Russia's progress, and it is written in an easy style, which makes it agreeable for light reading.

Equally agreeable reading and more satisfactory illustrations are furnished by the handsome volume entitled 'The Tsar and his People.' It is made up from the articles on Russia by various authors which have appeared in *Harper's Magazine* during the past three years. It is a pity that one of the most competent—that on the Russian Army—should not have been included. Incomparably the best part of the book is that furnished by the Vicomte de Vogüé on Social Life. He knows his subject; yet his memory betrays him occasionally, as it does in his work on Russian literature. For example, the Tsar who founded the Romanoff family, Mikhail Feodorovitch, is not buried in the Peter-Paul Fortress Cathedral, but in St. Michael's Cathedral in Moscow; priests must be married before ordination, not after, as here stated; and the picture on page 89, labelled "Officiating Priest," represents a Bishop, a personage who belongs to another order of clergy from the priests, and who wears very different vestments.

Mr. Child's contributions to the volume offer a good, superficial traveller's sketch of the prominent external points of country and people, over a limited area of observation. Naturally, it is the unpleasant features which are most apparent in Russia, as in other countries, to the hasty traveller. He has added some matter to the articles as they originally appeared, and has corrected some errors. Other errors have been overlooked. It is to be doubted, for example, whether he ever saw a gas-jet under a samovar; or men ringing church-bells with hammers; or only four horses to the carriage of the Iversky Virgin; or an image in every room of the palaces. He deplores the new look of everything, and the lavish use of the whitewash-bucket, being ignorant of the action of the climate on the stucco walls to which they are compelled to resort in the absence of stone, and the beneficial effects of whitewash and cleanliness upon health, which is sensibly preferred to picturesque antiquity in Russia. It is difficult to understand what Mr. Child means by "the semi-barbarous mistrustfulness of the existing regulations of the Hermitage," as opposed to "the liberal traditions of European museums." Entrance is as freely accorded to every one above the rank of an unwashed beggar as it is elsewhere in Europe. Peasants in their sheepskins may be encountered in the galleries, and the "court flunkies," far from dogging even these peasants, slumber tranquilly on their chairs, as a rule. Mr. Child evidently visited the Hermitage during the period in summer when it is closed to the public, but when foreigners are courteously admitted, and one attendant was held to a vacation responsibility which is divided among scores in the season.

Equally mistaken is Mr. Child's belief (p. 194) that the Tsar's movements are never announced in advance. The anticipated imperial presence at launches and reviews is frequently announced several days beforehand in the morning papers; the day and hour of all the Court ceremonies is not only known by every one, but is announced regularly, and throngs assemble to see the Emperor and Empress pass. If a great officer of the Court dies, every one knows when and where to watch for them at the prayers and funeral. The celebration which Mr. Child describes, where he saw the Tsar, furnishes an illustration: the Tsar's presence was announced long beforehand. Mr. Child's imagination, which caused him to see a peculiarity in the Empress's attitude in the carriage, misled him in this particular also. It is her usual attitude with whomsoever she drives—the Shah of Persia, the King of Greece, or her husband—and is assumed for the purpose of responding to salutes. The visit to the Caucasian provinces which Mr. Child states to have been "indefinitely delayed," was begun while he was still in the country, or just after he left it, if he made the usual four weeks' stay. It was well known for many months before that it would take place, and when it would take place,

Mr. Child was also misinformed in regard to the "six modest rooms" at Gatchina. On p. 270 the waiters who brought in the mutton are stated to be Tatars; but the picture on the next page represents four pure-blooded Russians. On p. 332, the "Imperial gates" in the ikonostas are designated as "the altar." The picture by Répine on p. 352 represents the Emperor receiving congratulations after his coronation at the Petrovsky Palace, on the outskirts of Moscow, not in St. Petersburg.

It would, perhaps, be unfair to criticise Mr. Child for believing implicitly all the stories which were told him. He had no time to investigate them, nor any knowledge of the language and people, which was indispensable. But we may state briefly that the sensational tale about Count Tolstoi's treatment of Loris Melikoff is apocryphal, since the two men never met; and that the still more exciting narrative relating to the plague is more curious than veracious. There was no plague. There was a scare, a learned opinion was given by a court physician (now dead), which subjected him to great ridicule; and the mysterious sickness was promptly cured by smashing the windows of the unventilated houses where it prevailed, and admitting fresh air. If we have dwelt at length on some details which may seem trivial to the general reader, it is because, in spite of their smallness in comparison with the good in the articles, they are precisely of the sort which are eagerly seized upon by prejudiced persons, to fortify their preconceived notions as to the land which it is the present fashion to abuse. On the whole, Mr. Child does justice to Russian painters and sculptors, somewhat neglecting the promise of Posen, however, in the latter category, while his hearty praise of Répine must be cordially endorsed by every one who is acquainted with the paintings here described and illustrated, and with the remarkable productions which he was engaged upon during Mr. Child's visit to Russia, but which the latter, evidently, did not see.

Mr. Clarence Cook's article on Russian bronzes is a clever résumé of a branch of Russian art with which the American public is probably more familiar than any other. We may add to his knowledge of his subject that Gentzburg is an Israelite, as well as Antokol-ky. It is a pity that he is not acquainted with some more of Gentzburg's spirited clays and bronzes, and with a certain dashing work by Posen of recent date.

Last of all comes the painter Vassili Verestchagin's delightful sketch of some points in the life of a Russian village. One can only regret that it is so brief. As it is, much reading between the lines can be done by one familiar with the subject, just as there can in the case of his paintings.

One word must be devoted to the illustrations. They are capital; but it seems as though acknowledgment ought to be made when, as in the majority of cases, they are drawn from photographs of places, or from photographed paintings by Russian artists, dealing with scenes which the illustrator could not have seen himself. These photographs are well selected, with the exception of the one entitled "Peterhof Palace." Of the palace, little but the church at one end is visible, the buildings in the foreground being merely the quarters of the suite. The volume is exquisitely got up in every detail of paper, binding, print, and general style, and will, no doubt, rank high in favor among the holiday books of the year.

Wild Beasts and their Ways. By Sir Samuel W. Baker. Macmillan & Co. 1890. Pp. xvi, 455, 8vo, with 28 illustrations.

To those who are not acquainted with the reputation of the author as a sportsman, the title of this book might be a little misleading, and Sir Samuel Baker in his preface makes haste to inform us that "the wild beasts are to be killed, and that we must thoroughly understand their ways before we can undertake their killing"; thus involving a practical study of natural history in a most interesting form. Naturalists and sportsmen alike will heartily applaud the opinion which is expressed in the following paragraph:

"It should be distinctly understood that a vast gulf separates the true sportsman from the merciless gunner. The former studies nature with keen enjoyment, and shoots his game with judgment and forbearance upon the principles of fair play, sparing the lives of all females should the animals be harmless; he never seeks the vainglory of a heavy game list. The gunner is the curse of the nineteenth century; his one idea is to use his gun, his love is slaughter indiscriminate and boundless, to swell the long account which is his boast and pride. Such a man may be an expert as a gunner, but he is not a sportsman, and he should be universally condemned."

The author begins by a retrospect, from his own experience, of the arms necessary for the destruction of wild animals, and the progress shown in their development during the last half century. He is a strong advocate, in the case of large and dangerous animals, of a heavy rifle carrying a two or three-ounce solid bullet of hardened alloy, or pure soft lead, according to the circumstances, propelled by nearly half an ounce of powder. We think he makes his contention good, though there is something amusing in the way in which this same bore of the gun and the weight of the charge is unfailingly specified on nearly every page, often in the very midst of the most exciting narrative. The work covers nearly all the large animals which form the prey of the sportsman in almost every part of the world. The classification of the animals is that of a sportsman, and not of a naturalist, as is shown in the comprehension of nearly all the larger cats, after the lion and tiger, under the head of leopards or panthers, and also in the treatment of the Cervidæ. On the other hand, there is never any difficulty in determining, in any special instance, what the species is that is under discussion.

As might be expected of such a veteran sportsman, the book fairly teems with anecdote, and the experiences recounted are often dramatic in the extreme. Literary style there is none except that inherent in straightforward narrative, with here and there a touch of rather grim humor. There is no taint of exaggeration, of self-glorification, or attempt at "writing up" the situations involved. If the writer errs at all, it is on the side of brevity and laconicism. The military manner pervades it all. In dealing with his chosen topic we regard this as an extraordinary virtue, for it alone preserves so large a collection of hunter's stories from the tediousness which is the inevitable result of the continuous use of superlatives.

The book is not only very interesting for the general reader if taken in moderate doses, but contains a vast number of facts which the student of wild animals will prize as a contribution of real value to the biography of the creatures referred to. Especially is this the case with the less-known animals, such as the hippopotamus and the Indian buffalo. We think no naturalist will lay the book down without learning something new to him and much that he could have learned in no other way. The rapid disappearance of the majority of large game, even in Africa, lends another element of value to Sir Samuel's original observations.

The illustrations by H. Dixon are hardly worthy of the book, either in design or engraving. The boar in the tailpiece at the end appears to have been copied from a mould in ice-cream. In other respects, however, the manufacture is in keeping with the reputation of the publishers.

Longmans' School Geography for North America. London and New York: Longmans & Co.

THIS is one of a series of geographic books which the London house is publishing. It was written by Chisholm for use in England in 1886, and has been revised and rearranged by Leete for use in this country. It is in octavo form, without maps, which will be presented in 'Longmans' New Atlas,' now in preparation. The closing paragraph of the prospectus is much closer to the opinion of the reviewer than such paragraphs usually are: "This text-book adapts itself to pupils of intelligence, and will be highly appreciated by all teachers imbued with a spirit for teaching real geography, not attempting to supersede their functions by dictating the length of the daily tasks or the questions that shall be asked, but furnishing a body of material so selected, arranged, and presented that its perusal is at once pleasurable, suggestive, and of substantial value." This is perfectly true. The description of the United States is novel in omitting special accounts of the several States, and taking together regions of more natural boundaries instead; and the plan works well, although it involves the previous use of a geography especially prepared for the student's own State. The student who uses the book is assumed to be already well acquainted with the State boundaries and the chief towns; he is therefore prepared to consider the actual relations of the natural subdivisions of our country, as here presented. Especial attention is given to the reasons for the location of towns and cities. Local peculiarities characteristic of districts and towns are well selected, and are not so dry as is too often the case in school-books. Thus, of New Orleans, it is said that the streets are four feet lower than high water in the Mississippi, and hence the drainage leads away from the river and not into it; for the same reason the cemeteries there are unique in having no graves, but tombs of stone or brick instead, built above the surface. Scranton and Wilkes-Barre are in a valley so rich in coal that six great railways have forced their way into it. Various styles of type are employed to emphasize the difference between headings and details; population is indicated partly by size of type, and also by numbers in parentheses giving the round thousands, according to recent censuses.

The book opens with fifty pages of physical geography, from and to which frequent references are made by foot-notes. There are, indeed, too many such notes. The introduction is good, but it is more distinctly English than the rest, and it is clearly not the special province of the authors, being more open to criticism than the remainder of the book. For example, there is a vagueness about the treatment of certain topics which one may always use as tests in geography: neap tides are described as "very low tides," which every scholar must misunderstand; the belt of high atmospheric pressure around the tropics is in-

correctly ascribed to the crowding of the equatorial overflow on the converging meridians; and the effect of the earth's rotation in deflecting the winds is very imperfectly explained. This, with more of the same kind, shows a less critical acquaintance with physical than with descriptive geography. The illustrations are varied and generally well selected; but some of the geological diagrams are much below the general standard of the book, and nearly all the wood-cuts show signs of age. There is a very good index, filling thirteen pages.

As to the adaptation of the book to our schools, there seem to be slight traces of foreign origin that could be removed to advantage. In the physical introduction, the examples might be more often American. London has an undue prominence in the latitude diagrams. Slight lapses from complete accuracy occasionally appear in the long chapter on the physical features of the United States: the folded beds of Pennsylvania are said to be mostly of the carboniferous period; Niagara is said to plunge over the northern edge of the Appalachian plateau, and a curious confusion of geological dates is found in the association of the glacial confluence of our great lakes with the vastly more ancient submergence that furnished the salt deposits of Michigan and New York; but these, again, are aside from the directly geographical topics. On the whole, the book is remarkably successful—the most successful attempt that we have seen to prepare a geography for our schools on the basis of a foreign original, and much better adapted to use in this country than some of the other publications by the same house.

From Yellowstone Park to Alaska. By Francis C. Sessions. Welch, Fracker Co. 1890. 8vo, 186, ix. pp.

From the Land of the Midnight Sun to the Volga. By Francis C. Sessions. Welch, Fracker Co. 1890. 8vo, 167, xi. pp.

The Wonders of Alaska. By Alexander Badlam. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co. 1890. 2d ed. 8vo, x., 148 pp.

MR. SESSIONS'S books appear to be the private notes or correspondence of an average traveller, printed without proper editing, and with an astonishing number of typographical errors of the most obvious kind. Their interest can hardly extend beyond the circle of the author's family and friends, and in matters of fact inaccuracies are too numerous to be specified. A serious review of such publications is hardly called for, and they may be dismissed with the remark that the value of the contents is in inverse ratio to the elegance of the printing and binding.

Mr. Badlam's volume is evidently intended for the use of the summer tourist on the now fashionable Alaskan excursions. For this it is well fitted. The illustrations are excellent—nothing equal to them has appeared in any of the recent publications on the Territory; and the subjects selected for illustration are fresh and unhackneyed. The text contains nothing novel, but is a fairly interesting presentation of the data required for such a guide-book, and it is provided with an excellent series of small maps covering the route of the steamers. For the entertainment of his readers Mr. Badlam has included some stories, such as the account of the apocryphal "Silent City" and other visions alleged to have been detected in the mirages about the Muir Glacier, as well as certain references to living mammoths in the interior of the country, which as hoaxes are hardly amusing enough to have been embodied in a book, while it is not within the range of probability that any one should take them seriously.

Notas de Viaje. (Colombia y Estados Unidos de América). Por Salvador Camacho Roldan. Bogotá: Librería Colombiana. 1890.

IT is not often that we are called upon to see ourselves as we appear in the Spanish-American mirror. Guillermo Prieto has written at length of his travels in the United States, and more recently a volume has appeared from the pen of Ireneo Paz on the same subject; if there have been other works of the sort lately issued by a South American publisher, the total lack of literary commerce between the two halves of our hemisphere has prevented any notice of them in this country. Now comes Señor Camacho Roldan with a substantial addition to the meagre list, a book of 900 pages, more than one-third of which, however, is taken up with his journeyings in Colombia and the Isthmus. His route in the United States led him from New Orleans to Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, New York, and Washington. His chapters are very largely filled with an account of his itinerary, historical matter drawn from the most obvious sources, a mass of commercial and industrial statistics, together with some remarks on our larger questions of the day. The whole betrays more the commendable industry of a compiler and reader of our daily press than serious study and close observation. Our social life, our public and private manners, our municipal governments, our literature, are matters scarcely touched upon. The author, it is true, faithfully serves notice in his preface that his book will be found to contain only superficial and random notes, so that it would not be fair to judge him by too high a standard. What he writes about us is conceived in all too admiring a spirit, and the fear will lurk in the breast of the judicious reader that if he had known us better, he would not have praised us at just the points he did.

As bearing on questions at present much discussed, we may cite his opinion that our manufacturers who are seeking a market in South America are indulging in a "false hope" if they think they will be given a sentimental preference over their European competitors. The author also believes that the Pan-American Congress principally served to emphasize the blindly selfish nature of our public policy. In Pittsburgh he was shown articles of glassware the price of which seemed to him very high; some months afterwards he saw the same things in Paris, exhibited as American products, and priced at surprisingly lower figures. This may perhaps be written in Spanish without being called a "lie" or a "conspiracy."

Far West Sketches. By Jessie Benton Frémont. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1890.

MRS. FRÉMONT'S vivacious and familiar sketches of incidents in her strange life have hitherto been welcomed, and in the present little volume she does not fall at all short of the first requisite in books of the sort, the power to be entertaining. Here she has collected a few incidents of California life when she was living near a mine which her husband had charge of, in the days before civilization had been established in the region. The most exciting adventure is that in which "the League" attempted to "jump" the Colonel's mine, but were foiled by a young English boy staying with the family, who stole away on his pony over the mountains and brought help from a neighboring community and established communication with the Governor. In this the element of disorder and danger is vividly and simply brought out; but more pleasing sketches illustrate the womanly character of the author, who made a home in that wild country which was a source of benevolence and an example to all about. Her accounts of the Christmas feast, of the camping out, with the warning from the friendly Indian chief of immediate danger, or the escape from the Chinese village on the gallop; and in particular the power with which Mrs. Frémont seizes the salient traits of individuals and photographs them on the page—are excellent. The poor whites, the wild Kentuckian, the faithful servant, the whole varied human nature that gathered into every eddy of the first invasion of California, are set before us as they were in a single typical settlement.

The truth of such plain and unpretending reminiscences is worth much to the reader who would know something of the ways of Western life, and Mrs. Frémont is herself an example of what hold a woman had on the heart and respect of the poor women and rough men. The whole volume, though small, is a large chapter out of real life on new and most interesting terms. Perhaps we should add that students of "thought transference" will find a case here in which Mrs. Frémont believes she had a message from her husband at a critical moment of his career, when he was thousands of miles away.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. F. Richard Henry Dana. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
American Sonnets, Selected and Edited by T. W. Higginson and E. H. Bigelow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Anstey, F. Voces Populi. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Atkins, F. A. Moral Muscle. Fleming H. Revell. 50 cents.
Austin, Jane G. Dr. Le Baron and His Daughters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Balch, Elizabeth. Glimpses of Old English Homes. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Bissell, Mary Taylor. Household Hygiene. N. D. C. Hodges.
Bonvet, Marguerite. Sweet William. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Brackett, J. R. The Negro in Maryland. Baltimore: N. Murray.
Breton, J. The Life of an Artist: An Autobiography. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Century Magazine (May-October), 1890. The Century Co.
Clark, Prof. W. Savonarola: His Life and Times. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Cleveland, Cynthia E. His Honor; or, Fate's Mysteries. The American News Co. $1.50.
Coffin, C. C. Freedom Triumphant. Harper & Bros.
Cordner, Elizabeth P. Christmas Stories and March Violets. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Cunningham, H. S. Wheat and Tares. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Du Bois, Constance Goddard. Martha Carey. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Edersheim, Rev. A. Jesus the Messiah. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $7.50.
Everitt, W. Thine, Not Mine. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Fasnacht, G. E. Macmillan's Course of German Composition. Macmillan & Co. 65 cents.
Gladstone, W. E. The Impregnable Rock of Holy Scripture. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles. $1.
Glazebrook, M. G. Lessons from the Old Testament. London: Percival & Co.
Goldsmith, O. The Vicar of Wakefield. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Gomme, G. L. The Handbook of Folk-Lore. London: David Nutt.
Griswold, W. M. Travel. 2 vols. Cambridge: W. M. Griswold.
Gronlund, L. Our Destiny. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Gwatkin, F., and Shuckburgh, Evelyn S. Aeschines. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Haggard, H. R., and Lang, A. The World's Desire. Harper & Bros.
Hall, H. S., and Stevens, F. H. A Text-Book of Euclid's Elements. Macmillan & Co. 70 cents.
Harper's Young People. 1890. Harper & Bros.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Flower de Hundred. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.
Hoyt, D. L. Handbook of Historic Schools of Painting. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Hunter, W. W. Rulers of India: Warren Hastings. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Huntington, J. V. The Forest. P. O'Shea.
Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, the Talmud Babli and Yerushalmi, and the Midrashic Literature. Part iv. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jewett, Sarah Orne. Strangers and Wayfarers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Johnson, Elizabeth Winthrop. Two Loyal Lovers. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.
Johnston, R. M. Widow Guthrie. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Kingston, W. H. G. A Yacht Voyage round England. Fleming H. Revell. $2.

Kirk, Ellen Olney. Walford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Körner, G. Das Deutsche Element in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika. New ed. E. Steiger & Co.
Lang, A. The Red Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lockyer, N. The Meteoritic Hypothesis. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Lowell, J. R. Writings. Vols. V., VI. Political Essays; Literary and Political Addresses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Mary, J. The Shadow of Roger Laroque. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Masson, D. The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. XIII. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black.
Matthews, G. F. Manual of Logarithms. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Moore, T. The Epicurean. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Morris, C. Civilization: An Historical Review of its Elements. 2 vols. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Munro, J. Pioneers of Electricity. London: The Religious Tract Society. $1.40.
Murray, W. H. H. How John Norton the Trapper Kept his Christmas. Boston: DeWolfe, Fiske & Co.
Ober, F. A. The Knockabout Club in North Africa. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Ogden, Ruth. A Loyal Little Red-Coat. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $2.
Oman, C. W. C. A History of Greece. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Pfleiderer, Prof. O. The Development of Theology in Germany since Kant. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Pocket Volume of Selections from the Poetical Works of Robert Browning. Scribner & Welford. 40 cents.
Reade, C. Christie Johnstone. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Representative Sonnets by American Poets, Selected by Charles H. Crandall. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Rits, J. A. How the Other Half Lives. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Robinson, W. C. Introduction to Our Early English Literature. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.
Robinson, W. C. Shakspere: The Man and His Mind. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Rogers, W. T. A Manual of Bibliography. Scribner & Welford. $1.75.
Sand, G. The Gallant Lords of Bois-Doré. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
Sand, George. The Haunted Pool. With 14 etchings by Rudaux. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Savings of Cardinal Newman, New York: Catholic Publication Society.
Schmauk, T. F. The Voice in Speech and Song. John B. Alden. 75 cents.
Scott, F. N. The Principles of Style. Ann Arbor: Register Publishing Co.
Seawell, Molly Elliot. Little Jarvis. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Shaw, W. A. Materials for an Account of the Provincial Synod of the County of Lancaster. Manchester: Manchester Press Co.
Shaw, W. A. Minutes of the Manchester Presbyterian Classis. Part I. Manchester, Eng.: The Cheatham Society.
Sidney, Sir P. Certain Sonnets from Arcadia. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Sime, J. Geography of Europe. Macmillan & Co. 80 cents.
Smalley, G. W. London Letters, and Some Others. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Sociology. Boston: James H. West. $2.
Spalding, T. A. Education and the Higher Life. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Stahl, P. J. Maroussia. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Stearns, L. F. The Evidence of Christian Experience. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
St. Nicholas. Vol. XVII. The Century Co.
Stoker, B. The Snake's Pass. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Stretton, Hesba. The Doctor's Dilemma. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Sullivan, G. H. Memoir of Algernon Sydney Sullivan. New York: Brentano's. $1.
Sumner, Prof. W. G. Alexander Hamilton. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Sybel, H. von. The Founding of the German Empire by William I. Vol. I. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Taylor, S. A System of Sight-Singing from the Established Musical Notation. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
The Bookworm. 3d series. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
The Century Dictionary. Vol. IV. The Century Co.
The Journal of Sir Walter Scott, from the Original MS. at Abbotsford. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Thomas, Bertha. Famous or Infamous. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Thompson, D. G. The Philosophy of Fiction in Literature. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Story of Wisconsin. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Tolstoi, L. The Romance of Marriage. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Tolstoi, L. Work While Ye Have the Light. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Tolstoi, L. Work while Ye Have the Light. The Waverley Co. 25 cents.
Totten, C. A. L. Joshua's Long Day. New Haven: The Our Race Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Toussaint-Sampson, Mme. A Parisian in Brazil, Boston: James H. Earle. $1.
Tupper, Edith S. By Whose Hand? United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Tupper, F. A. Echoes from Dream-Land. Shelburne Falls, Ma s.
Upton, Mrs. Harriet T. Our Early Presidents, Their Wives and Children. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Valentine, Mrs. The Old Fairy Tales. Frederick Warne & Co. $3.
Van Rensselaer, Mrs. John King. The Devil's Picture-Books. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Verne, J. Cæsar Cascabel. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.50.
Vincent, J. H. A Study in Pedagogy. Wilbur B. Ketcham. 60 cents.
Wallace, W. Life of Arthur Schopenhauer. A. Lovell & Co. 40 cents.
Warden, Florence. Missing—A Young Girl. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
White, Margaret E. A Sketch of Chester Harding, Artist, drawn by his own hand. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

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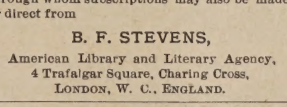
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 11, 1890.

The Week.

THE passage by the House of the Copyright Bill by a good majority shows, as the passage of the Civil-Service Law had already shown, the folly of despairing of the triumph of a good cause. The passage of the bill in the Senate is, of course, not absolutely certain, but it is almost certain. The Copyright League are entitled to high praise and hearty congratulations on this result of their courage and persistence in the face of all kinds of discouragement. The debates have been very interesting in bringing to light the curious ideas which prevail in some parts of the country about literary property, but they are ideas which one naturally expects to meet with among those who have never known anybody who possessed literary property, or made any money out of it. The notion that there can be property in the expression of ideas, has owed its acceptance in every country to familiarity with the spectacle of authors receiving money from publishers. People who are not familiar with this spectacle are to this day puzzled by the author's objection to having his language reproduced and sold by somebody else. Those whose opposition to the bill was based on the fear that international copyright would make foreign books dearer, we feel sure will, two years hence, be unwilling to recall this particular objection. The gain for American fame and moral influence throughout the civilized world through the passage of the bill will be very great.

"Thank heaven, the Senate is still a deliberative body!" Such must be the exclamation of every thoughtful person who follows the discussion of the Force Bill which has just been opened in that body. This extraordinary measure was rushed through the House by "the American Bismarck" at such lightning speed that the public was not permitted to learn all of its outrageous features, and the Senate debate furnishes the first opportunity for that careful consideration which is so imperatively demanded. The feature of Friday's proceedings was a forcible speech from Mr. Gray of Delaware, who laid especial stress upon the domiciliary section, so called. This section provides that a Federal supervisor of elections (to be selected as a "discreet" man) may make a house-to-house visitation to inquire as to names, politics, nationality, etc., of the male inmates. Mr. Gray fitly characterized that official as "this czar that is to be, this satrap of a province;" and said with entire truth that, "in all the measures which provoked and goaded our ancestors to resist the tyranny of the British King, there was none that approached the infamy of this provision." It is astonishing to learn that Mr. Edmunds of Vermont defended such a proposition. Mr. Teller of Colorado admitted that Mr. Gray's denunciation was none too severe, and even Mr. Hoar of Massachusetts seemed to be ashamed of it, and admitted that the Senate Committee had felt constrained to strike it out of the Lodge Bill as "the American Bismarck" sent it over.

The vote of the Convention of the Farmers' Alliance, in session at Ocala, Florida, protesting in decisive language against the passage of the Force Bill, has struck the Republicans in Washington full in the face, and they have begun with one accord to tell each other that the Alliance is an adjunct of the Democratic party, and that the action taken at Ocala was prompted by the Democratic leaders, etc., etc. Looking at it in this light, they say that they shall not abate one jot of their earnestness in pushing the bill through. On the contrary, they will drive it along all the more vigorously. So be it. They will drive to their own destruction all the more rapidly. There is not a scrap of evidence to show that the Alliance is an adjunct of the Democratic party, or that its opposition to the Force Bill has been inspired by Democratic politicians. In the West an influential section of the Republican press is quite as much opposed to the Force Bill as the Alliance itself, and it is quite as fair to say that the latter has been inspired by Republican newspapers in Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, and Illinois as to say that it has been prompted by Democratic Senators in Washington. But the air of defiance which the followers of Messrs. Lodge and Hoar have set up against the Ocala resolution is "all put on." The action of the Alliance has given them a severe shaking up. The Force Bill is weaker among its pretended friends than it was before. It will encounter pitfalls in unexpected places as it goes along, and if it finally passes it will go a long way to bring about a community of feeling between the Alliance and the Democrats which would not otherwise exist, or certainly not to the same extent.

Senator Gorman on Monday made some excellent remarks, as far as they went, on the financial situation. Although they came in incidentally as a pendant to a speech on the Force Bill, they served a good purpose, first by showing that there is a subject of vastly greater public interest at this moment than any party question, and secondly by stating that the minority party of the Senate would gladly coöperate with the majority in measures for financial relief without seeking to obtain any partisan advantage therefrom. Mr. Hoar, who seems to have eaten of the insane root that takes the reason prisoner, would have nothing of the kind. He insisted that the debate on the Force Bill should go on, and the Senate, in a bewildered way, but with evident reluctance, sustained him. Mr. Gorman referred to the action of the Secretary of the Treasury in offering to buy six millions of bonds, and actually buying eight millions. This, he said, was only a drop in the bucket. The eight millions would disappear as rapidly as the great disgorging of Treasury money last September had disappeared. There are two measures of relief that would not be drops in the bucket, but would be whole buckets well filled, and fortunately neither of these would cost anything. One is to *repeal the Silver Bill*. The other is to amend the National Bank Act so as to save the system from the process of slow decay that has been for years, and is still, withering it away. Repeal of the Silver Bill is the most important, because that will restore confidence in the standard of value. Hoarded gold will then come out of its hiding-places, and with it will come the confidence which represents ninety per cent. of the exchanges which pass daily through the banking institutions of the country. So, and not otherwise, shall we recover the confidence of European capitalists, who have it in their power to send back upon us a perfect avalanche of our securities.

That "fool of a bill," the McKinley tariff, contains a clause (perhaps we should say another clause) which is producing great confusion in business. It is in these words:

> "Sec. 6. On and after March 1, 1891, all articles of foreign manufacture such as are usually or ordinarily marked, stamped, branded, or labelled, and all packages containing such or other imported articles, shall be plainly marked, stamped, branded, or labelled in legible English words, so as to indicate the country of the origin; and unless so marked, stamped, branded, or labelled they shall not be admitted to entry."

Probably the design of this clause was to prevent American dealers in hardware from selling pocket-knives manufactured abroad bearing their own stamp on the blades as an advertisement. The American manufacturers of pocket cutlery have been pushing for a measure of this kind during several years, but they did not want to show their hand by restricting the provision to their own particular wares. So the clause came out of the Committee in the shape of a general act. And now the dealers in hosiery, for example, want to know whether each pair of stockings must be stamped with the word England, France, Germany, or Switzerland, as the case may be. Stockings are "usually" stamped with the maker's name, but not with the name of the country. Piece goods usually bear a label showing the quality and the number of yards, and containing a blank for the retailer to put his selling price on. Gloves are always marked with a number showing the size. Must all these things, *i. e.*, each separate one, because they are "*usually* marked, branded, stamped, or labelled," bear an additional mark showing the country where they are made? It is customary for the makers of chinaware to put a small device on the bottom of plates and cups and saucers, which buyers recognize as the

trade-mark of Dresden, Worcester, Derby, Sèvres, etc. Must each one of these be stamped with the word Germany or England or France, as the case may be? And must a Jurgensen watch be stamped "Denmark"? Fire brick usually have the maker's name stamped on them for the obvious reason that it carries a guarantee of quality. An importer of fire brick (the duty on which has been largely advanced by the McKinley Bill) recently asked the Treasury Department whether an invoice could be entered without having the name of the country stamped on each brick. He was informed through the Collector of New York that the sixth section of the bill was evidently not intended to apply to rough articles like fire brick. The degree of roughness allowed will constitute one of the delicate questions to be passed upon by the new Board of General Appraisers, but how soon they will get around to it is very doubtful, for the *Dry Goods Economist* tells us that the nine general appraisers appointed for the whole country "are unable to keep pace with the protests filed at New York alone." According to a *Tribune* despatch from Chicago, the Importers' Bureau of that city, numbering 300 members, has forwarded a letter to the Treasury Department asking a construction of the sixth section. To carry out literally the terms of the law, they say, is impossible.

The Collector of the Port has, we are sorry to see, waived the legal McKinley duty of 25 per cent. ad valorem on Koch's lymph. How, he may ask, ascertain the value? Certainly not by cost of production, for the cost of production cannot be got at. Nor can it be ascertained by analysis, for we have no chemist competent to analyze it. The composition is as yet Koch's secret. The value really lies in the effect the lymph produces, and this our Board of Appraisers are entirely competent, under the Customs Administrative Act, to fix for themselves. It seems to us this learned body cannot fix the value too high. We should say $1,000 a grain would not be too high, if the stories told about the curative powers of the lymph are true. At this rate it would either bring in a handsome revenue to our Government, or afford full protection to our domestic bacteriologists. If any one thinks this a low view to take of the matter, we would ask him to explain the object of this section of the McKinley tariff:

"(75.) All medicinal preparations, including proprietary preparations, of which alcohol is not a component part, and not specially provided for in this Act, 25 per cent. ad valorem. Calomel and other mercurial medicinal preparations, 35 per cent. ad valorem."

Now, one of two things is true: either this section was enacted with a thoroughly fiendish desire to prevent or make it difficult for sick and suffering people to procure remedies for their diseases, or it was enacted with the view of protecting domestic compounders of medicinal preparations. Common charity compels us to put the latter construction on it, and if this construction be well founded, the Koch lymph ought to be taxed at such a rate as to enable American bacteriologists to reap the large profits which Koch will reap (or, rather, might reap, were he bent on gain) by the sale of his article in this country. True, we have as yet no American lymph, but we shall have one soon, as good as Koch's, if not better, for surely the tariff will produce it. We cannot doubt this, after what all the great men in Washington tell us. They meant by section 75 not only to protect existing medicinal preparations, but all future preparations, from foreign competition. They meant, in short, to stop or hinder nasty, un-American, cheap cures. No self-respecting American, they maintain, would like to get rid of any disease, however loathsome or dangerous, at small cost.

The McKinley Committee of the French Chamber has agreed upon a schedule of duties on live stock and meat products. On beef the duty is 25 francs per 100 kilos, or $5 per 220 pounds. On salted pork the duty is 20 francs per 100 kilos. These rates are so high that the actual prohibition of American pork may, perhaps, be now removed without any benefit to us or any damage to the French swineherds. If it should turn out otherwise, the French McKinleyites could easily advance the duty, and no doubt would do so. When the new schedule goes into effect and the prohibition is removed, we shall look for some suitable expression of satisfaction on the part of Minister Reid, who contends that it is not high duties on pork that we object to, but the imputation put upon the health of our swine.

The Argentine Republic has gone into the protective-tariff business in a way that must delight the heart of McKinley, if imitation is the sincerest flattery; but it will, we fear, dash the hopes of Benjamin Harrison. The Buenos Ayres *Standard* brings us the text of the new Act, imposing duties on imports, decreed by the legislative body. It is avowedly protective, and largely so, although we have not found any items that match the McKinley duty on pearl buttons. This measure has been enacted by the Argentine Government since our tender of Reciprocity was made in the McKinley Bill. Turning now to President Harrison's message, we read that he considers the reciprocity clause, as it was passed, very skilfully adapted to secure the free admission of our products into countries producing sugar, coffee, tea, and *hides*. The Argentine Republic is a very large producer of hides, and we use more of them probably than any other country in the world. "This reciprocity provision," said the President, "is more than an offer. Our part of the bargain is complete: delivery has been made; and when the countries from which we receive sugar, coffee, tea, and hides have placed on their free lists such of our products as shall be agreed upon, as an equivalent for our concession, a proclamation of that fact completes the transaction, and in the meantime our own people have free sugar, tea, coffee, and hides." Exactly so. Now, about what time shall we expect that the Argentines will relax the provisions of this new protective tariff in order that President Harrison may not feel it incumbent on him to put a duty of one and one-half cent per pound on hides, and by so doing make Massachusetts permanently a Democratic State? This is a problem for the first class in logic.

South America has caught the infection of tariff revision, in the Republican understanding of the term, and higher rates of duty are announced as soon to be put in force in several countries. The Argentine Republic was earliest in the field with its new tariff, which, while based in some of its parts upon the country's need of a greater revenue, is, as we have said, also frankly protectionist. Now comes Brazil, with its rapid and effective way of putting laws in force by decree of the "Generalissimo" Fonseca—how Speaker Reed must envy him!—enacting from the 15th of November an entirely new schedule of customs rates. This new tariff comprises 1,085 articles, and shows in general a great advance of rates all along the line. On manufactures of woollen, cotton, and all clothing in general, the increase in tariff taxation is 20 per cent. Most silk goods, with gloves and manufactures of leather, go up from 10 to 15 per cent. The rates on furniture are augmented by 20 per cent. Flour and corn, potatoes, tea, beer, and many manufactures of iron and steel, remain as in the old tariff. The Government also proposes to revise its export duties, with a view to abolishing them in the end. The present export tax is about 11 per cent. on coffee, although 4 per cent. of this goes to the province where the coffee is grown; thus the central Government could remit only the 7 per cent. falling to its share. Peru, too, is to put a new tariff in force on February 1. It will interest the American hog to know that this tariff will put a prohibitory duty on lard. In general, it is clear that the South American republics are getting into fine position to dicker with Mr. Blaine.

According to the *Tribune*, the real object of King Kalakaua's present visit to the United States is to sell his country to the State Department. It appears that he and his subjects, though loving national independence much, love sugar bounties more. Accordingly, seeing that, under the McKinley Bill, American sugar-growers are to receive two cents a pound bounty on their sugar, the local arithmeticians have calculated what this would bring in to Hawaiian sugar-men were they American citizens, and find it would be about $5,000,000 a year. The people feel, according to the *Tribune's* correspondent, that to refuse such an offer as this for their country would in these hard times be madness, and they have accordingly sent their sovereign here to try to make a sale of the islands and their contents to Mr. Blaine. "It is believed that the Administration will receive Kalakaua's overtures with favor," because it would enable us to cover Hawaii with our tariff, and shut out "the European manufacturing nations." Kalakaua will, it is said, take "a tidy sum down, and

a moderate pension" for his kingdom, and his subjects will be satisfied with the sugar bounty. How they will like the high prices under our tariff when the European manufacturing nations "are shut out" of their market, does not appear. Nor is it yet known how long the sugar bounty will stand. But Hawaii would be a beautiful new State to make "blocks of five" in, and why should not Kalakaua be returned as a Senator to vote under the direction of Mr. George Hoar? As to the high prices, a short stumping tour from Speaker Reed and the Scholar next summer would clear the Hawaiian mind on that topic. With dear American clothes on, their whole nature would be elevated and ennobled.

John Wanamaker called attention in the Philadelphia *Press* of Monday to sundry bargains offered at his counter, and among other things said:

"This Dress Goods stock is the most varied in the world. Put with it the twin fact, *the cheapest*, and the result is that Holiday Dress Goods should be bought here."

The italics are Mr. Wanamaker's own, and they call more pointed attention to his offence against the new code of morals—a code thus summarized by a political economist of Philadelphia, Mr. Henry Carey Baird, on the 16th of October last:

"Cheapness is the fetish of the Englishman. Let us then have done with this cheapness and with its advocacy."

Is the Postmaster-General turning a free-trader?

There has probably never been a greater surprise in the way of bequests to educational institutions than that caused by the revelation that a leather merchant of this city, who died last month and who was entirely unknown to the general public, left more than two million dollars to a score of colleges and universities in different parts of the country; the sum given in most cases being $100,000. Outside of the "Swamp," in which Mr. Daniel Fayerweather passed his business life, his very name was never heard of, and his large wealth not only was unsuspected by people generally, but has proved a surprise to some of those who were long brought into trade relations with him. The discovery that an entirely obscure man has accumulated a fortune which enables him to leave $2,100,000 to educational institutions, and $95,000 more to hospitals, besides making ample provision for his relatives, is a startling illustration in itself of the growth of wealth in this country. In fact, one who notes the record of deaths day by day cannot fail to be struck by the number of millionaires of whom he never heard, no matter how close a reader he may be in these days, when it sometimes seems as though everybody's name got into the newspapers.

Mr. Stanley gave to the public last week, in a connected way, his version of what has come to be known as the Rear-Column Scandal, introducing it with a brief narrative of the Emin Relief Expedition, more particularly described in his book. The official report to the Emin Relief Committee stated merely that the rear column had been wrecked by the irresolution of its officers, the neglect of their promises, and their indifference to written orders. In the book he gives particulars which justify this censure, but he does not go outside of the text of the official report. If the verdict of mankind were to be made up on the matter thus supplied, it would justify Mr. Stanley, perhaps, but with the proviso that he expected too much from men inexperienced in the kind of work put before them, and that he did not exercise good judgment in the choice of a commander of the rear column. On the latter point Mr. Stanley pleads guilty, but gives the reasons which led to his selection of Barttelot—reasons which would probably have controlled most men in his situation. The relatives and friends of Barttelot could not rest satisfied with a censure on that person's want of resolution and his inattention to orders. They must needs make an attack on Stanley, who was hundreds of miles distant during the whole time that intervened between his putting of Barttelot in command of the rear column and the latter's death. So far as the charge of enmity on the part of Stanley against Barttelot goes, this is disproved by the mere fact of separation and isolation. If it was not an act of enmity to put Barttelot in command, the charge falls to the ground, because the two men never saw each other afterwards or held any communication with each other. The attack of Barttelot's friends, however, called for some answer, and it was with evident reluctance that Stanley told in a guarded way what Bonny, the man who succeeded to the command of the rear column, had told him of the causes of the wreck of that column—a tale of cruelty, violence, and inhumanity that has seldom been surpassed in the world's history.

The question arises whether the expedition, on the whole, was not a tremendous mistake. We think that it was. What was its net upshot? Several hundred lives were lost, fearful sufferings were incurred, twenty-one thousand pounds were spent—for what end? To deliver from the Mahdists one irresolute and rather ridiculous European savant, who did not know whether he wanted to be delivered or not, and a few hundred Egyptians, who, according to the best accounts we can get, were not worth so much, man for man, as the Zanzibari slaves who lost their lives toiling through the African jungle to save them. These Egyptian officers and soldiers were robbers by nature and education. They plundered the natives of the country where they had been planted. They mutinied every other day. They imprisoned Emin and Jephson, and they conspired to put Stanley and his men to death in order to get their ammunition and goods. They were as distinctly inferior to the Mahdists who were pressing against them from the north as they were to the Zanzibaris who came with Stanley to their relief. For these despicable creatures all the horrors of the expedition, including the rear-column scandal, were incurred. If civilization has gained, on the other hand, a display of heroism and perseverance under difficulties rare in the world's history, it is seen that even this may be purchased at too dear a price—much too dear when we take into the reckoning the shocking example set by the rear column to the tribes of Equatorial Africa.

The Parnell contest has ended, as it seemed most likely to end from the beginning, in the disruption of the Irish Parliamentary party, 45, or about half, seceding under the leadership of Justin McCarthy, and the remainder adhering to Parnell, who wound up the discussion, in Reed fashion, by refusing to put a motion for his own deposition. The fight will now be transferred to Ireland, by some sort of appeal to the constituencies. How it will end there it is difficult as yet to foresee. There have been some scattering adhesions to Parnell from some public bodies, but the chances are that deliberation and the influence of the Catholic clergy, and a fuller view of the consequences of the strife on English opinion, will in the end complete Parnell's ruin as a leader. The theory that he is suffering from mental unsoundness is not wholly without foundation, and will very likely, before all is over, explain the "magnificent courage" which is now the object of a good deal of rather idiotic admiration. Labouchere's *Truth* tried to defend him in the beginning by describing the attack on him as "a quarrel with the skilled commander of an army in the midst of a battle," and asked:

"Would any one in his senses have suggested that the Duke of Wellington ought to have been cashiered when Napoleon was marching on him in Belgium if some divorce suit had gone against him in England? Would, under similar circumstances, the Germans have insisted on the retirement of Count Moltke when they were besieging Paris and the Army of the Loire was threatening them? The French would never have rendered themselves ridiculous by suggesting this, for all would have known that the advice was not due to any respect for a high moral standard, but designed to injure the enemy."

This is not a good parallel. Nobody has as yet asked Parnell to resign because he has been taken in adultery. He is asked to resign because two-thirds of his army will not fight under his orders. If two-thirds of Wellington's troops at Waterloo had, on discovering that he was philandering with another man's wife at Brussels during the fight, refused any longer to obey his orders, he would have been deposed promptly, not because of his sexual immorality, but because his conduct had made defeat certain if he remained in command. This is Parnell's case. The English Liberals will not serve with him, and the question before the Irish is not whether the English are unreasonable, but whether the Irish can win without their aid. To ask this question is to answer it. Abuse of Gladstone and Morley, under the circumstances, has a drunken air. But we who see an embezzler of public funds retained in the chief management of a great party, in spite of full exposure, must not be too hard on Parnell's benighted adherents.

SUPERINTENDENT PORTER IN SELF-DEFENCE.

MR. ROBERT P. PORTER, Superintendent of the Census, opens his article in the *North American Review*, upon "Partisanship and the Census," with the statement that the "general and current interest just now exhibited in the census is a sufficient reason for considering the subject from a different standpoint" than an "entirely statistical" one. He accordingly devotes some portions of his space to replying in kind to what he styles the "frenzical attacks on the eleventh census," the "broadside after broadside of invective," the "wild crusade," the "unearthing of deep-laid conspiracies," and the "patching together of some hideous monstrosity," which he says have, during the last two months, "strained" the "variegated resources of sensational journalism."

Whether the results of the eleventh census are substantially accurate or not is a question of great and far-reaching importance. Upon those results depends the representation during the next decade of the several States in the lower house of Congress and in the Electoral College. Errors much less extensive than have been charged would be sufficient to reverse the result of a Presidential election as close as that of 1876, or the political complexion of a House of Representatives as evenly divided as was that of the Fifty-first Congress when it was organized. Long after the census of 1900 has corrected any political injustices which mistakes in that of 1890 may have occasioned, those mistakes will render doubtful and uncertain all statistical calculations extending over considerable periods of years. The defective census of 1870 still embarrasses every study of the rates of increase of the population as a whole, of the relative growth of the North and South, and of the comparative fecundity of the white and colored races.

The most serious reason for questioning the truth of the census results is the fact that, to accept them, we must believe that the rate of *natural* increase—that is, of course, the increase due to the excess of births over deaths—has suddenly, during a single decade, and after making proper allowance for the omissions in the census of 1870, dropped nearly or quite one-third. On this question Mr. Porter has not a word to say. He dwells upon an error in these columns, by which we made the average percentage of decennial increase from all causes during the two decades 3.72 per cent. too great, not mentioning the fact that the correction of the error was promptly published. He elaborately discusses the changes in the aggregate rate of increase, but he ignores the fact that immigration added 10.45 per cent. to our population during the decade from 1880 to 1890, as against about 7.50 per cent. per decade during the twenty years preceding. If the gain by immigration be deducted, it appears that the average gain by natural increase per decade during the two decades from 1860 to 1880 was 18.50 per cent., as against 14.40 per cent. in the decade from 1880 to 1890. The average of the two preceding decades was lowered by the waste of life and the diminished birth-rate occasioned by the war, and yet the rate of natural increase was more than one-fourth greater in those decades than, according to the census, it was from 1880 to 1890.

Mr. Porter replies to the criticism based upon the diminished rate of *natural* increase by asking, "Who can explain a variation of 23.96 per cent. between the [aggregate] increase [of Mass.] from 1810 to 1820 (10.85 per cent.) and that from 1840 to 1850 (34.81 per cent.)?" And, after stating that the widest variation in the United States figures is but 13 75 per cent., being between 36.38 per cent. (1800-1810) and 22.63 per cent. (1860-1870), by asking, "Why should certain variations in percentage in the United States figures be taken as presumptive evidence of fraud or incomplete enumeration, when larger variations in the Massachusetts figures have never been assailed by the same critics?" Such a reply shows that Mr. Porter supposes that none of the readers of the *North American Review* are possessed of elementary statistical knowledge. Respect for the Superintendent of the Census and for the President who selected him for that position, forbids us to entertain the only other explanation of this most extraordinary reasoning. To compare the fluctuations of the rate of increase in the population of a State of very restricted area, dependent as those fluctuations are upon the state of trade and industry at different periods, and when no statistics of inter-State migration exist, with like fluctuations in the rate of increase in a continental empire for which approximately accurate records of immigration have long been kept, is to trifle with the intelligence of the public.

No one doubts that, as a rule, the "percentage of increase in population grows smaller as the country grows larger, for the numerical increase becomes a percentage of a constantly increasing number." But the principal reason why this is a rule is, that, as the country becomes more thickly populated, immigration usually declines absolutely, and almost always relatively to the resident population. This reason does not exist in this country at this time, for immigration during the last decade was absolutely nearly twice as great as during any preceding decade, and relatively greater than in any decade except that from 1850 to 1860. We do not for a moment lose sight of the probability, so strong as to approach a certainty, that the birth-rate is decreasing in this country. But it is not possible that the decrease could have been as great and as sudden as the census returns would indicate. The pains at which Mr. Porter has been to evade this, the one criticism which, as it cannot be made a subject for partisan dispute, is the criticism which, if unanswered, will be most damaging, would seem to show that he has nothing to say upon it. The tone in which his article is written, while it may be due in some part to a natural irritation at what he conceives to be the injustice and exaggeration of some of the attacks upon him, shows quite plainly that he is conscious that the Census Office will, on the whole, fare better if the controversy concerning its methods and its results can be carried on as a quarrel rather than as a discussion.

There is abundant reason why he should think so, although it is probable that many unfounded attacks and many ill-informed criticisms have been made upon him and his work. It is doubtless true, as he says, that a deliberate scheme to count down Democratic States could not have been carried out without taking hundreds or thousands of the enumerators into the plot, and thereby infallibly making it public. It is also true that the enumerators were appointed by the supervisors throughout the country, and not by the Superintendent of the Census, and it may be that it would not have been practicable to select them by competitive examination; yet it is also true that when, as was largely the case, active Republican politicians were selected for census supervisors because they were active Republican politicians, and when those active Republican politicians saw that the Superintendent of the Census had declined to permit the employees under him to be selected by the merit instead of the spoils system, it was inevitable that most of them should use their patronage to strengthen the party machine.

Mr. Porter must have known that such would be the case. He must have known that the result of confining the selection of enumerators in most of the supervisors' districts to one party would be to get a class of men inferior, on the average, to those who would have been appointed had the selection been made from the whole body of the people, without respect to party. He must have known that the natural consequence of making in this way the Census Office a part of the Republican Machine would be to make the Democrats throughout the country suspicious of the census, and ready to believe any charges against it which might be made. He must have known that such charges were, in any event, certain to be brought, as in this country every census must disappoint extravagant expectations. He must have had some forebodings then that experience would show, as he very truthfully states experience has shown, that the act of Congress required the enumerators to get too much information, and made inadequate provision for their compensation, and that under such circumstances an appreciable portion of the population would almost certainly be omitted, and ground thus afforded for the criticism which his own course as to appointments would make bitter and determined. That, under such conditions, and with such knowledge, he should still have persisted in refusing to take his office out of politics in the only way he could make the country understand he was taking it out of politics—namely, by including his bureau force in the classified civil service, and by selecting the persons he would recommend to the President for supervisors solely for their statistical and not at all for their political qualifications—is only another proof of how completely American politicians sacrifice their own reputa-

tions and the good of the country to the imperious demands of the office-seekers of their party.

AMENDMENTS TO THE INTER-STATE LAW.

SENATOR CULLOM is reported in a Chicago paper as saying that the Inter-State Commerce Committee of the Senate would be called together soon for the purpose of considering the bill introduced last winter (and favored by the Senator) which permits railways to pool their traffic. This particular bill, known as the Dawes Bill, was framed with care so as to allow railroads to divert freight from one road to another according to some agreed proportions, the details of the agreement having previously been filed with the Inter-State Commerce Commission and approved by it. This, it will be seen, is a physical pool as distinguished from a money pool wherein earnings are divided. If we ought to have something of the nature of pooling, it is much easier to divide gross receipts; yet if any old sentiment is found opposed to this, a division of traffic is better than nothing. It is not impossible that something of the latter kind might be undertaken as the result of closer relations between competitors, whether allowed by law or not. Chairman Walker's idea of a joint agency involves a division of business, and apparently it would be legal; for a warehouseman or a road may apportion the traffic going beyond its terminus among connections in any proportion, as is now, indeed, done every day at large centres where many diverging lines come together. Mr. C. A. Seward a year ago wrote an opinion upon this point for a Western road. It only now needs an agreement to extend the plan to that large part of our traffic which passes over more than one railway or system to reach its destination.

But a matter of important public policy should be fairly discussed and made lawful if right. The real objection to pooling is, not that the traffic will go over one road rather than another, but that the carriers will take advantage of the opportunity and put up their tariffs to extortionate figures. Promises not to do this avail little in the public mind; yet in this case the conditions appear to make such promises safe. Average freight rates are very much lower in the United States than anywhere else in the world; hence advances in a few instances to adjust commodities or localities to each other might be sustained as to their reasonableness by an appeal to other countries, supposing any such advances to be made. But the great gain would be in putting a check upon the present system, all but universal at the West, of giving "cut rates" to favored shippers and cities. One road is reported upon good authority to be charging up its rebates paid to shippers to its maintenance of way account. This account thus may show generous expenditures upon the track which were not so spent. The devices to cover up such back payments are as wide as human ingenuity. The evil is beyond our search, and the only cure is the removal of the cause as far as possible. Not only are the road and the road's owners the sufferers, but the consequent hurt to honest dealing among merchants is also great; for the straightforward shipper is not the most successful. Thus it is true that property in railroads and in trade is unnecessarily and unjustly damaged through the present condition of affairs. Our great water routes will always prevent any general extortion; a fair public policy towards rail carriers can be followed without fear of it. Indeed, it is now the transportation interests of the country which need protection for the general good.

Another section of the act to regulate commerce deserves attention, and that is the section forbidding a higher charge for a shorter haul. The language of the English Railway Act was followed in framing our own, with this conspicuous exception. The objection to this short-haul clause is that it is contrary to the general spirit of the whole act. It declares beforehand that a certain specific discrimination is wrong of itself; whereas, in other sections only a general principle is stated, the matter of right and wrong in a particular case being left, as it should be, to the Commission. Thus, the clause forbidding undue preference clearly and absolutely prohibits the charging of a larger sum for a shorter haul, whenever such a charge is shown to be unjust. Whether such a charge is unjust or not is a matter of evidence the same as in any other complaint. As the matter stands now, with this prohibition in the law, the Commission must at once decide an ordinary short-haul case against the carrier, even when there is a doubt of the justice of the decision. Congress made the law, and it is not for the Commission to explain it away, except in grave cases. Every carrier and every shipper is entitled to a fair trial wherever a larger sum is charged for a shorter haul, but cannot now have it. Undue preference is declared illegal; that covers unjust violations of the short-haul rule without any further enactment.

Nor is the distinction theoretical merely. For example, a repeal of that section would help us to solve one of our most puzzling transportation problems, that of Canadian railroad competition. Business men realize that it is idle to talk now of forbidding Canadian railroads to carry American products. Too many local interests, from New England to the Northwest, are served by the existing Canadian lines for us to think of cutting these off. And, what is equally important, very many of our own American roads would be seriously injured by a severance of their Canadian connections. On the other hand, with our high-tariff protective policy, it is a great injustice to allow cheap Canadian railways to underbid our more costly roads, while protecting the American manufacturer. It is making fish of one and fowl of another. The American lines are right in calling it unfair. Under these complicated and opposing conditions what shall we do? The striking out of the short-haul clause from the Inter-State Law would help us greatly. The American railroads could then quote the same rates as their Canadian rivals at competing points, and, in case of a rate war, would not reduce their local charges, as now bound to do. If a complaint for undue preference should be brought against them, the Commissioners, untrammelled by specific prohibition, could carefully investigate the whole question, and thus be enabled to render an unbiassed opinion. If that opinion should declare that our own lines were rightly entitled to fair conditions of competition against foreign roads, New England, seeing increased rivalry, would not object. Our national sense of justice would undoubtedly approve such a decision, though we can hardly expect it so long as the short-haul condemnation stands in our law. The justice or injustice of a shorter haul at a higher rate is a question which should be settled according to the merits and circumstances of each particular case.

RAISING PRICES BY STATUTE.

ONE by one the eminent Republicans who, upon the accession of Gen. Harrison to the Presidency, conceived the idea of "running the Government of the country upon business principles," mainly for their own private business profit, are becoming involved in serious financial difficulties. The proto-martyr of this band of unfortunates was John F. Plummer, the most intense and the most voluble of them all. Plummer was such an enthusiastic advocate of more tariff, or of the doctrine of raising prices by statute, that, though a man of somewhat vociferous piety, he took the ground boldly during the Harrison campaign that Protection to American Industry was so sacred and necessary a thing in government that forgery and lying in its behalf were not merely justifiable but laudable proceedings. As Chairman of the Republican Dry-Goods Association, he had printed and distributed tons of documents ornamented with the British flag, and containing forged extracts from British journals, long after the forgeries had been exposed. When he was asked to justify his conduct, he was wont to strike his chest with much violence, and say with full voice: "John F. Plummer wears no man's collar. He is responsible solely to Almighty God and his own conscience." When President Harrison had been elected and had entered upon the duties of his office, Plummer was recognized by him and the party at large as one of the chief "powers" responsible for the Republican victory, and he was summoned to Washington repeatedly to give counsel to the President on the proper conduct of the affairs of the nation.

During the first year of President Harrison's Administration, Plummer was one of the greatest men in the United States. He was offered several offices, including the Postmastership of New York, but declined them all, on the ground that his immense business interests demanded all his attention, that he had neglected these in order to save the country and the tariff system, and that he must neglect

them no longer. His sole remaining interest in governmental affairs was to get more tariff on goods in his line of trade. He was a great friend of the McKinley idea, but he could not wait to have it tried in practice. On the 20th of last March the sad news fell upon the country that Plummer was embarrassed. He assured his friends that it was nothing very serious, that it was due chiefly to a "heavy drop in the satinet market," and that all would be well again presently. An examination of his affairs showed, however, that while there were liabilities amounting to over a million dollars, it was extremely difficult to find any assets. Then it was said that the great Plummer had been basely deceived by a wicked partner, and that while he had been devoting his talents to the cause of his country, this partner had completely undermined his business and left him penniless. From that time Plummer disappeared from the public eye.

Closely associated with Plummer in his business views and political methods was Mr. Edward H. Ammidown, President of the American Protective Tariff League, and *ex-officio* director of the League's newspaper, called the *Bulletin*. Even Plummer had not greater faith in forged British extracts than Ammidown had, and as for McKinleyism, in that Ammidown followed step by step with McKinley himself. No sooner did he hear McKinley declare that "cheap and nasty go together," and that "cheap merchandise means cheap men and cheap men mean a cheap country," than Ammidown had the following denunciation of cheapness inserted in his *Bulletin:* "The curse of cheapness! The vulture loves his carrion not more than the free-trader longs for cheapness." McKinley had spoken on October 14, and the issue of the *Bulletin* containing Ammidown's curse appeared on October 17.

Why Ammidown loathed cheapness so bitterly did not appear till a few weeks later. When on Wednesday last it was announced that the Rittenhouse Manufacturing Company, in which Ammidown was a controlling stockholder, had failed, Ammidown himself said that the failure was due to the "depression in values caused by the recent Democratic victory. Nobody wants to buy, and trade is dull generally." But the Philadelphia *Press*, whose owner is a member of the American Protective Tariff League, and whose ability to speak with authority we do not presume to question, said: "It is known that Mr. Ammidown, acting either for himself or the company, put $1,000,000 in wool during the months of June and July, intending to take advantage of a rise in the market following the passage of the new Tariff Bill." This showed, if it were the true version, that the failure was due to the provoking slowness of the American people in understanding the beauties of the McKinley Bill, and in refusing to recognize the cursed nastiness of cheapness as quickly as McKinley and Ammidown had recognized it. If the people had rejoiced over the opportunity Ammidown had given them to buy at higher prices, the million dollars that he "put in wool" would have brought him a fair return instead of a failure. It is very discouraging business to attempt to benefit one's country by raising prices by statute, if the people do not coöperate cordially by buying at the raised prices.

Scarcely had the shock of Ammidown's failure subsided when the news came that Mr. Delamater, who ran as Mr. Quay's candidate for Governor in Pennsylvania last month, but who failed of election through want of proper coöperation on the part of the people, had been obliged to suspend business as a banker. An examination of his affairs showed that $100,000 of the State's funds and $50,000 of county funds, which had been deposited in his bank, had disappeared and left no sign. There were great liabilities and no assets worth mentioning. So bad was the condition of affairs that some of Mr. Delamater's friends are denouncing him as a swindler. If the people of Pennsylvania had consented to support the bank by putting Mr. Delamater into the Governor's chair, it is confidently believed by Mr. Delamater's sympathizing friends that he would have tided over his financial difficulties. Mr. Quay appears to take this view, for in an interview in Washington on Sunday he said: "I cannot understand why Mr. Delamater kept the condition of his financial affairs from his friends. Something might have been done to tide matters over, or at least to break the force of the blow." Mr. Quay speaks from experience, for he "tided over" two much more serious affairs than this while he held State offices, and he did it in both instances by helping himself to the funds in the State Treasury, to the aggregate amount of $660,000.

Now, on the heels of the Delamater misfortune comes the news that a former partner of Col. W. W. Dudley in the banking business has brought suit against him for $52,633, which he declares Dudley obtained by "fraud and deceit" while in business with him. The partner declares of Dudley:

> "He had no capital whatever in the firm, and carried on a system of fraud and deceit for his own benefit and credit, and to the injury of our firm, which he caused very great losses in 1886. He speculated for himself and family, and often entered his transactions in the accounts of many people of prominence in the highest official circles, the Senate and ladies prominent in society, many of whom state that they never gave him orders to buy and sell such stocks. He fraudulently transferred stocks from one account to another for his own benefit, which facts are duly entered in our books, and an expert examination now shows the truth of these statements."

The partner, A. E. Bateman of Wall Street, says further that Dudley confessed verbally and in writing to his deceitful doings, but Dudley denies it all in interviews and says the charges are "outrageously false." Still, he admits that the business was disastrous, which shows that his business views of politics have not brought him success.

We might add to this list of unfortunates the name of the good Mr. Wanamaker, who is credited with such serious losses in railway speculative ventures that he has been obliged to mortgage his house in Washington; but it would convey an erroneous impression to say that he is in danger of business failure, for he emphatically declares that he is not. He, like all the other Republican leaders named, has been paying somewhat heavily for rudimentary knowledge as to the workings of governmental principles.

PENSIONS WHICH ARE NEEDED.

We hope the Commission which is now sitting "for the proposal of amendments to the judiciary articles of the [N. Y.] Constitution" will, before its labors are over, consider seriously the need for some provision in the nature of a pension, at least for such judges as are removed from the bench at the age of seventy by the constitutional limitation, or whose terms expire when they are in the neighborhood of that age.

The judges of the United States Courts are now the only judges in the country who can look forward to old age, or to the failure of their powers while on the bench, with that peace of mind which is absolutely necessary for the proper discharge of judicial duties. In this State the term of the judges of the Court of Appeals is substantially a life tenure. That is to say, the average retention of office under a life tenure does not exceed fourteen years, owing to the generally late period at which a lawyer reaches the bench of the higher courts. But the age limit of seventy years in this State has inevitably great terror for a man who is elected between fifty and sixty, and has no accumulated property, or but very little. The prospect of being turned on the world at any time after seventy is one which no judge who does not possess private fortune can face without great trepidation. It must inevitably, especially if he has women dependent upon him, fill his life during the last half of his term with torturing anxiety. He has, after fourteen years' service on the bench, or still more after twenty-eight, not only lost all practice at the bar, but has lost the habits of mind which make practice easy; and when he attempts to build up a new practice, or recover some shreds of his old one, he has to contend with younger men in his own calling, and seek clients among a younger generation which knows nothing of him as an advocate. Elderly men do sometimes achieve success in such a recurrence to an old pursuit, if they attack the problem before sixty, but the cases are so rare that they will not support any generalization. The rule is, that a lawyer who leaves the bench, after fourteen years' service, between the ages of sixty and seventy, and has no professional connection to fall back on, is left practically without resources.

We do not propose to argue that an old judge in this condition is a great discredit to a civilized State. We think he is, but the sentimental view of the matter is not the strongest one. We say that a judge who has this prospect staring him in the face during the last half of his term of office cannot do his duty properly. It is this prospect which explains, and would, if anything could, excuse, the scandal of judges speculating on the Stock Exchange, of which we have had some recent and melancholy

examples. We do not pretend to have any knowledge of the facts of any of these cases, but we feel very sure that in every one of them the impelling motive was the necessity of making some provision for old age. Stock speculations involve tremendous mental disturbance for a man in any calling, but we do not think there is any which they are likely to affect so prejudicially as the judicial calling. It is not simply that they destroy the intellectual serenity which is one of the first needs of the judicial office, but they create relations and obligations which may ruin judicial impartiality or end in downright corruption. This is all true and deplorable, but we say deliberately that the people of the State of New York would have no right to complain if such cases, now happily rare, were to become very numerous.

Why would they have no right to complain? Simply because all public as well as private service has to be arranged with reference to the wants and weaknesses of human nature. We recognize this in our private business, but, for some inscrutable reason, we shut our eyes to it in our public business. When a private corporation wants the services of a first-rate lawyer, it pays him in such a way as to secure the full exercise of his powers and to raise him above all temptation as long as he remains in its employ. But if the public hires him, it makes such terms with him that it keeps him constantly on the lookout for some means of bettering his condition if he be an energetic, ambitious man, and keeps him in a condition of smouldering anxiety about his own future or that of his family if he be a quiet, studious, sensitive, or phlegmatic man. Either condition impairs seriously the usefulness of a judicial officer.

It may be said, and is said, that a judge should provide for his old age, as other men are expected to do, by saving as he goes along. The answer to this is, that the salaries of judges everywhere except in this city are notoriously inadequate, and have not kept pace either with the increased cost of living or the rise in the incomes of leading men at the bar, or the salaries in other callings. The salaries in this city, $17,500, are not a bit too high, considering what the cost of living in the city is, and considering that we allow a judge to be saddled at the very outset of his career by enormous assessments for the benefit of nominating organizations. That is, we compel, or allow to be compelled, every judge to pay a large sum for the mere chance of being elected. The old rate of $20,000 reduced the salary during the term of fourteen years to about $16,000. A judge cannot save much out of this in New York city in fourteen years, even if he be a saving, careful man. But he may not be a saving, careful man. Judges differ in this matter, just as other men do. Every variety of human nature is to be found among them as among other people, and a great State has to take this into account in making its judicial arrangements. What the State seeks is first-rate judicial service, and it has to take this where it finds it, without looking too nicely into temperaments or dispositions.

There would not have been much use ten years ago in urging these considerations on the attention of the Commission. Even then there lingered in the public mind the old horror of either paying or receiving pensions, with which the early frugal and independent Americans came out of the Revolution. We have got over it bravely. We are now the greatest pension-payers and pensioners in the world. We are rewarding past services to the State with more lavishness and less inquiry than any people has ever displayed. Advantage ought certainly to be taken of this changed view to make better provision for that branch of the public administration on which, far more than on either the army or navy, we are all dependent for life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—the judiciary.

A NEW SOVEREIGNTY.

WITH the death of William III., King of the Netherlands and Grand Duke of Luxemburg, the connection between these States is severed, and Luxemburg becomes a separate European sovereignty. The Dutch law of succession makes the late King's ten-year-old daughter, Wilhelmina, Queen of the Netherlands under the regency of the widowed Queen Emma; while a family compact, recognized and confirmed by three European treaties, vests the Luxemburg succession in Adolph, formerly Duke of Nassau.

To all good Tories, nothing could be more satisfactory than the peaceful induction of Duke Adolph into his new sovereignty; for a fuller recognition of princely right and of the power of princely compact to dispose of a land and its inhabitants, is not to be found in the whole course of European history. The relationship between the late King and the new Grand Duke is of the most distant; their nearest common male ancestor died in the thirteenth century. But the elder line of Nassau, of which the new Grand Duke is the head, and the younger line of Nassau-Orange, of which William III. was the last male representative, have always kept alive the consciousness of kinship; and as late as 1783 the two branches of the family concluded an "Erbverein" or treaty of succession, by which, in case of the extinction of the direct male line in either branch, the hereditary possessions of both branches should be united.

At that time the Nassau-Orange prince did not possess the Dutch Kingdom; he was Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, and his hereditary possessions comprised only four minute German principalities. Luxemburg was not then a Nassau territory, and was not covered by the family compact. But in 1815 the Prince of Nassau-Orange ceded the four little principalities in question to Prussia; the Vienna Congress gave him Luxemburg in their stead; and the Treaty of Vienna expressly subjected Luxemburg to the provisions of the Erbverein of 1783. When, in 1839, the separation of Belgium from Holland was definitively recognized and half the duchy of Luxemburg was ceded to Holland, the treaty of peace confirmed anew the contingent right of the elder line of Nassau in what was left of Luxemburg; and the London treaty of 1867, by which Dutch Luxemburg was neutralized, gave a third endorsement to these claims. Nothing, therefore, could be more legitimate than the succession of the present Grand Duke; and in a century which has witnessed the overthrow of so many thrones and the disallowance of so many hereditary claims, the recognition of the ancient rights of the house of Nassau must be a cheering thing to all good conservatives.

In fact, however, the Grand Duke owes his present position and the Grand Duchy its present independence rather to the mutual jealousy of Luxemburg's two powerful neighbors than to their respect for vested princely rights. In 1867 the Grand Duchy was within an ace of annexation by France. Sadowa had dissolved the old German Confederation, thrust Austria out of Germany, and established a powerful North-German Union under the leadership of an aggrandized Prussia. Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfort had been annexed by Prussia. The French Chambers, the French press, and the French people demanded "compensation," and Napoleon was anxiously in search of some annexable territory. Luxemburg, held by the King of the Netherlands as a personal possession, seemed the most available object. The Duke of Nassau, just expelled from his own duchy by Prussia, seemed little likely to raise any effective protest. The Dutch Parliament had nothing to say in the matter. Napoleon therefore offered to buy Luxemburg from the King of the Netherlands, and the King agreed to sell it. But Germany protested. Luxemburg was historically a German territory. It was not a member of the new North-German Union, but it had been a member of the old Confederation just dissolved; it had joined the Prusso-German Customs Union in 1842; and the fortress of Luxemburg, under the treaties of 1815, was still garrisoned by Prussian troops. For a moment, the dispute seemed likely to lead to an immediate war between Germany and France. Napoleon demanded the withdrawal of the Prussian garrison from Luxemburg, and the Prussian King refused to comply with this demand. But France was not ready to fight, and the dispute was adjusted by a European conference. The London treaty of 1867 left Luxemburg in the hands of the Dutch King; guaranteed the contingent rights of the ex-Duke of Nassau; pronounced Luxemburg a neutral territory, and decreed the razing of the fortifications and the withdrawal of the Prussian garrison. It is this treaty which at present determines the status of Luxemburg.

What is likely to be the future of this new sovereignty? The question is the more pertinent because the new dynasty numbers but three males. The Grand Duke is in his seventy-fourth year, his only son is unmarried, and his only brother is morganatically married, so that a new question of succession is no remote possibility. Strategically, Luxemburg is almost a German enclave. The Prussian Rhine province bounds it on the north and east and the imperial territory of Lorraine on the south. On the west it is

covered by Belgium. It touches France only on the southwest, and only along a stretch of four or five English miles. Without Lorraine and Metz, Luxemburg would be of no use to France. To Germany, on the other hand, Luxemburg would be of considerable strategic value. If the town were again fortified, it would close the western frontier of Germany in the one open place between Lorraine and Belgium.

Historically, and according to the "principle of nationality," Luxemburg belongs to Germany. Since its division and the cession of western Luxemburg to Belgium, its population is almost entirely German. It still forms part of the German Customs Union. Its most important railroad is a part of the Alsace-Lorraine system, and is managed by Alsace-Lorraine officials. Finally, whatever may be the personal feelings of the new Grand Duke, there is no reason why his official relations with Germany should not be friendly. Unlike other German princes who suffered with him in 1866, he promptly made his peace with Prussia, and resigned all claim to his lost sovereignty. In return, the Prussian Government has since that time supported his claims to Luxemburg, which the Dutch Government showed some inclination to contest.

In the way, however, of any closer political union between Luxemburg and Germany stand the stipulations of the London Treaty and the jealousy of France. The admission of Luxemburg to the German federal system, or a military union, or even an alliance, would be an infringement of Luxemburg's neutrality and a *casus belli* for France, as one of the guarantors of that neutrality. For the Luxemburgers the situation is not without its charm. They escape the great military burdens which weigh upon their neighbors. Were Luxemburg a French province or a State of the German Empire, its peace contingent would be about 2,100 men. As it is, its army consists of 300 men and a major. There is no particular reason for enlarging this force, since it suffices to maintain order, while a landsturm of the entire adult male population would not suffice to protect the territory against even a Belgian invasion.

It seems improbable that the status of Luxemburg can be changed without war; but another Franco-German war will probably terminate its independence. If the French regain Metz, they will be able to use Luxemburg to advantage. If France is beaten, no other Power will be likely to burden itself with the defence of Luxemburg's neutrality. As regards England, Lord Stanley declared in Parliament that she had assumed no obligation except to join in concerted action; that if a single one of the signatory Powers should refuse to aid in the maintenance of Luxemburg's neutrality, England's guarantee would cease to bind her.

THE ARGENTINE CREDIT.

PARIS, November 27, 1890.

TOCQUEVILLE'S work 'De la Démocratie en Amérique' created an immense sensation. Tocqueville prophesied the advent of democracy in all civilized countries, and his prophecy has been well justified. France is now a republic, and the right of suffrage is no longer limited. In England the electorate has been twice increased in a lifetime. Germany, though it has still many remains of feudalism, has an electorate large enough to admit even the Socialist element. Among the dangers which Tocqueville signalled for democracy, he did not count the financial. It is, however, every day more evident that democracies have an irresistible tendency to extravagance and prodigality. No more striking example could be shown than the conduct of the Argentine Republic. Prodigality in the Government, a loose morality in financial matters, private as well as public, but especially public—such are undoubtedly the dangers which a democracy must incur.

What may be called the power of imagination has ceased to exist in a purely democratic community; the idols which Bacon called *idola theatri* have been long forgotten; the prestige attached to great names can no longer counterbalance the power of wealth. Democracy is founded upon a perfect equality of man, but, in the struggle for existence, while there may be equal rights, there are never equal forces; and the struggle for existence becomes of necessity a struggle for wealth. In a highly civilized country like America, which has already a past, a history, glorious names and associations, there are some forces which tend to hinder democracy from becoming a plutocracy: the power of literary or scientific genius is recognized, the memory of great services rendered to the State is generously preserved. Still, with all the influences of religion, of literature, of science, of what really constitutes civilization, notwithstanding the high culture of a large part of the community, it is only too clear that the money power is too much felt, that the pursuit of wealth is too ardent and too absorbing, the steady work of labor and of economy is too often interrupted and deranged by the reckless enterprises of speculation.

In a country like Argentina—a country, so to speak, without a past, without tradition, without a literature, without any intellectual capital—the dangers of democracy are becoming terribly evident. I often stopped, during the last great Exposition in Paris, before what was called the Argentine Pavilion, and it seemed to me very emblematic: it had no style—it was neither Greek, nor Gothic, nor modern (if we apply the word modern to the bold and elegant iron constructions of our time); it was an odd structure, covered with gold and glass, glittering, multicolor, a vast toy, a gigantic plaything. The architect had evidently tried to produce the impression of unlimited wealth. And such was the impression people had at the time, when they spoke of the Argentine Republic. Year after year the Republic borrowed large sums from Europe, but we were told that the resources of the country were boundless, that immigration, like a wave, would soon cover the great plains between the Atlantic and the Andes. There was much truth and some exaggeration in the reports which were made to us; a wise and honest Government would have used the advantages of the country without compromising its credit and its future. But there was little wisdom in the central Government or in the provincial governments; and if we may believe half the stories which have come to light since the revolution, there was a sort of organization of corruption such as the world is not yet accustomed to. Responsibility was felt nowhere, and it will always be little felt where it is too much divided. Politics have become a mere way of making rapid fortunes. The reaction came, as might have been expected, from the commercial classes, for in commerce there is and always will be a real responsibility. Honesty will always be the soul of commerce, and people will never bear in private transactions what they are unfortunately too ready to bear in politics. The movement which ended in the overthrow of the clique which had brought Argentina to the verge of ruin, began in the "Civic Club," a club composed of the heads of the first commercial houses in the country. The merchants risked their lives in order to save their country.

People ask themselves now if the remedy has not been applied too late; the financial crisis continues, the premium on gold is again increasing in the most alarming degree. The great houses of Europe which introduced the Argentine loans to the European markets are combining their action in order to facilitate the liquidation of the present situation. At the same time they are thinking of the means of exercising control over the Argentine Government, and here they touch on a difficult political problem.

The power of capital has been felt in the political field in various circumstances. We have seen the beneficent effects of the interference of the European Powers in Egypt when the extravagance of Ismail Pasha had brought about a revolution in that country. Compare for a moment the price of the Egyptian funds when Ismail was obliged to leave Egypt, and their price at the present time, after several years of labor by the mixed European Commission, after the period which was called the *Condominium*, and after the period of the English occupation. Who would have thought, when the Oriental dream of Ismail Pasha had come to an end, that Egypt would borrow money in 1890 at the rate of 3½ per cent.—would be able to effect the conversion of all its old loans on the most favorable terms? Such, however, has been the result of a few years of order, of reform, of peace; the credit of Egypt is actually better than the credit of some of the oldest monarchies in Europe.

The experiment made in Egypt was repeated in another form in Turkey; here also we see a country on the verge of absolute ruin, unable to reform itself, without any administrators or financiers, and obliged to receive external help in the shape of a financial commission. In this case the pressure of Government was not felt as it was in Egypt, it was not so direct; the intervention had a more private character. Turkey had mortgaged successively a great part of her resources, and the holders of these mortgages formed a permanent commission, which by degrees substituted its action for that of the impotent Turkish administration. The result was the same as in Egypt; the commission has a staff of functionaries, of tax collectors; it has introduced as much order in Turkey as a Mussulman country can bear, and the Turkish funds have slowly emerged from the abyss, and are day by day becoming a little more respectable. Some years ago they were purely speculative; some of the Turkish loans are now looked upon as serious investments.

So long as a nation's credit is so good that its loans need no special hypothecation, it can escape external control; but when special revenues are mortgaged, the mortgagee has an obvious right over them, over their collection and administration. Such has been the case in Egypt and in Turkey. Things have not come to this extremity in the Argentine Republic, and those here who speak already of

sending to Buenos Ayres a mixed financial commission are confounding cases which are in reality different. The Argentine Republic has so far made loans solely on the strength of its credit, and its general resources are the only guarantee for the payment of the interest. It is difficult to see what a European commission could do. It could not replace the Argentine administration of the general resources of the country; it could not, in fact, govern the country. The case would be different if some special receipts, such as those of the Custom-house, had been given as a special guarantee for the repayment of a certain loan. In that case there would be a door open to foreign intervention.

So far it seems to us that the Argentine Republic may say, as Italy once said, by the mouth of Charles Albert, "L'Italia farà da se"; but we must remember that after having uttered these proud words, Charles Albert led his troops to Novara, and had to abdicate the crown. It is quite possible that the Argentine Republic, if she wishes to dispense too absolutely with the advice and the interference of Europe, may have her Novara; at the same time her European creditors must be careful not to wound the pride of a young, ambitious, and democratic nation. They have not to deal with an absolute government, with an irresponsible sovereign, with a few powerful ministers who have a solid majority in the Parliament; any arrangement made which might be denounced as an insult to the Argentine people, could probably be easily undone by a popular movement. The men who are now in power, and who seem to be, for all we know, the best men that could be found under the actual circumstances, have, therefore, before them a most arduous task. They are like the captain of a ship who, during a terrible tempest, must throw something overboard. What is there to save first and at all risks? It is the national credit. The central Government, in this crisis, may have to sacrifice the credit of some of the provinces and some private institutions. If the central Government is weak, and if the nation, as a nation, loses all credit, there will be no end to the political and financial troubles of the Republic. The country would soon fall into a sort of anarchy; the central Government and the national credit ought, therefore, to be first sustained.

The question of State rights, which at one time convulsed the American Republic, may therefore soon arise. We confess that we do not see that it is the duty of the Federal Government to sustain, at the public cost, the credit of imprudent or dishonest provinces. The European markets have been loaded with loans made by some of the Argentine provinces which may be unable to fulfil their engagements; the Argentine Republic, in the hour of prosperity, gave no special guarantee to these loans; we do not see why, in the hour of adversity, it should come forward and guarantee them. It would inflict too heavy a burden on the people, at the moment when they find it difficult to carry the national load.

The situation of Argentina involves many political questions, as I have tried to show. Time will prove if in this young and somewhat untrained democracy there will be found men strong enough to save their country not only from financial ruin, but from a premature political decrepitude.

THE ITALIAN ELECTIONS.

LONDON, November 25, 1890.

WE left Italy before the elections commenced, but with a pretty clear idea of how they would end, seeing that, in the presence of one strong, compact party, with a national and international programme, there were four or five factions with either no programme of their own, or one that contradicted that of their quondam colleagues. When, a little more than four years since, the last general elections took place, Cairoli and Baccarini were in the field, Bertani, though he died just as they were commencing, had spent the last weeks, nay months, of his life in organizing the party: his last lines, written the day before his death, entreated Carducci and Aurelio Saffi to accept a seat and retake their position as Radical leaders. Saffi, though he would not again take the oath, was one of the most energetic leaders of the electors in the Romagna, and on the whole the elections went well for the Radicals. Some provinces "went Radical"; all others shared the seats with the Progressists. The programme of Bertani and of men of his stamp, who had spent their lives after 1870 in carrying out the principles they had laid down during the struggle for unity and independence, was the thorough and immediate effectuation of the reforms without which no progress in material and intellectual pursuits could be effected. Why they assailed Depretis was because he, the earliest reformer in the old sub-alpine Chambers (with the one exception of the political Electoral Reform Bill, which was due really to Crispi, Cairoli, and Zanardelli, and which he handicapped with a new "Bill on Oaths"), had not kept his reform pledges, had got into the African muddle, had, in the Triple Alliance, allowed Italy to play third fiddle, and in financial matters had probably made as sad a muddle as it was possible to do, having trusted entirely to Magliani, who held the position of Minister of Finance for ten uninterrupted years. So intense was their anger against him that even when, a few months before his death, Depretis asked Cairoli and Baccarini to join him, they would not.

Crispi and Zanardelli were wiser in their generation. They saw that unless they acceded to his request, the King must appeal to the Conservatives, who had quite other than a reform programme. They knew that the Triple Alliance was renewed; that, after Saati, there was no getting out of Africa, but only a chance of making good the footing *in* Africa. They both went in with the certainty that they could carry the reform bills on which they had set their hearts. They believed that they would be sincerely and thoroughly supported by the large body of Liberals of the different gradations into which the Liberal party has always been broken up, and that only the few anarchists who trade on fishing in troubled waters and the champions of the temporal power would oppose them. In this belief alone they were mistaken. The African policy has been a decided success, and may be regarded as a mission of civilization unmarked by any of the scandals, horrors, and brutalities which have accompanied other nations in "darkest Africa." With regard to Italy's position in the Triple Alliance, no one now disputes her right to be regarded, treated, and consulted as an equal. Nor, despite the dark financial outlook, which no optimism can blink, does any one pretend that a dissolution of the alliance would mend matters, but rather compel Italy to spend more in an isolated position than she now does when her territory is guaranteed by her allies, and when her unwritten alliance with England makes her own naval expenses less heavy to face in the future. Then, in the great matter—the question of commercial treaties with France—the treaties were already denounced, the tariff wars were initiated. Crispi's pledges in this respect for the future are distinct:

"We have already suppressed the differential duties voted in 1888 against France as an answer to a hostile tariff—entirely a defensive measure this. France, nevertheless, maintains her exclusive measures against our exports, and still we do not retaliate, because the suppression of these differential duties confirms the fact that Italy, forced into the economic war, continues to be animated by friendly feelings towards France. It remains to be seen whether we shall attain any material benefit in return."

Precisely! If not, Italy can't go on crying for spilt milk, or howling over the millions lost by the French customs war. She must make the best of it, and that is what she means to do.

Coming to the starting point, the programme of the Liberals—home reforms—it is by that the present Ministry was bound to stand or fall. It was *in* and *on* reform that they counted on Radical support. Well, the total abolition of licensed prostitution should count for something? Then the passage of the Sanitary Code, which, if not all that Bertani would have made it, is a complete, sweeping reform, if properly applied. The Penal Code just passed has been Zanardelli's life-work. The Clericals abuse its every article because it limits their power to undermine the Constitution; but take the article abolishing the punishment of strikes save when accompanied by violence. Put side by side the "little" law enabling the Government to treat directly with bona-fide workingmen's associations, give them contracts for public works not exceeding at present the sum of 100,000 lire, without the intervention of sweater contractors, without the necessity of a security or money deposit, and with fortnightly payments, only 10 per cent. kept back until the whole work is completed. We need not dwell on the reform of the police, which is imperfect, nor on the reform of communal and provincial assemblies, though the clamorers for universal suffrage might say thank you for having quintupled the administrative electors. But the one radical, able, and immediately applicable reform of charitable institutions would have sufficed to form the glory of any ministry. Two milliards of the "patrimony of the poor"—ninety millions of annual income—are now placed under the administration of men to be chosen by the communal councils, *i. e.*, by men chosen by all the electors who can read and write. The Government only retains in its own hands, or in the hands of the prefects, such power as is necessary to control the local assemblies, *i. e.*, the congregations of charity, in cases of alienation and conversion of the old trusts. Hitherto the funds have been chiefly administered by ecclesiastical authorities; it is natural that they should bewail the change. Naturally, also, the Radicals would, it might be supposed, have assisted and spurred on the Government, and applauded it when the work was complete. But in fact they have no part nor lot in the matter.

Maffi is one of the few Radicals left out in the cold whose absence will make itself felt in the House whenever a bill relating to the labor question is under discussion. It is possible that he may get a seat in the bye-elections, of which there will be many as soon as the members elected in two or more colleges shall have made their choice. But we doubt it. The Anarchists will none of him; for the Socialists he is too practical. We fear that the place which has known this modest, genuine, typical Italian

workingman will know him no more in the new Parliament.

The moral of all this is, that Crispi and Zanardelli are what we have always believed them to be—radical reformers whose programme is as broad and large and deep as the country is prepared for at present. There is nothing, moreover, in the Radical programme that they are not prepared to grant within the limits of the Constitution. Had we less faith in their patriotism and their liberali-m, we should say that they are too strong; that their victory is too complete, the opposition too small. But what is the immediate business of Italy and her statesmen to-day? Economy, economy to the backbone, as Sella used to say; and no one more than a ministry who have been behind the scenes for the last three years can understand the absolute necessity of economy in its full extent. It partly depends on home management: the spenders must be put on half rations, for rations in the shape of fresh taxes cannot be counted on. Then, when all is said and seen, France, in the defeat of the Radical leaders whose blarney has so misled her, will realize that the immense majority of the country is with the Government, and that if Italy and Italian commerce are worth anything to France, she must treat with her representatives on a footing of equality.

On the whole, it is well with Italy. The organs of the Vatican are not of this opinion, which confirms its truth. The English papers, Conservative and Liberal, extol Crispi's victory to the skies—not to the point of giving him Kassala, perhaps; but should it be "found necessary" for Italy to enter therein, little or no opposition will be made. I speak of the opinions expressed yesterday morning on the receipt of the Italian electoral news. This evening the excitement on the Gladstone-Parnell leadership business is such as, to an exile of some thirty years from England, seems incomprehensible. The last time we saw English people so excited was over the "English conspiracy bill," after the Orsini bomb-business.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

"GERMAN LUTHERANS IN POLITICS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your issue of November 20, 1890, contained a correspondence signed "Andover," in which German Lutherans generally, and the Missouri Synod in particular, are "damned with faint praise."

In the guise of a friend and well-wisher of our Synod, "Andover" makes a malicious assault upon it, while attempting to reveal the "causa efficiens" of the Republican defeat in Wisconsin and Illinois. His praise of our Synod in the beginning of his communication would be highly gratifying to us but for the manifest fact that it was intended to serve as a foil more insidiously and effectively to set off at advantage the many severe strictures he makes upon the spirit, doctrines, and practice of that body. The preliminary praise is but the sugar-coating of the bitter pill of detraction beneath. The charges that he makes against the Synod are: "That the entire spirit of the organization [Missouri Synod] is thoroughly un-American, being German, and German, not of the nineteenth but of the sixteenth century; that it is intolerant, full of superstition and fanaticism," and that it is guilty of "fetish-like worship of Luther and his works." How does he support these charges?

In the first place, he censures us for publishing and using Bible histories and school-books in which "the Deity is represented by the artist as an old and rather benevolent-looking gentleman," etc., according to the spirit of the sixteenth century. He does not see fit to tell us in what manner this instance supports any of his charges, and we fail to see anything un-American, intolerant, superstitious, or fanatical in it. If "Andover" finds fault with thus representing the Deity because he shares the Calvinistic view prohibiting the making of any image of the Deity whatsoever, we shall not discuss that matter with him here, but simply remind him of the fact that the great body of Christians do not agree with him. Should he, however, object to the particular manner of the representation of God, then his quarrel is not with us, but with the old masters, Raphael, Michael Angelo, etc., from whom our artist copied.

Furthermore, he criticises our republication of Luther's 'Table Talk.' As to that, permit us to say that this 'Table Talk' or 'Colloquia' has always been an integral part of that edition of Luther's works which we are now republishing, and which has always been considered the best of the various editions of Luther's works. And while it is true that Luther therein occasionally employs homely and rude language in order to forcibly and bluntly express himself in accordance with the manner of his time, no really pure heart and mind stand in danger of being corrupted thereby. He who seeks offence may find it even in Holy Writ. Our "fetish-like worship" of Luther has never carried us so far as to rank even his best and genuine works with any of the books of Scripture, and as to his 'Table Talk,' which is a collection of Luther's small talk, made up by irresponsible parties without Luther's knowledge and consent, we of course value it only in so far as it gives us a fuller acquaintance with a man whose small talk even is worth perpetuating.

"Andover," in order to further sustain his charges, adduces our republication of the 'Altenburger Bibelwerk.' By his remarks thereon it would appear to us that his indignation against said work was aroused rather by the text of the Bible itself, or in particular by such passages thereof as recite divine judgments and punishments that appear too cruel to his "enlightened theology," than by the explanations and applications accompanying these texts. If this be so, his quarrel again is not with us, but with God himself. However, we do not deny that this work, excellent as it is in general, contains in its summaries some of those false notions and peculiar teachings concerning secular authority in church matters, as they prevailed in the established church of the country and the time in which the work was compiled. But is the mere republication of a work containing so many excellent features a justification of any of the charges that he makes against us? Is every one who prints, circulates, and reads similar books therefore to be decried as intolerant and bigoted? Does "Andover" not know what the Puritans did and taught in this respect? Does "Andover" go into convulsions over the actions and teachings of those Pilgrim Fathers in this respect, who even in this "enlightened age" and country are still held up to mankind as examples and ideals to pattern after for all time to come?

"But," "Andover" may say, "if you desire a republication of this work because of its many excellent points, why do you not caution your readers concerning those passages in the summaries which you concede to be erroneous?" Our answer is, we have already done so. Shortly after the appearance of the first edition, these objectionable passages were thoroughly discussed and pointed out in our synodical conferences and publications, and a committee has for some time been at work eliminating such passages for the future editions of this work.

"Andover's" last charge is, that in our teachers' seminary at Addison, Ill., and in some of our official journals until very recently, the doctrine was taught that Christianity and the Copernican system of astronomy are incompatible, and that a genuine belief in the inspiration of Holy Writ required the rejection of the entire science of geology. This statement as made is absurd and untrue. Concerning the Copernican system, we do not condemn it, but do take issue with those who base upon it an argument against the divine inspiration of the Bible. As Christians we plant ourselves upon the words: "It is written," "That we henceforth be no more children, tossed to and fro and carried about with every wind of doctrine by the sleight of men and cunning craftiness" (Eph., 4: 14), and "Avoid profane and vain babblings and oppositions of science, falsely so called" (I Tim., 6: 20); and for that reason we insist upon a radical distinction between philosophy and theology, between human and divine truths: the former is capable of progress—not so with the latter. Divine truth, of course, can and should be better known, understood, and applied; but as to its real nature and essence it cannot be improved—not even in this "enlightened age"—because, being of God, it is immutable as God himself.

We think we have now fully answered all the charges brought against us by "Andover." Permit me now briefly to state the position taken by our Synod as well as that of the Synodical Conference (which embraces the Wisconsin, Minnesota, Missouri, *and one English Lutheran synod*) on the Bennett Law as contained in resolutions passed by said body and which are as follows:

"(1.) Whereas, the Word of God, our rule of life, enjoins upon all Christian parents the duty of bringing up their children in the nurture and admonition of the Lord; therefore, all Christians who educate their children in schools are in duty bound to intrust their children who are not yet confirmed in Christian truth, to such schools only as secure the education of children in the nurture and admonition of the Lord, while at the same time it is with us self-understood that we are willing to make good citizens of our children, to the utmost of our ability, and that we also endeavor to give them the best possible schooling in the use of the English language.

"(2.) Whereas, in the non-religious public schools, wherever they are conducted in the sense of the non-religious State, not only Christian education is excluded, but also, as a rule, things not in harmony with the Word of God are by way of instruction and discipline inculcated on the children, and the spiritual life of Christian children is thus endangered and impaired; therefore, we as Christians are in conscience bound to submit to no law of the State which is directed or may be used towards forcing our children into such public schools.

"(3.) In accordance with our daily prayer, 'Thy kingdom come,' it is our duty to preserve and extend the orthodox Evangelical-Lutheran Church in this our country, and we are, therefore, in conscience bound to combat each and every law which is directed or may be used to the detriment and damage of Lutheran parochial schools, which are effective means of extending and perpetuating the kingdom of God.

"(4.) Forasmuch as our Lord Jesus Christ says, 'My kingdom is not of this world,' and 'Render unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's,' the separation of Church and State is for all times to be acknowledged as in accordance with the Word of God; and since God has in this country vouchsafed unto us the precious boon of religious liberty, we may not as faithful stewards approve of any legislation which tends toward a confusion of spiritual

and secular affairs and endangers our religious liberty, and we most cordially approve of combating with legitimate means such laws as have to the detriment and damage of our parochial schools been enacted in the States of Wisconsin and Illinois during the past year, while on the other hand we, for the same reason, *condemn all demands upon the public funds for the erection or maintenance of parochial schools.*

"(5.) For all the reasons stated, we must, as Lutheran Christians, grant our cordial approval to the fact that our brethren in the States of Wisconsin and Illinois have, whether in courts of law or at the ballot-box, taken up and hitherto carried on the contest forced upon them against such laws, and we are, furthermore, determined to make most energetic opposition wherever in other States such or similar legislation may be attempted."

I might add that similar resolutions have been adopted by the Synod of the Norwegian Lutheran Church in America, the oldest and largest organization of Norwegians in this country.

Finally, if it be true, as "Andover" says, that the attempt to "translate the Missouri Lutheran views into English has failed," and that "the laity probably lay very little stress upon such theories as are illustrated in the above quotations, and the second generation begins to show that wholesome indifference to dogma which is so characteristic of modern active and enlightened Christianity," then why all this alarm about the Missouri Synod and its doings? "Andover" may rest assured that if the result of the late election in Wisconsin and Illinois be to prevent further interference with our schools, German Lutherans as a body will soon be "out of politics."

Respectfully, H. C. SCHWAN,
President of the German Evang. Luth. Synod of Missouri, Ohio, and other States.

CLEVELAND, O., November 28, 1890.

[We have received a number of replies to "Andover," and are forced to select. The above will probably be recognized as proceeding from the weightiest source. We cannot continue the controversy.—ED. NATION.]

GRACE AT WASHINGTON'S TABLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Owing to absence in Europe, I have only now seen a letter in the *Nation* (September 12, 1890), signed "S. C. C.," concerning an incidental remark of mine that it is known that grace was not said at Washington's table. It is possible that my sentence was not sufficiently guarded, and that at some period Washington may have followed the usage. I have never been able to find any instance of his saying grace recorded by a contemporary; but I have just found this passage in the Rev. E. C. McGuire's 'Religious Opinions and Character of Washington' (1836):

"It may be here added, simply as evidence of his devotional habits, that he always said *grace* at table. On one occasion, from the force of habit, he performed this duty himself when a clergyman was present, an instance of indecorum very unusual with him. Being told, after the clergyman's departure, of the incivility, he expressed his regret at the oversight, but added: 'The reverend gentleman will at least be assured that we are not entirely *graceless* at Mount Vernon.'"

As, however, our dear old Parson McGuire, whom I knew in my school days at Fredericksburg, was credulous, swallowed Weems's cherry-tree and other fables, and followed other uncritical victims of Washington "anecdotage," his story requires verification. The statement in Watson's 'Annals of Philadelphia' ("He always asked a blessing, etc.") cited by "S. C. C." also requires verification, and his "always" modification. In the *Magazine of American History*, June, 1889, is printed a letter from Gov. Roger Griswold to his wife, dated Philadelphia, January 1, 1796, in which, describing a dinner given by the President to the delegations from Connecticut and Maryland, he says: "Six servants in livery attended at the table. We had no grace." A paper read before the American Antiquarian Society in Boston, April 30, 1879, by Hon. Hamilton B. Staples (printed at Worcester) embodies Judge Amariah Frost's diary of a visit to Mount Vernon, June 26, 1797, of himself and Dr. Croker. The four ladies of the family, and young Lafayette and his tutor (Frestal), were the others at dinner. "The President," says Judge Frost, "directed us where to sit (no grace was said)."

McGuire and Watson are therefore inaccurate in saying "always," and I cannot help thinking that even if the custom of saying grace had been usual with Washington, after he became so eminent, more would have been made of it at the time by the many zealous people eager to display every sign of piety in Washington, who in such matters was reserved. We might, for instance, have expected an allusion to it in a letter of Col. Benj. Tallmadge to Rev. Manasseh Cutler (January 11, 1800), on the death of Washington, in which he says, with significant italics:

"Altho' from a long and tolerably intimate acquaintance with him, I have been abundantly convinced of his attachment to the *Christian system*; yet had he been explicit in his profession of *faith in* and *dependence on* the finished *atonement* of our glorious Redeemer for acceptance and pardon, what a conspicuous trait it would have formed in his illustrious character."—*Mag. American Hist., March, 1883.*

That Washington was a religious man I have no doubt whatever; his not saying grace I should attribute to the sensitive reverence which most inclines to shut its closet door when zealots desire to make it "a conspicuous trait."—Respectfully yours,

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE CAMPAIGN IN NORTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may interest some of your readers to know that during the recent campaign quite a number of the more prominent Republicans of this State openly withdrew from their party, most of them alleging as the cause the McKinley Bill and the Lodge Elections Bill. Again, during the election, a certain tool of the Administration, for the purpose of getting material in support of the Lodge Bill, went down to one of the black counties to watch the election, and, having been invited into the polling-place, was free to admit that he could see no unfairness.

It is also interesting to note that the negroes seem to have grown discontented with the control of the white Republican minority, and in some counties nominated tickets of their own, in others did not vote at all, and in others voted the Democratic ticket. In a certain township containing a large number of negroes, only one of them voted the Republican ticket, and he for only one candidate. If this beginning shall result in a more even distribution of the negro vote among the two parties, will it not do more towards settling the negro problem than the Lodge Bill?

Very truly, W. M. LITTLE.

CHAPEL HILL, N. C., December 3, 1890.

AMERICANS IN ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has been the occasion of some criticism on the part of our English friends that so many of our college graduates go to the German universities to pursue advanced studies, and so few to Oxford and Cambridge. Recent experience leads me to call attention to one element in this decided preference for Germany over England that is due to the provisions of the existing statutes of the great English universities, and might be readily changed for the better.

The University of Oxford makes no provisions for the admission of graduate students, as such, from any other universities than those of Cambridge and Dublin. The only door open to the American graduate, whatever be his standing and degree, is that into the limbo of non-collegiate students — a limbo which of late years has become less gloomy, but is still subject to all the important restrictions and open to but few of the delights that fall to the lot of those who are members of some college as well as of the university. The American graduate is admitted to an undergraduate status, and a status of this sort only; and the sole distinction made between him and the English boy fresh from the public school is that if the former declares his intention of not proceeding to the baccalaureate degree, and can prove to the proper officers his fitness to pursue a special line of study, he may be excused from the simple entrance examination required of other undergraduates—an examination covering much less ground than that required for admission to our colleges. This is in face of the fact that the standard of the bachelor's degree in arts in a dozen of our best colleges is far higher than that of the pass degree in the English universities, while the B. A. with honors in some special department from any one of a number of our institutions has every opportunity to be the superior in mental equipment of his English brother holding a similar degree. I think the only exception would be perhaps in Greek and Latin "composition."

Under these circumstances, it is not strange that the alumnus of Harvard, or Yale, or Johns Hopkins, especially if he has already made considerable progress in higher studies and has been admitted to an advanced degree, prefers not to submit himself to the awkward and, for him, somewhat humiliating conditions that are the best Oxford has at present to offer him. I am informed that Cambridge is in similar case. It seems that a remedy might readily be found in admitting all B. A.'s and M. A.'s of proved ability to more formal and distinct recognition in the University, even if the recognition be not extended to actual incorporation. The academic hospitality of our own universities might safely serve as a model.

The greater question of the relative advantages otherwise offered by the English and German universities lies without the scope of this observation. E. T. M.

MIDDLETOWN, CONN., December 6, 1890.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. publish directly 'The Wonderful Adventures of Phra the Phœnician,' by Edwin Lester Arnold, son of Sir Edwin Arnold.

'A Washington Bible-Class,' by Gail Hamilton, is in the press of D. Appleton & Co.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert will issue on January 7, 1891, the delayed new novel by Judge Tourgée entitled 'Murvale Eastman, Christian Socialist.'

Ward, Lock & Co. promise a new and enlarged edition of Mr. Locker-Lampson's 'Lyra Elegantiarum,' as a volume in their "Minerva Library."

Kegan Paul, Trench & Co., London, will bring out 'The Last Colonel of the Irish Brigade,' an historical work, based on family papers, by Mrs. Morgan John O'Connell. The last Colonel was Count O'Connell, an uncle of the "Liberator."

The Clarendon Press, Oxford, is now publishing another volume of the historical geography series. It treats of the British West Indian colonies. This admirable series is edited by Mr. Charles Prestwood Lucas, B.A., of Balliol College, Oxford, one of the staff of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and who has for some years filled the office of private secretary to Sir Robert Herbert, the Permanent Under-Secretary at the Colonial Office. Apropos of the subject, we may mention that Sampson Low & Co. will shortly publish a second edition, with statistics brought down to date, of Mr. C. Washington Eves's chatty book about the West Indies. The work will be out in time for the Jamaica Exhibition, in the furtherance of which Mr. Eves has rendered very valuable service in his quality as Chairman of the London Committee in connection therewith.

In the fifty-first annual report of the Deputy Keeper of the Public Records, London, it is announced that a handbook to the principal classes of documents in the Record Office is in the press. The work in question has, we understand, been compiled by Mr. S. R. Scargill-Bird, one of the senior clerks of the Department, who has given many years to its compilation. Mr. Scargill-Bird's colleagues speak of its execution with the highest commendation, but, at present, historical students, to whom it is absolutely indispensable, await the pleasure of Mr. Maxwell Lyte's imprimatur before they can make use of this key to one of the greatest treasure-houses of historical documents. To inquirers on both sides of the Atlantic Mr. Lyte would confer a favor by explaining the delay in publication.

The fourth volume of the 'Century Dictionary' has left the binder's hands. It concludes with the letter P, and contains 100 pages more than the largest of its predecessors. The publishers estimate that the total number of pages will be at least 500 in excess of their estimate, or 7,000 (it would have been 7,200 if the first volume had served as a unit). The present instalment is particularly rich in scientific and technical terms. Fulness of definition is signally exemplified in the case of *put*, with its wealth of colloquial, idiomatic expressions; in this respect outrivalling *get* in the previous volume. The literary references are, as from the beginning of the work, precise with chapter and verse; while the illustrations continue to be numerous, clear, and elegant. Amid the monotony of the *mono-* compounds, for example, one comes upon a charming little cut of the Temple of Vesta at Tivoli (monopteron); and the *para-* compounds are similarly lighted up. The two final volumes it is hoped to issue by and before the summer of 1891.

Two small, thin holiday books come with the imprint of the J. B. Lippincott Co. 'Tisáyac of the Yosemite' is one of those extraordinary "poems" by M. B. M. Toland on which this firm annually, or too often, wastes dainty binding, good print and paper, and drawings by our best artists. The principal victim this time is Mr. Dielman, who must shudder to see his good work wedded to such unmitigated trash. There is a charming half-title, printed in colors, by Will H. Low, and the list of victims contains the names of H. Bolton Jones, Henry Sandham, Hermann Simon, René T. de Quelin, and the sculptors John J. Boyle and A. L. R. Van der Berghen. The illustrators of 'Sheridan's Ride,' also issued by this house, have wisely remained anonymous, for they have succeeded in producing as bad a book of its kind as one often sees. The drawings are feeble and tasteless, the wood-engraving is indifferent, and the cover is gaudy.

Mrs. Sarah E. Heald, who has written much and acceptably for the young, has taken a higher if not more ambitious flight in 'The Eagle's Plume: A Story of the Early Days of Vermont' (Philadelphia: Sunshine Publishing Co.). Though apparently designed for adults, it could be read to or by children with unfailing interest, and would usefully fix in their minds some historic dates and episodes on both sides of the Atlantic. The story, which is vouched for as true, is unfolded very naturally, but also skilfully, and with as much regard to the unities as a classic drama. Mrs. Heald's refinement of feeling and language, and her descriptions of natural scenery and of New England customs, lend a peculiar charm to her unpretentious narrative.

Again a mass of new editions of old works has accumulated on our table. Those characteristic productions of "Grace and Philip Wharton" (Mrs. Katherine Thomson and her son John), industrious bookmakers of a past generation, 'Queens of Society' and 'Wits and Beaux of Society,' first saw the light of England just thirty years ago. To the several editions already accessible to the American purchaser Porter & Coates add another, each in two volumes, fairly attractive in print and binding, and with numerous portrait plates of uneven merit. No critic nowadays could speak respectfully of the gossip and chatter and historical superficiality and commonplace reflection which make the contents of these twin compilations; but at any given time there are all classes of readers as there are all grades of civilization in the world. The United States Book Co. has ventured upon new library editions of 'Vanity Fair,' 'Hypatia,' and 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' uniform in size and tastefully bound. 'Vanity Fair,' of course, being compressed into one volume, has a more condensed typography than its companions, but still bold and easy for the eyes, Thackeray's illustrations are reproduced, and they are at least equal to the poor designs with which 'Hypatia' is equipped. Those of 'John Halifax' are somewhat better, but this feature of the series cannot be said to magnify its worth. Ward, Lock & Co. extend their plain, businesslike "Minerva Library" with Lockhart's 'Life of Robert Burns,' edited by John H. Ingram, who, besides a special contribution of foot-notes, increases the bulk of the work one-half by means of appendices. The last two of these consist of Carlyle's and Christopher North's reviews of Lockhart. We have often praised the form and appearance of the "Laurel-Crowned Tales" issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, and it is enough to note the titles of the two latest, the 'Vicar of Wakefield' and Moore's 'Epicurean.' In simple elegance they will compare favorably with any popular edition we are acquainted with. It will be long before we shall tire of Richard Jefferies, and Roberts Bros. need no excuses for offering 'The Gamekeeper at Home' once more to the public, with illustrations by Charles Whymper.

'Tales and Prose Phantasies,' beginning with "Murder Considered as One of the Fine Arts," fill out vol. xiii. of Prof. Masson's edition of De Quincey's collected writings (Macmillan). The "Miscellanea" introduced at p. 373 mark the beginning of the end, for they will conclude the next and final volume of this beautifully printed and edited collection.

Mr. William O'Brien's 'When We Were Boys,' published here and in London by Longmans, Green & Co., has been added to the Bibliothèque Charpentier in a French translation made by Mrs. O'Brien, with a preface by M. Burdeau, a Deputy.

Greenough, Hopkins & Cushing, Boston, send us an attractive calendar for 1891, "With Modern Authors," compiled by Alice F. Stevens. Each page is assigned to a single author; thus, January is divided among Mr. R. W. Gilder, Mrs. Rose Hawthorne Lathrop, Dickens, and Mr. Wm. Hunter Birckhead. The compiler's taste is catholic, with a predilection for poets over prose authors.

A card game purporting to form "a quick, easy, and interesting method of learning a language," and called "A Gift of Tongues," has been published for the German by Avery & Co., Orange, N. J. We have our doubts about its utility, but it may very likely furnish innocent amusement, particularly if played in the presence of an arbiter who understands the language.

A new *Educational Review* is announced to be published in this city on January 1 by Henry Holt & Co., under the editorial conduct of Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia College, assisted by several heads and superintendents of schools. The magazine will embrace in its scope the primary, secondary, and higher education.

Trinity College, Hartford has issued a new General Catalogue (1827-1890), in which the Latin is employed throughout, contrary to the better example manifested by Harvard this year in its quinquennial catalogue. The number of this year's graduating class, 25, is the same as that of the class of 1842, and was surpassed in 1851 (31) and in 1880, 1882 (26). The very first class, that of 1827, numbered 10; and in this small range during sixty years we seem to read the moral of sectarian colleges.

It is difficult to define in a few words the distinctive character of Clark University at Worcester, Mass., and any one interested to discover it should procure President Stanley Hall's first annual report to the Trustees, just printed. His survey of the need of such an institution and of the study of European systems which led to its foundation, and his brief exposition of the kind of students admitted and instruction given, are followed by department reports of the lines of original investigation pursued at the new University in mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, and psychology. Perhaps the most notable of these is the effort to find the ultimate unit of length in the establishment of a light-wave, enabling "two observers at opposite ends of the earth, with different instruments and entirely independently, to construct two standards (containing, say, a million light-waves) which shall not differ from each other so much as do the present copies from the original standard."

An ingenious bit of antiquarian reconstruction is given in the April Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, in the paper on "The Early College Buildings at Cambridge," by Mr. Andrew McFarland Davis. A few copies have been printed separately.

"K." writes us from Cambridge, apropos of our recent review of Martyn's 'Life of Wen-

dell Phillips,' that the author was correct in stating that Phillips was at one time president of the Hasty-Pudding Club at Harvard, a position which he in fact held for one term, when he was elected orator, but resigned from the club before performing the duties of his new office. We were led into the error of denying this by very recent information on which we placed full reliance, and we regret to have added a single item unjustly to the rather long list of indubitable defects in the work in question.

— In the *Allgemeine Zeitung* of October 30 we find an interesting review of a recent work, 'Kirche und Sklaverei,' by Theodor Brecht (Barmen: Hugo Klein). This author appears to have been inspired by the recent activity of Cardinal Lavigerie for the suppression of the slave trade, and by concurrent Catholic pretensions on behalf of the Church as the great emancipating influence of the Christian era. His thesis is bluntly to the contrary, and he undertakes to show that it is Protestantism and the humanitarian ideas derived from it and the philosophy of the last century which have led to the abolition of slavery. He pictures the Church of the middle ages holding and trading in slaves, making slaves even of freemen; Pope Gregory I. freeing a pair of slaves, yet sending back a fugitive from Otranto; bishops restraining the secular clergy from freeing their bondmen as a waste of Church property; churches owning ten slaves entitled to a separate priest; the canonical law forbidding slaves to make a will, and ordering the offspring of free and bond to follow the lower condition; the pagan slaves of Jews freed under certain conditions, the Church's Christian slaves held fast—the Popes themselves owning Mohammedan slaves, especially for galley service; the Popes, again, with ban and interdict condemning to slavery the entire population of districts and cities opposed to them, as Clement V. in the case of the Venetians in 1309, with no exception of the innocent; finally, the enormous extension given to slavery by papal bulls in the age of discovery, conferring vast unknown lands upon the Catholic Powers behind the adventurers. Herr Brecht's reviewer points out his blind eye to Protestant shortcomings, and adduces among other examples the complicity of the Protestant clergy of the United States with Southern slavery down to the outbreak of the Civil War. To this it could be replied that every Protestant sect save the Episcopalian (which stood wholly aloof from the anti-slavery agitation and threw its weight against it) and the Covenanter (anti-slavery by its constitution) was divided on the subject of slavery, whereas the Catholic clergy were wholly and openly on the side of the Slave Power, and, by means of the Irish and German Catholic vote, prolonged the existence of slavery by maintaining the Democratic party in place from 1848 on. The example of Brazil might also be cited, where emancipation owed nothing to the Church, and where the most that can be said for Catholicism is that it probably ameliorates color prejudice and favors social and political fusion.

— In connection with the receipt at this office of the Sixteenth Annual Report of the Minister of State for Education in Japan for the year 1888, and of the Calendar of the Imperial University of Japan for 1889–'90, there is little to be said in the way of adverse criticism, but much in praise. Both pamphlets are unusually full, and exhibit on every page that desire for accuracy which is so encouraging a trait of the modern Japanese, and which, to a foreigner who remembers the beginning of the second half of this century, stands in favorable contrast to the old days of secrecy and repression. The total number of pupils now enrolled in the empire is 2,927,868, of whom 2,873,759 attend the public, and 54,109 the private schools. While the organized education seems along every line to be progressing healthfully and hopefully, there are also gratifying signs which give a foreigner solid grounds for believing that this education is vitally transforming the Japanese mind. Among such signs is the formation of a society in the University itself for the critical examination of the early annals and later history of Japan, together with a comparison of the native records with those of China and Corea and the West. The application of modern principles to the study of history is one of the sure proofs that the love of truth for its own sake is entering the Japanese mind to possess it. The late Townsend Harris, our first and ablest American Minister to Japan, despite his love for the country and people, seemed, in his diaries and despatches, to use such phrases as "Japan is the land of lies," "The Japanese are the greatest liars on earth," etc., as ordinary punctuation-marks. All this is now changing, and the native ambition seems to be in the direction of realism in truth. Another most hopeful sign, and contrasting notably with the last year's reports, as readers of our Notes may remember, is the revival of interest in Japanese literature and linguistics. The beautiful language of Japan is now being studied as never before by native speakers of it, who make use of western methods. As much of Japanese literature has its classic basis in Chinese, it may be noted also that since the publication of Mr. Suyématsu's handy little book, in which the whole body of Chinese literature was put under review by one critically trained in a European language, this hopeful movement has been stimulated so that it bids fair to be popular.

A BOOK OF PEN DRAWINGS.

Charing Cross to St. Paul's. Notes by Justin McCarthy, M.P., and Plates and Vignettes from Drawings by Joseph Pennell. Macmillan & Co. 1890. 4to, p. 59.

PEN DRAWING, in the hands of a master, is second only to etching, if second, as a delightful means of rendering the picturesque of architecture and street life. It has its own peculiar felicities of touch and manner which differ from those of etching, but its great advantage over any kind of drawing in tone it possesses in common with etching—the facility of leaving out. A tone drawing must, in the nature of things, be pretty equally completed throughout, but the draughtsman with the pen is bound to nothing. He may carry to the utmost completion such parts of his drawing as interest him, and where his interest ceases he may indicate only with a few scratches the presence of such objects as he does not care to draw. The sparkle and beauty of a piece of intricate detail may be enhanced by a great space of white paper which would be felt at once in a drawing in tone as intolerably false, but which, in a drawing making no pretence to complete tonality, is a pleasant relief to the eye. The light and shade is accepted at once as relative and conventional, and the artist may play with it what tricks he pleases. By proper choice and the magic of handling, the commonplace may be glorified until an ordinary London street seems as picturesque as a Venetian canal.

Two things, however, are necessary to this result. The draughtsman must be an artist and a master of his art, and his work, if published, must be properly reproduced. The cheapness of "process" cuts has so filled our periodicals with very ordinary pen drawings very indifferently reproduced that we are in danger of thinking the art a cheap one, unfitted for fine results. A book like this of Mr. Pennell's, where beautiful drawings have been perfectly rendered, is therefore the more welcome as a reminder that there are pen drawings and pen drawings, and that the art at its best is a splendid one indeed.

Nothing but true photogravure will thoroughly and adequately reproduce a pen drawing. In every such drawing there is, whether intentionally or accidentally, a difference in tone in the lines which none of the ordinary processes that produce relief plates suitable for printing with the text, will render. Photogravure will reproduce perfectly the most delicate gray line or the fullest black one. Of course the intelligent artist calculates for this difference, and allows himself much less variety of line when working for "process" than if he could count upon the resources of photogravure; but, after all the sacrifice intentionally made by the artist himself, there is further sacrifice in the reproduction. The finer lines thicken and become heavy, or break and become "rotten," and his drawing, as published, is but a wreck of the work that left his hands. The form and the motive remain intelligible, but the fine flower of the art has disappeared.

In this book of Mr. Pennell's, for example, compare any one of the twelve photogravure plates with any one of the twenty-odd pen-and-ink vignettes in the text. In the latter the artist has, as a rule, attempted much less, but see how much less, even of what he has attempted, he has succeeded in getting. Compare the broken and scratchy look of the distances, the comparative feebleness of the foreground darks, the monotony and lack of effect of the whole in the vignettes, with the delicacy in the lighter portions, the velvety blacks, the sparkling vivacity and fulness of tone which almost justify Mr. McCarthy's blunder in calling the larger plates "etchings," and you will form an adequate notion of the difference between the two methods of reproduction. And yet these "process" cuts are among the best of their kind—far above the average of such work in current publications—the kind of cuts that the unfortunate draughtsman hails with joy when he is fortunate enough to find his work so reproduced.

But the glory of the book is in the photogravure plates, which are altogether admirable. In them one has such reproduction as shows the full range and possibility of the material. And the drawings are worthy of such reproduction. Mr. Pennell is indisputably a master, and is without a rival in his own line. Such brilliant detail, such effect of mass and light got with the simplest of means, such a feeling of the jostle and bustle of crowds, such incisiveness of characterization in the human types sketched with a few lines, no other draughtsman that we know of could give us. It would be difficult to say which are the best of these drawings, but those of "The West Door of St. Paul's," "Fleet Street," and "Exeter Hall" are certainly among the best. Only one falls short: even Mr. Pennell could not make the rigid modern Gothic of the Law Courts look picturesque.

The masterly use of the limitations which are the privileges of the art is shown again and again. Full tone being impossible in pen drawing, one may use partial tone as one

pleases to produce one's effect. Two strongly contrasted drawings will serve as examples. In the drawing of "Exeter Hall" the darkness of the great portal was the thing to be accented. This is secured, largely, by mere elaboration, each shadow in the fluting of the columns or the foliation of the capitals being made out until the repetition of small darks produces one great shade. The buildings on either side, which may or may not have been as dark as the front of Exeter Hall itself, are much more lightly sketched, half their detail being sacrificed to lightness of effect, while the figures in the foreground, probably very dark in nature, are traced in the lightest of outlines, with blank white paper between. The eye accepts this at once as the proper conventionality of line drawing, while the darkness of the doorway is made much more effective by contrast. A delicate touch is the carrying down of the darks by *one* small figure, nearly black, whose presence prevents the artifice from being too apparent, and almost convinces the eye that the full values of nature are present in the work of art. In the other drawing, that of "St. Clement Danes," precisely the opposite effect was to be attained. What was here to be insisted upon was the lightness and whiteness of the spire of the church, rising against the gray London sky. To have attempted the tone of the sky would have produced an inevitable heaviness in the drawing and so have killed it, and the sky is therefore left as pure white paper. But if the sky is left white, how is the tower to be made to look light? The first thing is to restrict the shadows to narrow, dark bands that shall give brilliancy, by contrast, to the broader lights. Still it looks too dark, and the next move is to put in the figures below in uniform masses of nearly pure black, without distinction as to distance or attempt at modelling; to scratch in with heavy black lines the near houses to the left; to indicate the wetness of the day and the darkness of the sky by a wavy trail of reflection below each black figure, and behold! the spire rises light into the murky air. Now, to make the black figures blacker and to make the drawing grow out of the paper and not stop abruptly at the lower edge, two or three nearer figures are sketched in pure outline, and the drawing is done.

Many of the vignettes are very nearly as good as the larger plates, and two in particular, those on pages 20 and 22, are remarkable, as very successful efforts to do that very difficult thing, render a night effect in pen and ink. The book, as a whole, is a most happy demonstration of the thesis which Mr. Pennell sustained a year ago in his book on pen drawing, that that art is entitled to a very high place among the minor arts of design; and, further, it is a demonstration of the very high position that Mr. Pennell himself holds among draughtsmen with the pen. The volume contains, also, two or three wash drawings which show well the peculiar fitness of that material for rendering effects of fog—effects which it would be well-nigh hopeless to attempt with the point.

Mr. Justin McCarthy's text is almost as remarkable, in its way, as the drawings it accompanies, though for very different reasons; for Mr. McCarthy is, in this case, quite a superfluous person. He had nothing in the world to say—the drawings could speak for themselves, and stood in no need of commentary. But, the publishers wishing to bring out Mr. Pennell's sketches of London streets, the exigencies of the trade demanded a text of some sort, and Mr. McCarthy was called upon to supply it. Nobly has he fulfilled his duty! Probably the art of gracefully and pleasantly saying nothing for a long time together was never further pushed. Nothing whatever to say, and fifty-nine of these great pages to say it in!—pages so great that their size appalls the eye—pages that have something of the sea or the desert in their vastness, so that one shudders at the distance to be traversed when one enters one of them that has not an island of illustration in it. But it is not for nothing that one is a veteran novelist. Mr. McCarthy can read a whole romance into the slightly indicated back of a young man having his shoes brushed, and give you the past history and present character of an inch-high manikin drawn with two scratches of a pen. One figure looks as if he might be a literary man, and if so, may he not have known Thackeray and tell anecdotes about him? And this reminds Mr. McCarthy that *he* has an anecdote about Thackeray, which he tells us, and which is a very nice little anecdote indeed. Or the Lyceum Theatre comes into a drawing, and have not Fechter and Mary Anderson and Irving played there, and are not reminiscences of the plays we have seen always charming? And if an old woman is selling newspapers, may we not remark on the quantity of them that litter the streets of Athens, most newspaper-reading of cities, when the cafés close? So it runs on, through paragraphs of astonishing length, lightly, easily, agreeably; but one feels that it must have been hard work, really, and that he must have been very glad when it was done.

The most astonishing of Mr. McCarthy's many inventions, however, is that of Mr. Pennell making his elaborate drawings "on the spot" in the midst of a London crowd! It is perfectly evident to any one acquainted with art, that all that Mr. Pennell did on the spot was to take a photograph, upon which he afterwards at his leisure embroidered his work of art. To make such drawings direct from nature is a physical impossibility.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

As the holiday literary output for adults is relatively tame and without distinction this year, so there is nothing of a new kind or otherwise very remarkable in the line of juvenile publications. Beginning with elf-land, we have from Mr. Palmer Cox 'Another Brownie Book,' in which his queer creations disport themselves in the old manner of sport and mischief. That they do not become altogether monotonous, and are still capable of affording amusement, is proof of Mr. Cox's skill with his pencil; and his rhymed accompaniment has the merit of being correct as jingle and good as narrative. The publishers have again made a handsome volume of it. Mr. Andrew Lang, with a change of color, edits the 'Red Fairy Book' (Longmans), laying under contribution the German, the Norse, the Russian, and the French sources, either taken at first-hand in original English versions, or borrowed at second-hand by permission. "Jack and the Beanstalk," "The Golden Branch," "Rapunzel," "Graciosa and Percinet," "The Master Thief," are some of the more familar; but the collection as a whole must be accounted fresh. The book is prettily made, with good illustrations. 'In Poppy Land,' by Mabel Louise Fuller (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.), is an agreeable working-over of the old fairy-tale properties, and can be commended as purposely free from the bloody and brutal element of the elder models.

'Santa Claus on a Lark' (The Century Co.) is the pleasantly suggestive title given by Washington Gladden to a collection of Christmas stories, of which the first, and the best, gives its name to the book. This introduces us to a merry-hearted, young-old bachelor, who mystifies and makes happy a whole village, as he drives his fleet ponies through the fast-falling snow on Christmas eve, leaving gifts at each door and giving the startled recipients a flying glimpse of a ruddy-cheeked, white-haired little figure enveloped in furs and plentifully besprinkled with snow. The gleeful abandon of this modern Santa Claus is infectious. The other stories follow well-worn paths without disclosing new beauties, and so obviously point the moral that children will be likely to skip what is so evidently intended for their betterment. In "Santa Claus in the Pulpit" the preachment on the spiritual quality of Christmas gifts is well timed in these days of gift-exchanging, which savors rather too strongly of commerce.

The D. Lothrop Company, Boston, have issued a charmingly illustrated book of 'Rhymes for Little Readers.' We meet with familiar friends in many of the Rhymes, but the delicate coloring in the illustrations is a welcome change from the barbaric splendor of old-time nursery books. The drawing is true and spirited. Miss Adams (from whose original water-colors the illustrations were lithographed) deserves much commendation.

Mrs. Laura E. Richards's 'In My Nursery' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) is a volume of rhymes and jingles of variable quality. Those for very little folks are sweet and wholesome in tone, and will make music in baby ears; but the verses meant for hearers beyond babyhood seem rather overstrained in thought and diction, and lack the indefinable charm of pure nonsense. The author has evidently a genuine love for children. The illustrations, apparently by different artists, are mainly happily conceived and fairly executed.

'Captain January,' another book by Mrs. Richards (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), is the story of an old lighthouse-keeper who saves a baby from a wreck in which its father and mother perish, leaving no trace of the child's connections. The old man's simple yet strong character is well drawn, and his tender and unselfish devotion to the child is full of pathos. The child herself is rather fantastic, but her lonely life in the lighthouse, with imagination fed on "The Tempest" and "Midsummer-Night's Dream" (a volume of Shakspere and the Bible being her only books), to say nothing of the long winter evenings spent with the old captain as sole companion, listening to gruesome tales of shipwreck, would hardly tend to develop a normal child. Her passionate affection for her "Daddy Captain" is dramatically manifested when a seeming chance reveals her to her mother's sister, who naturally wishes to take her to her own home. But we will not by anticipating take the cream of the reader's pleasure in this pretty story.

It may have been intended as a pleasantry, the giving the title 'A Little Book of Profitable Tales' to the collection of short stories by Eugene Field (Charles Scribner's Sons); otherwise the title is incomprehensible, for we question the profit to be derived from reading, for example, the story of "Dock" Stebbins, who was born with an insatiable appetite for playing practical jokes. The jokes are stupid enough, with a touch of cruelty. "The Divell's Chrystmass" may be valuable as a specimen of archaic spelling, but it is worthless for pleasant or profitable reading. The Divell is depicted as engaged in "lashing his ribald legs with his poyson taile." Being overcome, however, by the spirit of Christmas, and wishing to give alms to a beggar child, but

may be the one, he whips out a knife, and, cuts little off the "poyson taile," presents it to the child, when a "sodaine miracle" changes it into a "flowre of gold." Since then the devil has gone tailless. Of the remaining stories, those that were meant to be pathetic are almost wholly lacking in pathos, while the use of such adjectives as "durnedest" and "goll-durned" is scarcely sufficient to brighten the others with humor. Through all there is a straining after effect, and an imitation of a style which only a touch of genius can make successful. In "The Fairies of Festh" there are some delicate touches, but they are not strong enough to constitute a "saving remnant." The tales were written at different intervals during the past five or six years, and probably appeared for the first time in ephemeral publications. We can see no justification for their present form. They are as a whole neither suitable for children nor of interest to older readers.

Col. Knox's 'Boy Travellers in Great Britain and Ireland' (Harper & Bros.) eminently belongs to the class of books that need not have been written. It is beautifully printed, and in the main beautifully illustrated. Indeed, it excites suspicion that much of the letter-press was written rather for the illustrations than that the woodcuts were prepared to illustrate the letter-press. It is an effort to roll into one an itinerary, a guide-book, a history, a gazetteer. There is a want of reality about it. Most readers would prefer to take their information neat, not so combined. It will be pondered over with pleasure by those who have travelled in Great Britain and Ireland, and will recall much that is of interest. It emphasizes many of the differences that exist in ways of life between us and the old country. It could not, however, safely be trusted as a guide in laying out a tour, and it will scarcely be carried as a lamp to the feet on the road. The book is not without lively passages:

"Thus encouraged"—they are travelling in England—"Frank explained to Mrs. Barrett that it was the practice of Fred and himself, while one of them looked to see that the luggage was all right, and properly deposited in the van, the other attended to the guard. A shilling to that worthy at starting, with the promise of another at the end of the ride" (little wonder our countrymen meet with civility abroad) "generally served to adjust matters to the satisfaction of everybody. The travellers were satisfied because they obtained the places that they wanted, the guard was satisfied because he obtained the shillings that he wanted and expected, and the company was satisfied because it had no ocular proof that the rule which forbids its employees to accept gratuities had been violated."

'A Real Robinson Crusoe' (D. Lothrop Co.), edited by J. A. Wilkinson, is a painful story of a party of castaways on an unknown island of the Pacific. The usual ingenuity is shown by the hero in getting food, shelter, and clothing, and in building a boat, but variety is obtained by making his companions excessively heartless and wicked. Though the "editor" vouches for the facts as strictly true, we much prefer to believe that he has been imposed upon by his informant than that such conduct as he describes could be possible under the circumstances. The book has good points, but we cannot praise it. 'The Drifting Island' (Roberts Bros.), by Walter Wentworth, is an African story with enough exciting adventures to satisfy the most exacting boy. An electric battery works great havoc with fish and with slave-hunters, while the drifting island itself is used as a man-of-war, with elephants working a tread-wheel for the motive power to attack a slaver's stronghold. The author is equally wild in his geography, making his heroes reach Lake Tchad in a few days' journey by canoe up one of the branches of the Congo! The moral tone of the book, it is fair to say, is irreproachable. 'The Lion City of Africa' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), by W. B. Allen, is an entertaining story in which dwarfs, a ruined city with Roman baths and inhabited by lions, and Mt. Ruwenzori play important parts. The author has succeeded in conveying a very fair idea of certain features of the life and scenery of tropical Africa. In an appendix there is a brief account of Stanley's expedition for the relief of Emin Pasha. The make-up of the book is very attractive. The illustrations of 'Zigzag Journeys in the Great Northwest' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), by H. Butterworth, are often very good, but many have nothing whatever to do with the subject of the book. The text is of the same heterogeneous character; rhapsodical descriptions of scenery of parts of the Northwest being intermingled with very miscellaneous stories and sketches. This class of books gives one the impression of being compiled with a pitchfork.

Mr. Charles C. Coffin gives the title 'Freedom Triumphant' to the fourth and closing volume of his 'Young Folks' History of the War of the Rebellion' (Harper & Bros.). It begins with September, 1864. Every candid person must think it a good fortune for children that Mr. Coffin has inculcated the true motive of the war—"the establishment of a government founded on the idea that slavery was a beneficent institution, ordained of God for the best welfare of the human race." He has also taken notice of the desperate counsel to which Lee and others were driven of arming the slaves. In point of literary style, Mr. Coffin is still open to the charge of an aversion to conjunctions and relative pronouns, and a fondness for staccato, *e. g.*: "No inducement was held out to the slave to volunteer for the Confederacy. He was to receive no reward. The word *emancipation* was stricken out. Jefferson Davis was authorized to accept from the masters such slaves as they might choose to send into the army. That was all." Mr. Coffin omits, too, even for a line of mention, the dramatic occasion of raising the flag at Fort Sumter in April, 1865, the very seal and symbol of the suppression of the rebellion. Nor, in noticing the melting away of the victorious army after the review at Washington, does he point to the terrible sequelæ of even a just war in the misgovernment of the reconstructed States, the making party capital as long as possible of the war feeling, the open and shameless traffic in patriotism under cover of war pensions, the enhancement of the war tariff and the substitution of the fetish of protection in place of the fetish of the "peculiar institution," ending in the two McKinley Bills, which are a last defiant declaration of war against foreign nations and against civilization itself. Why should the young be deprived of such lessons?

KIPLING'S TALES.

Plain Tales from the Hills. By Rudyard Kipling. Macmillan & Co.—*Indian Tales.* By the same. John W. Lovell Co.—*The Courting of Dinah Shadd.* By the same. Harper & Bros.

OCCASIONALLY an author is so lucky as to capture the public before the critics "get after" him, and one or two in their generation manage to obtain a popular verdict so tremendously favorable that the power even to modify enthusiasm is in their own hands alone. It is doubtful whether they could ever write indifferently enough quite to reverse the first spontaneous judgment. Such is the happy fortune of Mr. Rudyard Kipling, the young Lochinvar of fiction, who about a year ago came out of the East, came unannounced, and came all alone. No herald with brazen trumpet sounded his approach, and no host of friendly spirits, whispering, winking, and nodding through the press, made straight and smooth his path to glory. Since his work has been fairly before us he has had plenty of gratuitous advertising, but he is not to be confused with the weaker brethren who would for ever preserve that obscurity which their work justifies if they had been born in those Arcadian days, of date uncertain, when professed littérateurs struck for fame on the broad highways, and when the phrases, "to pull wires," "to roll logs," had a literal signification only. Simultaneously with Kipling's appearance arose the cry, "A capital raconteur"—in the vulgar, "A rattling good story-teller"—and there, in a phrase, is the truth about what Kipling is: a born story-teller, born in a story-telling land teeming with untold stories. Every one can think of suddenly achieved literary reputations for which, on reflection, no adequate reasons can be found, but no one need poke about with a candle to discover reasons for Kipling's instant success. He is a very obvious young man, standing well in the light—one may say the centre of a noon-tide glare. In every one of his hundred tales, comic, tragic, melodramatic, or wholly frivolous and for idea worthless, there, unmistakably, is the impress of the natural gift with its implied originality and force. Whether he possesses the talent in the highest degree, and whether he can make the best possible use of it, are questions for the future to decide. The presence in his work of many qualities that go to make enduring fame is more conspicuous than the absence of some which every author needs in order to take rank with the great. There is no hesitation, no vacillation, no shadow of self-doubt in him. He is before all things positive, sure of himself, of his facts and his interpretations thereof.

To serious people this positiveness is sometimes ludicrous, sometimes offensive; but it is also the visible sign of a dominant nature, sure to command the salaams of the multitude in whatever form it may be made manifest. He has a compelling energy which is not genius, though no genius who lacks it may ever hope for appreciation, except perhaps from a few, after he is dead. With positiveness and energy go swift and comprehensive observation and keen insight that does the work of deep reflection with much saving of time and labor. No sage ever feels a confidence in his ultimate conclusions equal to Mr. Kipling's, much less utters it, and we may add that many hoary cynics are as credulous babes in comparison. Mr. Kipling's cynicism is apparently very thorough; not detestable, because it is so flagrantly juvenile. The worst of it is, that its assiduous cultivation stunts the growth of sensibility, poetic imagination, spirituality; and these are the qualities in which Mr. Kipling is most evidently deficient, the qualities which he needs most to cultivate if he aspires to greatness.

Moreover, it leads him into flippant impertinences and all sorts of offences against good taste and manners. The tales of that polite Anglo-Indian society which ebbs and flows from the officers' mess-room to the drawing-room, are shockingly ill-mannered, dazzlingly cynical, and presumably the author's maiden efforts. If it were not for the instinctive skill in the selection of incidents and the direct nar-

ration, one would suppose that these tales of the light Mrs. Hawksby and lighter sisters were the chatterings of a professed scandalmonger, quite disreputable, and so venomous that he knew no joy save smirching angels' wings. Though a regiment's mess-room may not be the home of chaste thought and elegant conversation, we have an impression that officers in the Queen's army, who are also gentlemen, occasionally lapse into the ordinary refinements of their mother-tongue, and are none the less brave, honorable, and kind. "Tommy Atkins," too, is doubtless versatile in oaths and profusely coarse of tongue, but neither the fun nor the spirit of Mulvaney's escapades would have suffered by a modification of the language used by him and his familiars in daily intercourse. No author addressing himself to a decent audience is justified in inflicting the slang and filth of the gutter. Mr. Kipling carries that infliction so far that he not only often throws the reader out of sympathy with his characters, but once at least, in "The Drums of the Fore and Aft," fatally disfigures a singularly dramatic and touching incident. This story, with three or four others *about* children, not by any means *for* children, shows a fine sensitiveness to the mysteries of child nature, and is among the best in the collection. The Mulvaney stories are exuberantly farcical, and tragic power not fully developed is clear in such tales as, "The Man Who Was," "The Ride of Morrowbie Jukes," and "The Man Who Would Be King." But the best of all are the tales of native life often put in the mouth of a native. These have least of the swagger of a surprisingly clever and knowing, very modern young man, most of the sobriety, moderation, and true passion of an imaginative artist. They are purely products of the creative faculty, without precedent and absolutely divorced from conventional models. Read consecutively, they present a picture of India very vivid and probably very truthful, yet disappointingly different from the India of imagination and poetry, with its mystical past, its gorgeous color, and Mogul magnificence. It is an arid, parched, dreary India, peopled by servile millions, subtle and weary, ostensibly in harmony with their English masters, but at heart hostile to encroachment, incapable of change, obdurately Oriental. If Mr. Kipling were a poet, we might see another India more beautiful, and perhaps no less real; but he is not a poet, and that is made clear beyond question by the compositions in verse which are scattered among the compositions in undisguised prose.

Of the several editions of Kipling, Harper's contains only seven stories and is distinguished by a portrait of the author and a biographical sketch by Mr. Lang; Lovell's has the most stories and typographical errors; Macmillan's is a good specimen of printer's and binder's work.

THE CRIMEAN WAR.

The War in the Crimea. By Sir Edward Hamley, K.C.B. Scribner & Welford. 1890.

THIS is one of the series of volumes describing, in comparatively brief compass, "events of our own time," and has the great advantage of being written by an actor in the events described. Sir Edward Hamley served, though we presume as a subaltern officer, in the British force in the Crimea, and was an eye-witness of many of the leading incidents of the war; and there is, as Cæsar, and Napier, and Todleben, and Grant have shown, no military historian so good as a soldier who has directed or taken part in the operations which he records. It was high time, too, that any one who saw service in the Crimea, and had the power to write about it, should do so, for the survivors of those famous fields are rapidly diminishing in number, and are reaching the age in which rest is sweet and memory grows dim. The men who held high commands during the siege of Sebastopol have already all passed away, except the Duke of Cambridge, whose service was really that of an amateur. Raglan, Codrington, Brown, Airey, Cathcart, Evans, Burgoyne, Cardigan, Lucan, Campbell, are all gone.

It is true that Kinglake's history of the war is never likely to be improved upon, as far as painstaking accuracy and vivid description go. But his minuteness has swelled his book to a great size, and his singularly unhistoric temper, the violence of his likes and dislikes, and his remarkable capacity for hero-worship, inevitably fill even the most delighted reader with a certain distrust. Somehow, too, we never, in reading him, entirely rid ourselves of the impression that it is not real war he is describing to us, and that Lord Raglan, "the English gentleman" par excellence, and Lord Stratford, "the great Elchi," were the paladins and sages of romance. Sir Edward Hamley's book is, therefore, both from the military and literary point of view, a very valuable contribution to the historic literature of the day. The general reader who has not time for a large work, and yet wishes for a lucid, adequate, and, in places, extremely vivid account of the most picturesque and romantic military episode of the present century, cannot do better than read it. Many things have been cleared up or put in a new light since Mr. Kinglake produced his earlier volumes, by such memoirs as that of Earl Russell, who demolishes the famous story of the war despatch read to the sleeping Cabinet, and of Lord Stratford, whose skill in the management of the Turks does not now seem so plain as it did to an earlier generation, and by Todleben's history of the siege, full as it is of inaccuracies about his opponents. Moreover, the art of war has made such remarkable strides since the Crimean campaign that the military criticisms of the operations have now vastly more value than they could have had when Mr. Kinglake began to collect them.

Well or ill written, the history of the Crimean war will always remain a stirring epic. No war of the past hundred and fifty years has left so few traces behind it. It would not be an exaggeration to say that nothing has resulted from it which merits the attention either of the historian or statesman. It has vanished like a brilliant dissolving view. I s likeness to the first Crusade must strike every reader. There was the same great misconception about the end in view; the same terrible ignorance about the means and cost of attaining it; the same great drafts on popular sentiment and imagination; and the same tremendous plunge of valor and enthusiasm into the abyss. As we now know, its authors were as much mistaken about the importance of saving the Turks from the Russians as the Crusaders about the importance of rescuing the Holy Land from the infidels. Those who went forth to destroy the Russian power in the Crimea knew little more about the Crimea than the Crusaders knew about Jerusalem or Saladin. Every chapter, too, is as crowded with acts of individual heroism as the pages of Froissart or Commines. The battle of the Alma was itself a mediæval fight. The British commander, occupying a secluded and remote height, where he had a good view of the field, but where none of his subordinates could find him; the ge 1328 division attacking in deadly front, ea e pleased, with no plan or concert, driv the enemy from the field by sheer courage; the flank march to Balaclava, the headquarters staff leading the artillery, thirty guns in single file, through the woods, and so near the enemy that Menshikoff struck the procession with his troops, when trying to make his own escape, and was so frightened by the rencontre that he fled in another direction; the aimless but glorious charge of the Heavy and Light Brigades; the fierce fights of scattered groups in the ravines and hollows of Inkerman; the awful winter of cold, hunger, and disease on the plain above; the vast hospital tragedy at Scutari, bringing down a healing angel in the person of Miss Nightingale—all these make a story which seems more like the experiences of Roland or Amadis de Gaul than those of a modern general in command of a modern army.

Not a trace of it all remains now except the graves of the victors and vanquished on the heights which witnessed their exploits and sufferings. Sebastopol has been restored. A new city has arisen on the ruins of the old one. There is another Russian fleet in the harbor, and repaired Russian fortifications on the shore. The treaty which the war produced has vanished into the great lumber-room of diplomacy. The Turks have gone as steadily to ruin as if no brave men had ever died to save them. The Anglo-French Alliance, which did much to bring on the war, is buried in the tomb of the Napoleonic dynasty. It would, indeed, hardly be an exaggeration to say that the only relics of this war of giants are Tennyson's "Charge of the Light Brigade," which seems a permanent contribution to heroic song, and

> "the neglected graves
> Where Valor sleeps, unnamed, forgot."

Annals of the Artists of Spain. By Sir William Stirling-Maxwell, Baronet. A new edition, incorporating the author's own notes, additions, and emendations, with portrait, and twenty-four steel and mezzotint engravings; also numerous engravings on wood. 4 vols. octavo. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THIS new edition of a standard and valuable work will be highly prized by those who shall become its possessors. As, however, only six hundred and forty numbered copies are printed for England, and four hundred for America, the privileged class will be very small indeed, even when account is taken of a large-paper edition. The book is too well known to need notice at length. It contains little criticism, and that little of no great pretensions to technical insight. It is, what its name imports, the story of the artists of Spain, told at considerable length, with abundance of anecdote, in an easy, agreeable, and somewhat garrulous style—the work of a gentleman and man of the world, with abundant leisure and only that knowledge of art which may be supposed to be the acquirement of every gentleman of culture. It shows much research, much special knowledge of Spain and Spanish life and the career of Spanish painters, much thoroughness and painstaking work, and, perhaps, somewhat too ready credulity. It is a mine of information, but Sir William's judgments are of the most conventional sort. He admits, of course, the accepted primacy of Velasquez, but he also subscribes to the enormously exaggerated reputation of Murillo. In his introduction he insists on the "religious" quality of Spanish art. It

may be that some of the Spanish artists who are little known out of Spain had the religious temper, but "religious" as an epithet applied to the Spanish art we know seems singularly misplaced. It is ecclesiastical; but religious, in the sense that the art of Angelico is religious, it certainly is not. He specially mentions Murillo as one of his religious painters, but Murillo, while often religious in subject, is in temper either wholly realistic or prettily worldly. His immensely popular "Immaculate Conceptions" and the like are the glorification of namby-pamby—the realization of the devotional ideal of perfumed court beauties of easy virtue. They are meretricious and tawdry in the extreme, and the great admiration which has been so often expressed for them has been usually felt by the same people who are enraptured by the designs on handkerchief-boxes, and for the same reasons. With all their cleverness, as expressions of religious feeling, they belong with the paper flowers and tinsel that bedizen Spanish altars. Neither does one see how Ribera and Zurbaran and the other painters of bloody martyrdoms and squalid saints can, by any stretch of terms, be called religious painters. All that is best of the art of Spain is frankly realistic, and its highest expression is in portraiture.

The illustrations, though costly, are hardly satisfactory. They consist, largely, of indifferent mezzotints and line engravings after bad portraits of the artists mentioned. In the case of Velasquez alone has any serious effort been made to illustrate the work of the master under consideration, and in this case the effort cannot be called successful. The far cheaper woodcuts of Justi's 'Velasquez' answer the purpose much better.

Mr. Robert Guy, the editor, who has modestly refrained from placing his name upon the title-page, has done his part admirably, adding largely to the already voluminous notes, and bringing the information as to the whereabouts of pictures down to date. He acknowledges his indebtedness both to Prof. Justi and to Mr. Charles B. Curtis of New York, whose "comprehensive and accurate catalogue of the works of Velasquez and Murillo" he has freely drawn upon. (Velazquez is the spelling adopted throughout the volumes except under the portrait facing p. 672, vol. ii., where the more common spelling is given.) In the fulness of its index, appendices, tables of contents, and lists of illustrations the book is a model, while the paper, print, and decorations may fairly be called sumptuous. Everything considered, it is a magnificent monument to the memory of the author.

Chapters from the Religious History of Spain, Connected with the Inquisition. By Henry Charles Lea. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co. 1890. Pp. xii., 522.

THE Lucifer-like fall of Spain from her sixteenth-century pinnacle of greatness has furnished a subject of melancholy reflection to many of her own more thoughtful sons. One of the acutest of them, Juan Valera, says: "I, for my part, am sometimes inclined to think that the colossal nature of our undertakings exhausted our strength; at other times, that through fighting for principles that were about to succumb, we succumbed with them; again, that our tenacious energy of will gave us empire at that propitious moment when the invention of gunpowder and of printing made it possible for mental power to triumph over material brute force—an empire which we speedily lost as soon as another kind of force came to prevail, material also, though less grossly so, namely, the force born of wealth created by intelligent and systematized industry, combined with thrift, in all which we never excelled." This assignment of causes is certainly broad enough, and gives room, in its vague mention of "principles," for almost any theory that has ever been propounded. Doubtless Valera had in mind, in the use of that phrase, something of what Mr. Lea has worked out with so much detail in his History of the Inquisition, and what he now comes further to illustrate by material accumulated in his researches for his greater work.

He puts his weightiest chapter first in his account of the censorship of the press. In the more than 200 pages devoted to this subject, he traces the development of the Spanish practice from the sporadic attempts to regulate the people's reading in the Middle Ages, down through the rudimentary State censorship inaugurated by Ferdinand and Isabella, until we get the Holy Office of Spain, stirred into feverish activity by the ferment of the Reformation, asserting its supremacy over the crown and even its independence of Rome, and finally carrying matters with so high a hand as to excite royal alarm and to become, under the vigorous reign of Carlos III., a practical dependency of the State. Through it all, Mr. Lea brings out the immense talent lavished upon the repression of talent, the defiance of the modern spirit, growing the more haughty with its increasing absurdity, and the blind disregard of true national self-interest in withstanding the application of science to industry. For example, a book on a new method of cultivating rice was too much for Spanish self-complacency, and went promptly into the Index.

The fatal effect of this system for stunting intellectual growth is stoutly asserted by Mr. Lea, and advanced as a leading cause among those which led to Spain's swift and profound decadence. He takes up the almost paradoxical affirmation of the learned critic, Menendez y Pelayo, that the Inquisition had nothing whatever to do with the decay of Spain's literary glory, in proof of which he cites a long roll of names famous in philosophy and literature in the sixteenth century, not one of which appears in the Index. To this Mr. Lea objects that at that time the Inquisition had scarcely got censorship under headway, and had not yet "had time to overcome the fervid and persistent energy of the Spaniards of Charles V. and Philip II." Referring, then, to the barren centuries that followed, he says that "the question only becomes sadder why so brilliant a dawn, in place of developing into a more brilliant noon, should have so speedily ended in the premature mists of twilight." He finds the answer in the "impediments so sedulously imposed on the acquisition of knowledge and the expression of thought," until all originality became dangerous and the ardor of generous spirits was checked. Finally, confirmation of this view is found in the "admirable renascence of Spanish literature within the last two generations," after the shackles that had bound it for two hundred years were removed.

The rest of the volume is taken up with masses of citations from the history of Spanish mysticism, witchcraft, and the vagaries of superstition connected with persecutions of the Jews—all, of course, furnishing matter for the consideration of the Inquisition. There appears to be no doubt that the Holy Office did much to save Spain from the ravages of impostors, and from the evils wrought by self-deceived men and women, even though the work was done roughly and with none of the modern allowance for disease. Perhaps Spain had no more of such cases of hysteria and catalepsy than the rest of the world, but the immense credulity of her people and her rulers gave them an altogether disproportionate public importance.

The Devil's Picture-Books: A History of Playing-Cards. By Mrs. John King Van Rensselaer. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1890.

SINGER'S 'Researches into the History of Playing Cards' was published in 1816; Chatto's 'Facts and Speculations' appeared in 1848; Paul Boiteau's 'Les Cartes à jouer' followed in 1854, and Taylor's 'History of Playing-Cards' (based on Boiteau's book) was issued in 1865. Then came the admirable and authoritative 'Descriptive Catalogue of Playing and Other Cards in the British Museum,' which Mr. Willshire prepared in 1877, and which we duly reviewed at that time. Since then the only books of interest on the subject are "Cavendish's" 'Card-Table Talk' (1879) and Rheinhart's 'Whist-Scores' (1887). With our increasing knowledge of China, Japan, and India, much has of late been learned about the games of those countries; and the time has come when a new history of playing-cards would be welcome if it should embody the learning of its predecessors and bring order out of what is now not a little chaotic. But Mrs. Van Rensselaer's amateurish work does not fill this want. It is at once unliterary and unscientific. Carelessness in trifles is characteristic of an author's habits of mind, and here we find the late "Bibliophile Jacob" called "M. Paul la Croix" (*sic*), and Mr. Willshire's name appears as Wiltshire; while one of Pope's best-known lines is misprinted on page 11 and then credited to Hone's 'Every-Day Book.' The treatment of the vexed question of the origin of playing-cards does not warrant the belief that the authoress has investigated for herself or formed any solid opinion of her own.

But, accepting the 'Devil's Picture-Books' as an uncritical compilation, it is not without interest, and not a few of its illustrations really add to our information. So far as we know, the hundred-year-old geographical pack, belonging to Dr. R. H. Derby, and here figured on a full-page plate, has not hitherto been described or engraved; the illustration shows that the device of sinking a figure or an initial in the corner pip of a card, which might be supposed to be the latest form of the so-called "index," is in reality a century old. In Mr. Rheinhart's 'Whist-Scores' appeared the first engravings of the buckskin cards of the Apaches of Arizona, obviously copied from the contemporary Mexican packs, which are made according to the Spanish tradition, and generally in Spain; in Mrs. Van Rensselaer's book we have now three full-page colored plates reproducing some twoscore of these rude gambling-tools. Even more curious are the gambling-blocks from Queen Charlotte Island and from Alaska, now preserved in the National Museum at Washington and reproduced in the book before us. Worthy of note also are the Japanese pack belonging to the authoress, and the pack from Cashmere owned by Mr. Lockwood de Forest.

Glimpses of Old English Homes. By Elizabeth Balch. Macmillan & Co.

THIS attractive gift-book is a reprint from the *English Illustrated Magazine.* It is disfigured to some extent by occasional misprints, and by less excusable carelessness on the part of the author, who makes use of such phrases as "acquainted *of* a thing," "the Acropolis *at*

Greece," "the history of *she* who gave it," and so forth. Of the eight houses here described the most interesting are Penshurst, Arundel, and Hinchingbrooke. The main buildings of Penshurst are practically unchanged since the days of Edward III., and in the hall is the last example in England of the hearth in the centre of the room with an opening in the roof instead of a chimney. It was the home of that Philip Sidney of whom it was well said that his life had all the nobleness of expiring chivalry without its barbarity, and it has a peculiar interest for Americans in the fact that in later years William Penn spent much time there with his friend Algernon Sidney, and that the Constitution of the State of Pennsylvania was largely the result of their discussions. Would that they could have foreseen and provided against the Quays of these later days! Among the Penshurst pictures one of the most curious is that of Queen Elizabeth dancing with the Spanish Ambassador—not with Leicester, as Miss Balch puts it—and it is a pity this has not been reproduced in the book. In writing of Arundel Castle and the fortunes of the great Catholic family of Howard, Miss Balch betrays the zeal and enthusiasm of a convert, and roundly abuses the son of Philip Howard who turned Protestant in the reign of James I. It was under the ancient trees of Hinchingbrooke that young Oliver Cromwell, son of the brewer who lived near by in Huntingdon, used to play with the young Prince Charles, and it may be that the recollection of early quarrels embittered the fierce struggle of after life. Hinchingbrooke was also the home of that Lord Sandwich, nicknamed "Jemmy Twitcher," whose ministerial industry interfered with his early dinner, and led to the invention of the dry but satisfying substitute which has ever since been called by his name.

The illustrations in this volume are numerous, and quite up to the average of English wood-engraving.

Handbooks of Athletic Sports. [Bohn's Library of Sports and Games.] Edited by Ernest Bell, M.A. Vols. I. and II. Scribner & Welford.

THERE could hardly be a more striking proof of the keen interest felt by the Anglo-Saxon race in athletic sports than the fact that this series of hand-books should be published so soon after the same ground had been elaborately covered by the well-known Badminton series. It is true that these volumes are in every respect less ambitious than their predecessors, and are so much less costly as to be within the reach of a larger circle of readers; but only those who have noted the recent growth of athletics, both in this country and in England, can realize how eager is the demand for such books. It need scarcely be said that no game can be learned from books alone. Much practice is essential, and a good many qualities, mental as well as physical, must be combined in the individual who would achieve success at any game. But the beginner can save himself much time and labor, and avoid falling into bad habits which are difficult to unlearn, by constantly practising in the best *style;* and what that is, in each kind of sport, he can learn from these hand-books.

These two volumes contain treatises by different experts on cricket, lawn-tennis, tennis, racquets, fives, golf, hockey, rowing, sailing, and swimming; and four more volumes in preparation are intended to complete the whole cycle of sports. For the convenience of those whose sporting tastes are limited, the various sections of each volume can be obtained separately at trifling cost.

The Rev. E. Lyttleton's account of cricket is adequate, and, from the beginner's point of view, is probably quite as useful as the more extensive researches of the authors of the Badminton volume. He gives what is undoubtedly the correct explanation of the fact that the bowling of professionals is always better than that of amateurs; namely, that the latter are unwilling to keep up the monotonous practice requisite for success in this department of the game, although always ready for the more enjoyable practice of batting. It is this same bugbear of mechanical and monotonous daily practice which accounts for the wide gulf between the professional singer or billiard-player and the amateur.

Mr. Wilberforce throws no new light on lawn-tennis unless it be in the shape of an incidental explanation of the decay of croquet which we do not remember to have seen before, namely, that it "fostered the ascendency of the curate," and was therefore doomed! He is somewhat ungallant in his estimate of ladies' play. He says, in reference to *mixed doubles*, "unless her partner is extraordinarily bad, he is bound to be better than she is." This may be quite true, but was it kind to print it on the very next page to Mrs. Hillyard's chapter on ladies' tennis? This ex-lady-champion strives to prove that the game is a suitable and safe one for girls, but the weight of evidence is all the other way, and the wise mother will train her daughter in other exercises better adapted to the peculiarities of feminine costume and physique.

Mr. Julian Marshall's historical account of tennis is admirable, but he devotes very little space to the difficulties of the beginner in that most difficult of games, and therefore his contribution is somewhat out of place. On the other hand, the gentlemen who write briefly but to the point on racquets, fives, golf, and hockey have avoided this mistake and have given all necessary information about these games.

Mr. Woodgate's treatise on rowing and sculling is almost as elaborate as his work in the corresponding Badminton book, and there is probably no better statement extant of the many differences between good and bad rowing. A careful study of this book by Harvard oarsmen would solve for them the mystery of the Yale stroke of recent years, and fully account for its success. In regard to training, Mr. Woodgate very truly observes that more harm is done to the constitution by reckless change of habits, from asceticism to license, when training is over, than by all the severities of training itself, and this cannot be too strongly impressed on the minds of the thousands of young men who occasionally go through a course of training.

Mr. Knight's excellent description of small-boat sailing will be read with peculiar interest on this side of the Atlantic, because he has sailed long enough in our waters to have adopted many Yankee ideas. For instance, he considers the cat-rig the best for small boats, he approves of lacing the mainsail to the boom, and he does not disapprove of the adoption by the English Yacht Racing Association of the new rule 8, which allows a centreboard provided manual power only is employed in working it.

Messrs. Cobbett's numerous plates and very complete explanations of the different ways of swimming will be of much assistance to those who can swim a few strokes and would fain swim many. They refer to the odd fact that some men can float easily and others can never learn to do so, the difference being due to the greater weight of bone and smaller amount of adipose tissue in the legs of non-floaters—whether in "blocks of five" or otherwise.

On the whole, these volumes can be recommended as safe guides in the different departments of athletic sports with which they deal.

The Sources of the Law of England: An Historical Introduction to the Study of English Law. By Dr. H. Brunner. Translated from the German, with a Bibliographical Appendix, by W. Hastie. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. Pp. x., 63. 8vo.

THERE is no better sketch of the sources of English law than Brunner's 'Quellen des Englischen Rechts,' in vol. i. of Holtzendorff's 'Encyclopädie der Rechtswissenschaft' (fourth edition, 1882). It is very useful to students of constitutional as well as legal history. We are sorry to find that the work of translating this excellent essay has fallen into incompetent hands.

Mr. Hastie is thoroughly acquainted neither with the German language nor with the sources of the law of England. A few examples of his many blunders will clearly demonstrate this fact. *Volksrechte* = folk laws, not popular laws (p. 1); *Gesammtbürgschaft* = mutual suretyship or frankpledge, not corporation (p. 4); *Sätze*=chapters, not positions (p. 6); *Güter*=lands, not goods (p. 7); *genossenschaftliche*=relating to associations (gilds, etc.), not federal (p. 11); *Grundbuch*=register of lands, not the Book of the Land (p. 14); *Rechnungsposten* = items in an account, not accounts of imposts (p. 14). On p. 11 Mr. Hastie says: "The principles of the Franko-Norman Law . . . were here [in England] developed as the 'Feudal System,' and in part to an extreme and pointed form"; but the German of Brunner, correctly translated, says: "The principles of the Franko-Norman Law . . . were developed, as was the feudal system in part, to an extreme and pointed form." The *Breve de recto* is wrongly defined, on p. 12, because Mr. Hastie misapprehends Brunner's application of the word *widrigenfalls*. Nor does Brunner give the ridiculous description or definition of the *Rectitudines singularum personarum* printed on page 7. Mr. Hastie says that William the Conqueror caused the old Anglo-Saxon laws to be enunciated "by twelve sworn representatives" (p. 6); Brunner correctly states that this was done "by twelve sworn representatives *from each county*." On the same page an Anglo-Saxon law is mentioned which regulated intercourse on the frontier between the "West Saxons and the Westphalian race"; for "Westphalian" read "Welsh." For "Klother and Cadric" (p. 3) read "Hlothaere and Eadric"; for "asetnusse" (p. 13) read "asetnisse"; for "eleotionis" (p. 18) read "elections."

The translator attempts to supplement Brunner's sketch of the modern literature of the subject, the additional titles being inserted in brackets. This part of his work is also very unscholarly. The addition of Crabb's 'History of the English Law,' Turner's 'History of the Anglo-Saxons,' and Elton's 'Origins of English History' (p. 8), is unnecessary: they throw little light on the history of Anglo-Saxon law, and hence Brunner omitted them. The two Anglo-French dictionaries which Hastie recommends to law students are Kelham's 'Norman Law Dictionary' and Metivier's 'Dictionnaire Franco-Normand' (p. 31). He does not seem to be aware that Metivier's book deals with the modern language of Guernsey. His additions to Brunner show not merely bad

judgment, but also ignorance of the literature published since 1882. He evidently had not heard of such treatises as Scrutton's 'Influence of Roman Law,' Walter de Gray Birch's 'Cartularium Saxonicum,' Aronius's 'Angelsächsische Urkunden,' Dove's 'Domesday Studies,' the publications of the Pipe-Roll Society, Pollock's 'Land Laws,' the Year Books published in the Rolls Series since 1882, and Liebermann's contributions to Anglo-Saxon law. From Liebermann's essays he could have compiled a valuable note concerning the lost law-book of Henry I.'s reign mentioned on p. 15.

In short, Hastie is a poor translator and displays ignorance of his subject. He is often wrong or obscure where Brunner is correct and clear. But even in this poor English garb Brunner's sketch will be found useful; the translator has succeeded in depriving it of only a part of its utility.

Four Frenchmen. By Austin Dobson. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THESE papers were written by Mr. Austin Dobson apparently some twenty or thirty years ago, and with a 'prentice hand. They are the work of a clever youth who, four times in succession, rose from reading a single volume on a subject new to him, and immediately put his reading into writing. It is a little surprising, even in these days when twice-cooked meats are so excessively the fashion, to find a man of letters, a chef, setting before us dishes of Corday, Roland, Lamballe, and Genlis, prepared with no novelty of treatment, even with no originality of flavor. These are four nice-looking little pies, but when you lift the cover there is not much within but bones and gravy.

The first sketch, that of Charlotte Corday—or Mlle. *de* Corday, or even *Marie* de Corday, as she is here styled in affected alternation—is disfigured by a youthful extravagance of coloring that makes equally impossible any delicate character-drawing or any poetic delineation. This theatrical figure is no true portrait of that eighteenth-century maiden who gave proof of at least as much folly as heroism in her mad deed, and still less is it that pale phantom with the bloody hands which will bear her name for long ages to come, till perhaps at length, blending into one light with Judith the Jewess, they will shine as a double star.

Mme. Roland follows Charlotte Corday, though a more natural arrangement would have put Charlotte Corday later in the volume. These thirty pages were evidently suggested and created by the edition of her 'Memoirs' published in 1864 by M. Dauban. But Mr. Dobson failed to catch and reiterate the truth M. Dauban saw, that it was because Mme. Roland was a peculiarly *womanly* woman that her influence was what it was—an influence widely felt, but not powerful. It was because she was "plus femme que les autres" that she became, as Louis Blanc said, "a great man" so far as she was one.

It is the Princesse de Lamballe (who was womanish, not womanly) whom Mr. Dobson thinks "plus femme"—or, as he has it, "mieux femme"—"que les autres." Mr. Dobson is indebted, it may be inferred, for what he knows about her, to one of the works of M. de Lescure, who published between 1860 and 1870 some dozen volumes concerning some half-dozen of his countrywomen — prolix, romantic, and inaccurate books, but rich mines of material for other writers who are not students and who do not care for more recent and more trustworthy historical research. The English writer has accepted, without questioning, the Frenchman's very questionable point of view, and gives us a Princesse de Lamballe who, in Mr. Dobson's words, "stands before us like a realization of the noble old motto of devotion, Tender and True."

The last of these papers, that on Mme. de Genlis, was written with the assistance of that lady herself. Why it should be worth while to give us a simple résumé of 'Mémoires' which, ever since their publication in 1824, have been read by every one who had the least desire to study the eighteenth century, can only be explained in terms of pounds, shillings, and pence.

A Social Departure. By Sara Jeannette Duncan. D. Appleton & Co.

DURING the autumn and winter of 1889, the Anglo-Asiatic newspapers were busy in reprinting for their readers lively extracts, descriptive of their respective localities, from an English ladies' magazine. These had to do with the adventures of two ladies, one English, the other Canadian, who had gone round the world in unconventional fashion. One chapter, descriptive of the Japanese newspaper reporter, was, by Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain, considered to be "not only cleverly written," but so "true to the life" that he transferred the whole reprint to the pages of his excellent little cyclopædia of 'Things Japanese.' Widely read and praised on both sides of the Atlantic and Pacific, the diary is now republished in New York, with scores of illustrations which fit the text exactly and show the mind of artist and writer in unison. The author, a bright Canadian lady, has evidently intended to amuse especially "the British public, up in its Henry James." It is more than probable, however, that many of her best points will be invisible to the bold Briton, who is so often taken in by the wily Yankee or Canuck, by such a book as 'Democracy.' We have in mind a great English etcher and artist who, on shipboard, heard an American girl make repartee that, in our climate, electricity was so easily generated that the gas could be lighted not only by the young ladies' finger-tips, but even by their conversation. After two weeks' meditation upon that remark, the eminent man solemnly declared at a dinner-table that he had come to the conclusion that the young lady was joking.

Miss Duncan dedicates her "authorized edition" to Mrs. Grundy, as "a humble mark of profound esteem" and as "a slight tribute to the omnipotence of her opinion." She proceeds to picture Miss Orthodocia arriving at Montreal from England with the usual luggage so dear and sacred to the Briton. Orthodocia confronts the "customs surveillance in America by waving a red-flannel petticoat at the man in buttons, and, after compelling on his visage a terracotta-colored blush, comforts him with a shilling." The adventures of the English and the Canadian damsel as they travel through Canada in "sleepers" and ordinary cars, are narrated on pages crammed with laughter-provoking sentences. The two girls ride on a cowcatcher, and between what they imagine and what they say, there is fun enough. Arriving at Yokohama, after the ocean voyage, they are interviewed by a spectacled native reporter. The chapter describing this event is wonderfully accurate in details, and, what is still more remarkable, the Chinese characters on luggage label, interviewer's card, and newspaper extract are not upside down, as they usually are in American books, newspapers, and on theatrical posters. Nearly a hundred and fifty pages are devoted to Japan; and as these journalistic ladies have incredible powers of observation and entrance into unusual and difficult places, we have a fascinating chapter of Japanese life to date, as seen by foreigners with the eyes of women.

Only a single chapter is devoted to China. Ceylon, India, and Egypt are visited in succession, and the men, women, and animals of these countries are utilized to make witty paragraphs. Old civilizations, religions, customs, and people exist only for the paragrapher's jests; and, oblivious of solemn guide-books and tiresome writers and book-makers, these ladies of the note-book give us the antipodes in style and method of the ordinary globe-trotter's narrations. More than four hundred pages of the same sort of fun, monotonous despite its surface variety, become tiresome before the end is reached; otherwise the book may be warmly recommended as one good for the diaphragm and digestion, as well as for the head and mind.

Among the Moths and Butterflies. By Julia P. Ballard. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890. Pp. xxxvi, 237. 8vo. Illustrated.

IN this book, which is an enlarged and revised form of a work by Mrs. Ballard originally entitled 'Insect Lives,' the author has gathered numerous interesting and curious facts about the more remarkable American species of insects in question. Especial attention has been given to the rearing of the mature insect from the cocoon, the characteristics of the chrysalides, and the distinctive manners and habits of the various caterpillars and their parasites. The illustrations are exceptionally fine, and the appearance of the book in every way reflects credit on those concerned in its preparation. Mrs. Ballard successfully avoids technicalities on the one hand, and the trashy style affected by some so-called "popular" writers for the young on the other. We do not know of any recent book better fitted to interest well-grown boys and girls in the insect life about them; and the instances selected are, as they should be, a part of the history of American insects, illustrated by original and well-executed figures and clear diagrams.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Bride from the Bush. United States Book Co. 25 cents.

A. M. Mackay, Pioneer Missionary of the Church Missionary Society to Uganda. By his Sister. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.

Baldwin, J. Harper's Sixth Reader. Harper & Bros. 90 cents.

Besant, W. The Demoniac. United States Book Co. 50 cents.

Bettany, G. T. A Dead Man's Diary, Written after his Decease. Ward, Lock & Co.

Bettany, Jeanie G. A Laggard in Love. United States Book Co. 25 cents.

Boy's Own Manual. Fleming H. Revell. $3.20.

Brooks, Rev. F. The Light of the World. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Brown, A. The Genesis of the United States 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $15.

Bryson, Louise Fiske. Every-Day Etiquette. W. D. Kerr.

Champlin, J. D., jr., and Bostwick, A. E. The Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Games and Sports. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.

Clarke, J. F. Deacon Herbert's Bible-Class. Boston: George H. Ellis.

Collis, Septima M. A Woman's Trip to Alaska. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.50.

Coppée, François. Ten Tales. Harper & Bros.

Dale, R. W. The Living Christ and the Four Gospels. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.

Dickinson, Mrs. Ellen E. The King's Daughters. United States Book Co.

Ebers, G. The Elixir, and Other Tales. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.

Everett, W. Changing Base; or, What Edward Rice Learnt at School. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.

Everett, W. Double Play. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.

Everett, W. Thine, Not Mine. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.

Farjeon, B. L. A Very Young Couple. United States Book Co. 25 cents.

Farjeon, B. L. Basil and Annette. United States Book Co. 50 cents.

Fowler, T. Locke's Conduct of the Understanding. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Franklin Square Song Collection. No. 7. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.

Gibson, W. H. Strolls by Starlight and Sunshine. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.

Greenwood, Grace. History of My Pets. United States Book Co.

Greenwood, Grace. Stories of My Childhood. United States Book Co.

Guillemard, F. H. H. Ferdinand Magellan. London: George Philip & Son.

Harris, C. German Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 55 cents.
Hutton, L. Curiosities of the American Stage. Harper & Bros.
Iverach, J. St. Paul: His Life and Times. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Jefferies, R. The Gamekeeper at Home. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Kingsford, C. L. The Songs of Lewes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Kingsley, C. Hypatia. Illustrated. John W. Lovell Co. $2.50.
Kipling, R. Departmental Ditties, Barrack-Room Ballads, and Other Verses. United States Book Co.
Lefroy, W. C. The Ruined Abbeys of Yorkshire. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Lockhart, J. G. Life of Robert Burns. Revised ed. Ward, Lock & Co.
Lumby, J. R. The Acts of the Apostles. Cambridge: University Press.
MacKellar, T. Rhymes Atween-Times. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Mahaffy, J. P. The Greek World under Roman Sway. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Marryat, Florence. Brave Heart and True. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Martin, Annie. Home Life on an Ostrich Farm. London: George Philip & Son.
Martin, B. E. In the Footprints of Charles Lamb. Charles Scribner's Sons. $7.50.
McCarthy, J. Charing Cross to St. Paul's. Illustrated by Joseph Pennell. Macmillan & Co. $7.50.
McCosh, J. The Prevailing Types of Philosophy. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Muloch, Miss. John Halifax, Gentleman. Illustrated. John W. Lovell Co. $2.50.
Ohnet, G. Countess Sarah. The Waverley Co. 50 cents.
Perry, T. S. A History of Greek Literature. Henry Holt & Co. $7.50.
Psalms of the West. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Read, T. B. Sheridan's Ride. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Reade, C. Peg Woffington. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Reynolds, S. H. The Essays or Counsels, Civil and Moral, of Francis Bacon. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Rhoades, Lieut. H. E. Around the World with the Blue Jackets. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.75.
Rosengarten, J. G. The German Soldier in the Wars of the United States. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Rossetti, Christina G. Poems. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Savage, M. J. Life. Boston: George H. Ellis. $1.
Sheffield, S. P. The Burmah Treasure. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Sprague, P. W. Christian Socialism. E. P. Dutton & Co. 50 cents.
Stoddard, R. H. The Lion's Cub. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Thackeray, W. M. Vanity Fair. Illustrated. John W. Lovell Co. $2.50.
The Black-Box Murder. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Thomas, Annie. Le Beau Sabreur. United States Book Co. 25 cents.
Tiffler, C. My Uncle Benjamin. Boston: Benjamin R. Tucker.
Toland, M. B. M. Tissyac of the Yosemite. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Toy, C. H. Judaism and Christianity. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Tyng, C. R. Record of the Life and Work of the Rev. Stephen Higginson Tyng, and History of St. George's Church, New York. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Under the Nursery Lamp. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 75 cents.
Welch, W., and Duffield, C. G. Xenophon's Anabasis. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Wharton, Grace and Philip. Queens of Society. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Wharton, Grace and Philip. The Wits and Beaux of Society. 2 vols. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $5.
Wide Awake, Vol. DD. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 18, 1890.

The Week.

THE present Silver Law, coupled with a possible excess of Treasury disbursements over receipts in the coming fiscal year, threatens to upset the gold standard without any free-coinage attachment at all. The Secretary of the Treasury shows an apparent surplus of fifteen millions on the 1st of July, 1892, after eating all the cake left over for him by his predecessor in office. In order to figure out this surplus, he reckons on 373 millions of revenue after deducting the sugar duties that have been repealed. But experience has shown that every period of commercial disorder is followed by a heavy shrinkage of the revenue. Thus, the total revenue of 1872 was 374 millions. In the following year it fell to 333 millions, and it continued to shrink until 1878, when it was as low as 257 millions. Again, after the disturbances of 1883-'4 it sank from 398 millions to 323 millions. It was in consequence of this shrinkage that Secretary McCulloch was under the necessity of conferring with the banks respecting silver payments. And it was owing to that conference that some gold was hoarded and some sent abroad at that time. Fortunately there is a surplus in the Treasury now, but it is a surplus that can be used only once. Whenever, from any cause, the surplus and the current receipts are overtaken by current disbursements, the silver standard will be upon us, whether we have free coinage or not. Therefore it is not sufficient to pat the silver-men on the head and coax them not to do anything worse than they have already done. Confidence will not be restored by any such means.

It is impossible to suppose that Secretary Windom really believes that the buying up of all the silver bullion in sight by the Government and issuing Treasury notes on it will relieve the monetary stringency. The only stringency that would be relieved by such a measure would be that of the present owners of the bullion. They would "come out ahead," no doubt. Everybody else would be left in the rear. What the community needs and is suffering for is not more bits of paper, but more confidence in the goodness of what we now have. Restore this confidence, and we shall not want more silver, or more gold, or more paper. The Government has been "holding silver up by the tail" ever since 1878. The more it buys, the heavier the load becomes. If it now buys $13,000,000 worth in addition to the regular monthly purchase, it will have to drop the load so much the sooner. Probably the Secretary is trying to head off the free-coinage men by offering them a new compromise. But ever such compromise convinces them that they have been right all the time. They will get what is offered them now as an instalment, and call for the remainder the next day. If Mr. Windom would leave a reputation behind him worth having, let him set his face sternly against every silver proposition, great or small.

The Republican Senate caucus on Monday evening did not reach any definite conclusion respecting the financial measure to be adopted, but did nevertheless indicate the drift of sentiment in the party. Free coinage of silver was voted down by 30 to 13. This is not absolutely conclusive of the action of the Senate, but it probably settles that question for the present Congress. The project for buying all the silver in the market and issuing legal-tender notes on the basis of the purchase was considered, but not adopted. According to the reports in the newspapers, the consideration of this branch of the subject was postponed. On the other hand, the coinage into standard dollars of the surplus silver now in the Treasury (the trade dollars and the subsidiary coins) was apparently agreed to. This feature of the bill is nugatory, since it adds nothing to the disbursements of the Government. It makes available a dead capital of about twenty-five millions. This sum can be paid out in the form of certificates, but since the whole financial question hinges on gold payments at the Treasury, the promised relief is more apparent than real. The Secretary can take his idle silver and issue legal-tender notes against it on condition of redeeming the notes in gold; but Congress could authorize him to issue the notes on the same conditions without any silver at all. It appears that Mr. Windom's interconvertible-bond scheme did not meet with favor, and that Mr. Sherman's new Legal-Tender Bill was not agreed to in the shape in which he presented it, but it may come up again.

The Cleveland *Leader* is very much cast down because Special Treasury-Agent Tingle has furnished so much ammunition to Sir Julian Pauncefote in his Bering Sea correspondence with "the greatest statesman of the age"—*i. e.*, James G. Blaine. The greatest statesman had insisted that the fur seal was rapidly approaching extermination in consequence of poaching and marauding—two phrases which have been frequently used lately in place of fishing and sealing. Sir Julian, on the other hand, favored Mr. Blaine with copies of two official reports from the special agent of our Treasury, Mr. George R. Tingle, one of these reports being as late as last year, affirming that in spite of poaching and marauding and regular killing on the islands, the number of seals has doubled in sixteen years, and is now larger than it has ever been since we acquired Alaska. This is certainly very embarrassing. It illustrates once more the need, even for the greatest statesman of the age, that he should not leave his correspondents in doubt as to the facts—as he left Senator Frye, last year, on the subject of reciprocity. But after all, this is only a side issue in the Bering Sea correspondence. If there were only one pair of seals left in Bering Sea, the right of any British, or Russian, or German, or Japanese sailor to capture them, outside the three-mile limit, could not be gainsaid under international law.

The official canvass of the Iowa vote, which has just been completed, brings out very clearly what is really the most striking feature of all the recent elections. This is the fact that the political revolution which gave the Democrats six, instead of one, of the eleven Congressmen, was the result of a remarkably full vote. Ordinarily, the election for Congressmen two years after a President was chosen shows a heavy falling off in the poll, but this year the total vote for Congressmen, 389,167, fell only about 13,000 short of the unprecedented total of 402,526 in 1888. There was only one district, the Eleventh, in which the Farmers' Alliance ran a candidate, and the 4,658 votes which he received were obviously drawn chiefly from the Republican side. Excluding these from consideration, the totals of the two parties in 1888 and 1890 stand:

	Republican.	Democratic.
1888	215,084	184,378
1890	185,781	194,902

In other words, almost as many men having gone to the polls in 1890 as in 1888, the Democrats poll above 10,000 votes more now than then. Still further, there were two districts in which the vote for Congressmen this year was actually larger than two years ago, and two others in which it was but a trifle short, and in these districts the Republican loss was most pronounced, as the following figures show:

	1888.		1890.	
	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.
Third	21,457	16,872	19,089	19,491
Fifth	19,447	16,937	17,800	18,153

Republican editors who have been claiming that their party's defeat was due to a light vote, and that McKinleyism would have won if people had gone to the polls as in a Presidential year, will find food for reflection in these Iowa figures.

The Chicago *Tribune* (Rep.) pointed out sharply a few days ago the effect at the last election on the "smokers' vote" of the increased McKinley duty on tobacco wrappers for cigars. The *Tribune* stated truly that the new and vexatious tax was intended chiefly to catch the votes of Democratic tobacco-growers in Connecticut, and it might have added that the foremost promoters in Congress of the higher tax were Senators Platt and Hawley and Representative Simonds, whose district includes Hartford County, in which is the most prolific tobacco-raising region in the State. Mr. Simonds took the stump on this tobacco "issue" in his district, and both he and the Hartford *Courant*, partly owned by Senator Hawley, loudly trumpeted the alleged benefits of the

tax for the tobacco farmers. For the response to their exertions, let us take the official Congressional pluralities at the last two elections in thirteen towns of Hartford County, which a voluminous history of that county, printed four years ago, mentions as tobacco towns. These towns in 1888 gave a net Republican plurality of 594 votes, and at the last election a net plurality for the same party of 538 votes, showing a Democratic gain of 56. Included in the list is the town of Suffield, which some years ago is stated to have contained 316 farms, on all but 24 of which tobacco was raised. This town gave at the last election a gain of only 4 Republican votes, and, on the vote for Governor, it polled a Democratic gain of 7 votes in a total vote cast last month by both parties of 638. The Congressional district contains other tobacco-towns besides the above, yet it changed a plurality for Mr. Simonds of 813 in 1888 into a plurality of 692 for his Democratic opponent, plunging the *Courant* into the lowest depths of pathos, and prompting it, a day or two after election, to upbraid the tobacco-farmers as ungrateful. The figures show strikingly the vigor of the revolt against the McKinleyites in a tobacco district which they had chosen for special favor, yet in which their candidate for Congress was smoked out.

Mr. Clarkson's paper, the *Iowa State Register*, being in trouble about the advance in the price of carpets, tells its readers that it cannot be due to an advance in the price of wool, because wool has not advanced since the McKinley Bill went into effect. This is what Congressman Dingley said to Editor Dingley a short time ago, deceiving the latter and causing him to make a mistake in his newspaper, the Lewiston *Journal*. We have been at pains to inquire the prices of *carpet wool* before and since the McKinley Bill went into operation, and we find them to be as follows:

	May, 1890.	Nov., 1890.
Combing Donskoi	23	26
East India, Kandahar	24	27
Cordova	15¼	16¼
Syrian, unwashed	12½	14
Camel's hair	10	15

The advance in the prices of carpet wool would have been greater but for the extreme stringency in the money market. The exceptional advance in camel's hair is due to the fact that it was formerly on the free list but is now taxed 32 per cent. ad valorem—for what reason, only heaven and McKinley know, seeing that we have no home camels to protect. But neither have we any home Donskoi sheep to protect. Probably Clarkson and Dingley thought that carpets were made of XX Ohio fleece, the price of which has not advanced, but on the contrary has declined a trifle since the McKinley Bill went into operation, as the astute organ of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia predicted that it would. It may be that the price of XX Ohio fleece will decline so much that the carpet-manufacturers can afford to use it instead of Donskoi, East Indian, Cordova, etc.; but it has not reached that point yet.

An embryo political economist has been "trying his hand" on the Canadian turkey aspect of the McKinley tariff problem through the medium of a Boston despatch to the *Tribune*. His text was a telegram from Ottawa saying that seventeen car-loads of turkeys were on their way to Boston from the former city, and that their total duties, at the McKinley rate of five cents a pound, would amount to $15,000. A Boston newspaper, presumably in the pay of the Cobden Club, had put a "big headline" over the telegram, declaring that the "new tariff added $15,000 to the cost of Boston turkeys." The *Tribune's* correspondent cites the opinions of a thoughtful poultry-dealer to show the "absurdity" of this headline. The dealer's first position is that "turkeys will not be a cent higher because of the duty on Canadian poultry," for the reason that the "$15,000 of duties will not be paid by the consumer. The birds will come upon the street at the usual price, but the Canadian farmers lose five cents per pound upon their birds. The $15,000 of duties comes out of them." Without pausing to explain how it "comes out of them," the dealer goes on to say:

"The duty of five cents per pound on Canadian poultry is one of the best things that ever happened to New England. The Canadians will send no more poultry here, and there is nothing to prevent our farmers raising poultry at a profit again in New England. The whole thing is as simple as can be. Instead of the Canadians making us pay $15,000 more for their poultry, as is falsely asserted, they are, in fact, paying our Government $15,000 for the privilege of selling poultry here. That, however, is not profitable for them, and they had not intended to send poultry here this year, nor will they again."

The whole thing is, indeed, "as simple as can be," and the dealer makes all further elucidation of the problem unnecessary when he says that the stopping of the importation of Canadian poultry will enable New England farmers to raise "poultry at a profit *again*." That means that they will get a higher price for it, does it not? It means, also, that the consumer, and not the Canadian farmers, will pay the five cents per pound duty in the end, does it not? Else of what use is the duty?

Senator Quay has gone to Pennsylvania to assist his late candidate, Delamater, in settling his financial embarrassments. It should be a cause for great rejoicing among the Republicans of the State that this settlement will be made openly with Mr. Delamater as a private citizen rather than secretly with him as the Governor of Pennsylvania. Mr. Delamater has among his liabilities as a banker $100,000 of State funds and about $50,000 as county funds. If he had been elected Governor, and Quay had been his adviser about the proper way to "tide over" such troubles as that, we have undisputed precedent for the method which Quay would favor. He would say: "Take it, and whatever else you may need to make you easy, from the State Treasury, and trust to getting the money back there again in some way or other." This, of course, cannot be done now, as Mr. Delamater is not at the head of the State Government.

Nothing shows more clearly the remarkable wisdom which governed Mr. Fayerweather's munificent gifts to the cause of education than his bequest of $100,000 to the Hampton (Va.) Normal and Agricultural Institute, for it is safe to say that there is no place in the country where $100,000 can be used to better advantage. The report of the Institute for the school year ending last June has just been published, and shows that the work of education in which it is engaged was never in a more hopeful condition—as also never more in need of liberal endowment, by reason of its steadily widening opportunities for usefulness. The number of negro pupils now exceeds 500, besides whom there are about 130 youths from the Indian country; and the great majority of the graduates become at once teachers in the colored schools, where trained teachers are so much needed. The Institute long since passed beyond that experimental stage in which it might have been thought dependent upon the remarkable personality of its founder and present principal, Gen. Armstrong, and its permanent success is now assured with such an endowment fund as it should have. This fund amounted to about $200,000 last June, and should be at least a million. It is to be hoped that other wealthy men contemplating educational bequests will show as wise discrimination in selecting the objects of their beneficence as the late Mr. Fayerweather.

It has been very difficult to get at, through the despatches, the exact state of affairs in Ireland. The Conservative press in England and Ireland, and the news agencies which serve it, are naturally interested in making Parnell's success with the voters appear as complete as possible. Every Tory and anti-Gladstonian is filled with delight by Parnell's course, and "always knew" the Irish trouble would end in this way—that is, that Parnell would be taken in adultery and refuse to resign his leadership. To make the prognostication complete and effective, however, the Irish have now to be made to stand by him to a man and throw his opponents overboard. It is impossible to tell as yet how much support he is receiving. His opponents have been naturally reluctant to speak out as long as accommodation seemed possible, so that the more ignorant and noisy have had things their own way. But there is even in Ireland sober second thought, and the influence of the Catholic clergy is a tremendous force in Irish politics, although it works silently. The reluctance of Irishmen to repudiate Parnell is natural and by no means wholly discreditable. In claims on Irish gratitude he has had only two equals—Grattan and O'Connell. On the gratitude of

the Catholic population his claims are far higher than those of Grattan. He has wrung from both English parties within the last ten years legislation which one year before his appearance seemed absolutely hopeless. He is, too, the most accomplished parliamentarian in the House of Commons, not excepting Gladstone. No people worthy of any able man's service gets rid of such a leader in the twinkling of an eye. The English would not, nor would Americans: witness the nomination of Mr. Blaine, after the most thorough exposure of character any public man had ever received, and the support Quay has received in Pennsylvania simply for achieving success. It is the height of folly, under all the circumstances, to try to save Parnell, but it is folly which has some traces of wisdom in it. The baseness and meanness in the whole business are to be found in Parnell himself.

Trenchant criticism of one aspect of Gen. Booth's great scheme for redeeming "darkest England" has been uttered by Prof. Huxley. The same number of the London *Times* which contained it contained also a very destructive letter from Mr. Loch, the Secretary of the London Charity Organization Society, the counterpart of the society we have in New York. Mr. Loch first attacks the General's statistics regarding the numbers of the helpless poor in England, showing that he has taken the figures from his authority, Mr. Charles Booth's 'Labor and Life of the People,' with at least great carelessness. He includes in the mass he is to take care of in his colonies 124,000 "casual laborers," such as the dock companies employ, and yet he wants $5,000,000 "earnest money" to begin his experiment with. The experience of the East and West India Dock Companies in dealing with only a small number of these same "casuals," as stated in their last annual report, is that their expenditures were increased by $350,000 last year "in consequence of the increase of wages and decrease in the efficiency of their laborers." If $350,000 go in this way in a single year, dealing with one small fraction of Gen. Booth's paupers in an established industry, how far would $5,000,000 go in dealing with the whole mass in concerns in which there was no attempt to make ends meet? The most forcible part of the letter is, however, that in which Mr. Loch points out the immense amount of talent, energy, and humanity in connection with churches and with charitable associations now devoted to the relief of the London poor—a hundred-fold greater than Gen. Booth could command, and doing the work with an attention to individual and local peculiarities which it would be impossible for him or his workers to undertake. What is most needed in dealing with city pauperism and vice in our day in England and America, is, as Mr. Loch says, a concentration of effort on the part of the churches and leaders of charities in a common, "systematic, and unflinching attack on courts and alleys, usually well known in a district, which harbor groups of degraded men and women."

Belgium, Italy, and Spain and Austria and England still retain a property qualification for the exercise of the Parliamentary franchise. It is small in all of them, but larger in Belgium than in any other, and excludes a larger proportion of the male population. This has long been one of the grievances of the Belgian workingmen, who of late years have been the most turbulent in Europe, and the most reckless in striking. The Chamber of Deputies has now at last consented to take into consideration the propriety of modifying or repealing the forty-seventh article of the Constitution, which confines the election of representatives to voters paying fifty francs annually in taxes. Last year this gave the franchise to only one in thirteen of the adult male population. The abolition of this qualification has formed part of the programme of the advanced Radicals almost ever since the monarchy was founded and the Constitution adopted, sixty years ago; but it has been steadily and successfully resisted both by Conservatives and Liberals, owing to the dread of the Clericals on the one hand and of the Socialists on the other. In the country districts the influence of the clergy on the working class is very great, while the cities and the mining districts swarm with Communists and Anarchists. In that interval both France and Germany have gone over to universal suffrage, but the Belgians have remained firm, in spite of great discontent and numerous disorders. The bulk of the Chamber seems to be at last convinced that universal suffrage is the best sort of safety-valve, and that anyhow it is the fate of all modern nations, which it is useless to try to resist. When the Conservatives gave in to railways and public schools, the day was lost for the old order. So the Chamber has unanimously voted the consideration of a change, but the two-thirds vote would be necessary to decide what the change should be, if any.

One of the most interesting signs of the times in France is the gradual adhesion of the Church to the Republicans. There have been indications for some time back that the higher clergy were disposed to come over, but none of them had publicly given up the monarchy as a lost cause until Cardinal Lavigerie led the way a few weeks ago. The collapse of Boulangism, and the exposure of the Royalist alliance with it, coming close on the triumph of the Republic at the election, has undoubtedly precipitated the surrender of the Church, for such we may consider it. Cardinal Lavigerie's position has received the public adhesion of the Bishop of Annecy in an interesting letter, in which he discusses with great clearness, though in brief terms, the condition and prospects of the monarchical idea in French politics, in answer to the question, Is monarchy still possible in France? "It is possible," he says, "if the monarchical spirit still exists in France." But what is the "monarchical spirit"? It is the feeling that there ought to be in the country a sovereignty, and that this sovereignty belongs to one family, as a house might belong to it, and that the conditions of the sovereignty and of its transmission are exactly the same as those of private property. This monarchical spirit once existed in France, and had a strength such, perhaps, as it has never had in any other European country. Does it exist in France now? By no means; there is not a trace of it left. In its absence is it possible to restore monarchy? If a king were again set up in France, how long could he be kept on the throne? What would be the use of a king whose tenure of office was precarious, seeing that the chief political value of a monarchy lies in its permanence? Finally, if monarchy be not possible in France, what is the use of discussing its merits as a form of government? These questions of the Bishop are all posers. To ask them is to answer them. But he does not conclude by offering the alliance of the Church to the Republicans now in power. He declares himself a Republican, but says that religious men must try for a better sort of official Republicans than those who now rule France.

A good deal of a flurry has been caused in Spanish politics in connection with the enrolment of voters under the new law extending the suffrage. A central commission had the work in charge in general, while provincial committees had the immediate oversight of the labor of making up the lists in their respective localities. The Central Commission was made up of representatives of all parties—even Ruiz Zorrilla being invited home from his exile in Paris to take part in its deliberations—and it contained rather more Liberals than Conservatives. In the course of business, it became necessary to set aside certain actions of the Provincial Committee of Coruña, on the ground of illegality, and it fell to the lot of the Conservative Minister, Señor Silvela, to communicate to the latter the decision of the Commission. He did so in terms which were regarded as highly offensive by his colleagues in that body, since he told the Coruña committee that they could do as they pleased about obeying the mandate sent them from Madrid. The Liberals and Republicans jumped at the chance to make a point against their opponents, Sagasta hurrying back from his stumping tour in Catalonia to bring in some resolutions hotly denouncing the disrespect shown the Central Commission, and calling the attention of the Cortes to the way the Conservatives were disregarding the authority expressly conferred upon it by law. It was even proposed, at one time, to demand of the Queen Regent a decree calling together the Cortes to pass upon the matter, but this was dropped as impracticable. One serious result of the agitation has been the decision of Cánovas and Silvela to have nothing more to do with the Commission, on the ground that they have been insulted by it. This will make almost impossible a non-partisan execution of the new suffrage law.

THE MONEY QUESTION.

MR. EDWARD ATKINSON has drawn attention, in two timely articles in *Bradstreet's*, to the difference between what is called the circulating medium and the circulation. The circulating medium is money, *i. e.*, gold and silver coin, greenbacks, national-bank notes, gold and silver certificates, and Treasury notes. The circulation includes all these and a great deal more. It embraces checks, drafts, bills of exchange, and bank clearings. These last-mentioned instruments carry on the wholesale trade of the country. In the cities, where the wholesale trade is chiefly done, they are vastly in excess of the circulating medium. Some fresh information on this subject has been supplied by the Comptroller of the Currency in his recent annual report. Following the example of his predecessor, Mr. Knox, he called for statements from all the national banks of their handlings of all kinds of money and of other circulation, *i. e.*, checks, drafts, etc., on the 1st day of July and on the 17th day of September, 1890. The results of the "turnover" of these two days are as follows:

	July 1.		September 17.	
	Money. Per cent.	Other circul'n. Per cent.	Money. Per cent.	Other circul'n, Per cent.
New York city	3.96	96.04	4.36	95.64
Other reserve cities.....	6.32	93.68	7.73	92.27
All other banks	15.91	84.09	17.09	82.91
United States..	7.50	92.50	8.96	91.04

These tables deal with bank deposits. They show what the banks took in on the particular days and held in their vaults, subject to the checks of the depositors, and forming, with their own capital, the basis of their loans and discounts.

The law requires that the banks shall keep 25 per cent. of their deposits in the form of "lawful money." Technically this phrase includes only coin and greenbacks, but since any bank can get gold coin for any kind of money it may have on hand, the distinction is not important. We see that, so far as the banks are concerned, there may always be (and there generally is) four dollars of *circulation* to every dollar of *circulating medium*.

But this is not all. The *circulation* is more active than the *circulating medium*. It transacts more business, dollar for dollar. The New York banks meet every working day and swap checks to the average amount of one hundred and forty million dollars. In the month of November the swappings amounted to more than three thousand million dollars, while those of all the clearing-houses in the nation in the same month amounted to upwards of five thousand millions. The whole amount of circulating medium in the country was a little less than fifteen hundred millions. That the circulation is more efficient than the circulating medium is shown by the fact that checks, drafts, etc, are always on the move, while money in one's pocket, or in his old stocking, or his safe, may remain there for weeks, or months, or even years.

Enough has been said to show that the circulating medium is an inconsiderable part of the instruments of exchange in this country, and hence that when people clamor for more silver or more greenbacks, they have very little conception of what is needed to "relieve the money market." And here we remark that of all the subjects ever brought to the decision of town-meetings, those of currency and finance are least suited to that mode of solution. In all other civilized countries such subjects are left to the decision of the trained intellects. Men who, by the process of natural selection, have come to the front as experts and economists, are everywhere, except in the United States, intrusted with the exclusive management of the public finances. We could easily pick out a dozen such men, now or lately in public life, who would be perfectly competent to manage the job, provided they could carry out their plans without danger of losing their places. Senators Sherman and Allison, Secretary Windom, and ex-Secretaries Fairchild and McCulloch, Comptroller Lacey and ex-Comptrollers Knox and Trenholm (not to mention men of equal or greater eminence as thinkers and publicists who have not yet held office) would be quite as fit to lay out and execute a plan of finance, safe, durable, and beneficent, as Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Goschen, or M. Léon Say, provided that they were not obliged to wrestle with a mass of turbulent and pretentious ignorance at home. The town-meeting management of the national finances is the chief danger of the country, and we are all suffering from it severely to-day.

For example, only four months ago there was a general pæan of rejoicing over the passage of the new Silver Bill, which, according to a popular conception, echoed by several backboneless statesmen who knew better, was to make money plenty and relieve a stringency which did not then exist. The bill had hardly got in operation when a real stringency came on, which has been hardening ever since, and is now more severe and widespread than any that the country has experienced since the panic of 1873. We took occasion to point out when this bill was passed that it could not possibly make money more plentiful, but must have rather the reverse effect, since it would abstract from our foreign exchanges —*i. e.*, our exportable surplus—thirty million dollars' worth of property per year, and because also no man could get one of the new silver dollars without paying 100 cents gold value for it. By paying 100 cents gold value he could, and can to-day, get a gold dollar.

But another effect has been produced which we did not look for so soon. The Silver Bill has weakened confidence in our standard of value both at home and abroad. That it has led to the hoarding of gold is evident from the following official figures:

	July, 1890.	Dec., 1890.
Net gold in U. S. Treasury.	$184,092,000	$165,560,000
Specie in New York banks.	80,367,000	67,838,000
	$264,459,000	$233,398,000
Decrease in visible supply of gold.....		$31,061,000

It is certain that if the holders of capital here and in Europe were of the opinion that ere long their money would be subject to a shrinkage of 25 per cent., or 10 per cent., or any per cent., they would withdraw it from the dangerous neighborhood as fast as possible. *Free coinage of silver means the demonetization of gold.* It will not be accomplished in this country without the most tremendous financial crash that the world has ever seen. Before a free-coinage bill could get into operation there would be poured back upon us from Europe hundreds of millions of securities to be sold for what they would bring. Although we might buy these securities for less than their value, it would be at the expense of breaking the "debtor class" utterly, of plunging into bankruptcy hundreds and thousands of otherwise solvent men and industries, and throwing out of employment temporarily millions of workingmen and women. We have seen what ravages can be committed upon us by the selling of American securities by European capitalists to fortify themselves against an Argentine crisis. That is but a zephyr in comparison with the cyclone that will strike our industrial fabric whenever the world of finance shall become convinced that we mean to lower our standard of value.

And let it be observed that it is not Europe alone that is going to take the alarm and snatch its money out of danger. Our own capitalists will be even more alert, because they will be better informed. They will know how to save their 25 per cent. just as well as Englishmen, or Germans, or Dutchmen, and will be just as ready to do so. Safe deposits were hired to hoard gold in during the early months of 1885, when it was feared that the Treasury would be forced by a shortage of revenue to "pay out silver." Sterling exchange was bought at that time for no other purpose than to transfer gold to London. That danger was slight, and it soon passed away. But let it come again, and the instinct of self-preservation will come with it. The Treasury will be gutted of its gold in a trice, and the circulating medium will be depleted not merely of all the gold now in it, but of all the fiduciary circulation that rests upon it. Eventually there will be a rebuilding—slow and rickety—on the silver basis, but it will be over the ruins of whatever exists now. Most people who owe anything will have been wiped out, and those who owe nothing will be richer than before, because they will have been the only ones able to buy property at the slaughter. As a political issue, we would rather be responsible for ten McKinley bills than for one free-coinage-of-silver bill after the people had once had a taste of it.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S PLAN.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S bill "to prevent contraction of the currency and for other purposes" has one feature distinguishing it from all other plans that have been brought forward at Washington, in that it does not call for any more silver. Instead of this, it provides for more greenbacks. Apparently the additional greenbacks are intended to take the place of the national-bank notes to be hereafter retired, but they

will perform a more important office. There is no provision in the bill prescribing any particular disposition to be made of the new greenbacks. Therefore they may be used for current expenses of the Government, and of course would be so used in case of a shortage of revenue. The bill says that they shall be issued and reissued. The only way to issue a note is to pay it out for something. The Secretary is not inhibited from paying out the new notes for bonds, but he is not restricted to that employment. Under the conditions of specie redemption, the point which we are considering is not very important, but it is worth noting that the bill, if it should pass, would put a new resource into the Secretary's hands, and that, if he should avail himself of it, it would be tantamount to borrowing money to pay current expenses. It would also be obtaining money by forced loan in time of peace, and without paying interest for it—a method of raising the wind that would have been popular a few years ago, and would perhaps be so now if it had not been superseded by a new species of folly.

The new folly is the silver craze. Both have their origin in the Legal-Tender Act of 1862. That ill-starred and slovenly measure first put the notion in people's heads that the Government could make money. Up to that time the opinion had been held universally that the office and function of government with respect to money was limited to a certification of the purity and weight of the metal contained in it. Bank notes were looked upon as promises to pay money—sometimes good and sometimes bad promises, but never as the money itself. These correct ideas were upset by the Legal-Tender Act in the minds of uninstructed people, and it came to be understood by such persons that anything which the Government should choose to call money would be money. This misconception was helped on and confirmed by successive decisions of the Supreme Court, the last one affirming the power of Congress to issue legal-tender notes at any time, and in any amount, at its sole discretion, whether the notes were redeemable or not. Mr. H. C. Adams has shown very clearly that the cost of the war to the taxpayers was increased 800 millions more than was necessary by the Legal-Tender Act. It would have been fortunate for the country if the mischief had ended there. But the false notions that it bred were even more deleterious, nor have we seen the end of them yet.

Senator Sherman is not the victim of any delusions on the subject of legal tender, but his bill will make fresh victims whether it passes or not, because he will be quoted as an authority in support of the idea that the Government can make money. If the Government can make money, why should any of us work for a living? Why should we have national banks? Aye, there's the rub! The war against the banks had its origin in the Legal-Tender Act. That crusade is supported and carried on to-day by the wrong notion that the Government can make money. If the Government can do that, people ask, why should we have banks to do the same thing? This is a specious question. The conclusion is only too plausible that the banks are usurping a governmental function, whereas the Government is really usurping a bank function, to the injury of itself and of the banks and of the whole community. It is for the interest of every man, woman, and child in the United States that the national-banking system, note issue and all, should be preserved, extended, and fortified, and so it would be but for the bad education that the Legal-Tender Act has diffused throughout the land.

Another section of Mr. Sherman's bill provides for the issue of one hundred millions of 2 per cent. bonds, redeemable at the pleasure of the United States, of the denomination of $50, or some multiple thereof, the proceeds to be used for the redemption or purchase of any bonds now outstanding. About sixty millions of 4½ per cents, which fall due next September, were outstanding on the 1st of the present month. Some have been bought since. Probably Mr. Sherman has in contemplation the payment of these maturing bonds without trenching on the existing surplus or the current receipts of the Treasury. If this is the design, the making of the new bonds of a denomination low enough to attract savings depositors is a good idea. It is not at all unlikely that $100,000,000 could be secured in that way at 2 per cent. interest. But why $100,000,000 should be asked for when less than $60,000,000 of the old bonds are to be redeemed is not apparent. None of this money could, by the terms of the bill, be applied to the payment of current expenses. Although we must pronounce Mr. Sherman's plan of issuing more greenbacks mischievous, we consider it better than any silver bill whatsoever, since it keeps the standard of value unchanged. Even if it should lead to a temporary suspension of specie payments—and this would not happen if the limitations of the bill are preserved—the gold standard would be returned to after a little, and would be easily regained by a country as rich as ours. Nor would a temporary suspension produce so great confusion and disaster as a change to the silver standard. It will be objected to Mr. Sherman's bill that it does not deal with the present stringency at all. The issue of new greenbacks cannot exceed three millions per month under existing laws and will probably be less. But, if it does not promise any relief, it does not threaten to make matters worse than they are now, as every silver bill does.

A NEW MUNICIPAL SOCIETY WANTED.

WHAT this city stands in great need of is a Society for the Systematic and Continuous Prodding of Delinquent Officials. It should be the purpose of such a society to follow up Tammany officials, like Mr. Beattie for example, with specific complaints of his daily neglect of duty, and to follow up his replies to these complaints with specific demonstrations of their evasive and unsatisfactory character. All this prodding work should be done with the largest amount of publicity possible. We think that the People's Municipal League could not perform a more valuable public service than to establish a society of this kind as a department of its own work. The women of the city, who are eager to contribute their time and energy to the cause of municipal reform, would be invaluable aids in such a department.

There is nothing which officials of the Beattie type have more reason to fear than persistent publicity of their shortcomings. They do not mind occasional attacks in the newspapers, no matter how specific these may be, for they are confident that these will not continue long, and that the popular dissatisfaction which they may arouse will soon blow over. Then, too, the curious composition of the journalistic nature renders it almost certain that the more specific and damaging the attack which one newspaper may make upon an official is, the less will be the likelihood of any other city newspaper joining in the exposure and helping to bring the delinquent to justice, or secure his removal or a reform in his methods. The likelihood is far greater, in fact, that a damaging exposure will bring rival newspapers to his defence. The usual result is a division of public sentiment, a general conclusion that the attack was more or less inspired by political motives, that after all there is something to be said on both sides, and that the attacked official was not so black as he was painted. If we had a non-partisan society, composed of ladies and gentlemen who were known to have no other object than the welfare of the city at heart, which should make these attacks, and which should sustain them with evidence of its own collecting, a far more serious impression might be produced. In the first place, all the newspapers would be, from the necessity of the case, forced to publish the evidence simultaneously. No element of journalistic rivalry could enter into the publication unless the Society's managers should be so preposterously indiscreet as to give one newspaper the benefit of a "beat." If there were any rivalry, the chances are very much in favor of the supposition that it would be in the direction of zeal in support of the Society's work.

The advantages of such systematic following up of an official like Mr. Beattie are so obvious that it is scarcely necessary to point them out. He contents himself, whenever he is attacked, with general excuses of inadequate funds and with general denials of specific instances of neglect of duty. The only way by which the evasive nature of his defence can be exposed is by specific evidence of its untruthfulness. A good illustration of the effectiveness of the specific method was furnished on Thursday when a reporter submitted to the President of the Health Board Mr. Beattie's assertion, taken down a few moments before, that the "streets were never in a fairer condition than they are now." The President, who had just received the report of a specific inquiry instituted by himself, at once responded with a list of ten streets on the east side whose condition convicted Mr. Beattie of either ignorance or falsehood.

If something like this could be done every day in all the newspapers of the city; if Mr. Beattie could be forced to make answers daily upon a formal collection of complaints, and the complaints and answers, with subsequent exposures of the truth or falsehood of the answers, were all to be published in the newspapers, we venture to say that there would be an improvement in the condition of our streets within a very short period, or Mr. Beattie would have a successor.

What a Prodding Society could do with Mr. Beattie it could do with all other officials of his kind. It could follow up the Commissioner of Public Works and see how he was executing his paving and other contracts, calling him to account for suspected delinquencies and publishing the documentary evidence on both sides. If eternal vigilance be the price of liberty, it is certainly also the price of decent government in this city. The work which we suggest would require thorough organization, intelligence of high order, indomitable perseverance, and funds, but we believe that all these would be forthcoming if the work were to be undertaken by the League's managers. That excellent organization the City Reform Club has pointed the way, and has demonstrated conclusively that success is not unattainable. Its persistent efforts to have members of the Tammany Excise Board compelled by the courts to perform their simple sworn duty, furnish a model upon which to found the Society of Prodders which we suggest.

None of our city officials is more in need of frequent and sharp prodding than the Mayor himself. He demanded Mr. Coleman's removal from the Street-Cleaning Department because he said in the Mayor's presence that the streets were clean. The Mayor refused to "discredit the evidence of his own senses" that they were not clean. He declared in his annual message at that time that it was the "firm purpose of the municipal government to secure clean streets," that "no excuse would be accepted for dirty thoroughfares," and that "to plead the existence of difficulties is a confession of inefficiency." This was on January 6, 1890. Since that time the condition of our streets has been growing steadily worse, chiefly because of the Mayor's conduct in putting such men as "Eddie" Hagan and Hans Beattie in charge of the Street-Cleaning Bureau. The Mayor has modified his views of the work to meet partially, but not wholly, the manner in which his appointees have performed it, for he said in his last annual message that "no effective system of street cleaning was possible" with the old method of pavements, but that "when the new pavements shall have been completed it is perfectly safe to assert that, while the cost of this branch of the public service will be largely decreased, its efficiency will be more than doubled." He must modify this view to meet Mr. Beattie's utter failure to clean the "new pavement" as well as the old, and his demand for increased rather than decreased expenditures. Public daily prodding would be a valuable aid to a Mayor of this character.

THE IRISH CRISIS.

By far the most interesting feature in the struggle now going on in Ireland between the Parnellites and the anti-Parnellites lies in the fact that it is the first time in Irish history in which the voters have been called on to settle by their votes, or other expression of opinion, a question seriously affecting their welfare. Every other question of vital importance to Ireland, since the Union, has been settled by the votes of Englishmen and Scotchmen, with but little if any regard to Irish opinion. Catholic Emancipation was delayed for forty years through fear of offending English and Scotch prejudices, although there was during the whole period some fear that the delay might lead to an Irish rebellion. The recent pacificatory legislation—such as the disestablishment of the Anglican Church and the various land bills—was all carried because an English and Scotch majority approved of it, and with little or no regard to the wishes or feelings of the Irish. It has been universally assumed in all legislation for Ireland, until the Gladstonian alliance with the Home-Rulers, that Englishmen and Scotchmen knew better what was good for the Irish than the Irish knew themselves, and that it was foolish, if not disreputable, to consult the Irish members about Irish bills. The Home-Rule agitation has, even if it end now in failure, done the very great service of calling English attention to the absurdity of giving the Irish a large representation in the House of Commons, and then treating it as a mere formality—a *vox et præterea nihil*.

The result has been that though the Irish Catholics have now had the Parliamentary franchise for nearly a century, it has given them no proper sense of political responsibility. No Irish legislation has been originated by Irish members. No Irish question has been decided in Parliament by their votes. No Irishman has, since the Union, ever voted for a member of Parliament knowing or believing that the election of that member would have an important influence on Irish affairs, or that his conduct in Parliament would seriously affect the interests of his constituents. Irish members elected by the popular party have, therefore, been elected rather as agitators than as legislators. It was not necessary to consider their capacity as men of business, or drafters of bills, or as economists or lawyers. The one qualification required of them, and the only one there was any use in requiring of them, was that they should be good brawlers; that they should "make it hot" for the Government, and keep Englishmen and Scotchmen reminded that they represented a discontented, seditious, and implacable community. No Irish voter was ever able to call them to account when they came home for the success or failure of any bill, for the imposition of any tax, or for the shelving of any grievance. Every one of them had a ready and complete answer to all charges of neglect or incompetency in the fact that he had no influence, good, bad, or indifferent, on Irish legislation. Under these circumstances, no sense of political responsibility could possibly be developed on the part of either the voter or the representative.

The first break in this evil tradition was made when Gladstone and other members of the Liberal party began to consult the Irish members about Irish legislation, and when they announced that no settlement of the Irish question could or would be considered satisfactory which was not approved of and accepted by the Irish members. It was then, and not till then—that is, ten years ago—that real representative government was established in Ireland. But how novel and repulsive the idea still is to a large body of even the more intelligent Englishmen, is shown by the fact that one of the charges against Gladstone, which many of them seriously make as showing his recklessness if not his depravity, is that he has been detected in consulting with the Irish, and in listening to their secret proposals touching Irish legislation. Sydney Smith, if he were living, would get even more fun out of this than he used to get out of the opposition to Catholic Emancipation.

The novelty and peculiarity of the present situation is, that the Irish party in the House of Commons and Parnell as its leader have at last been charged with an immense political responsibility—namely, the maintenance of the alliance with the English Liberals, with a view to certain Irish legislation concerning which they have been consulted and of which they approve. For the first time in Irish Parliamentary history, they have been engaged in a political transaction of immense importance to Ireland, for the conduct of which they can be called to account by the Irish people. Parnell and his colleagues have differed not about the best mode of carrying on an agitation, but about the merits and demerits of their mode of managing Irish Parliamentary business. The alliance with the English and Scotch Liberals is an arrangement which is necessary to the carrying out of the most important piece of Irish legislation since the Act of Union. The question how important it is—and, if important, who has put it in peril—is the most serious and the first serious question ever submitted to Irish voters.

What we are witnessing in Ireland is, in truth, something in the nature of a referendum, addressed to a people who are only just beginning their political training, and who are called on for the first time in their history to pass on the wisdom and capacity, as well as on the loyalty of their legislators. That such an occurrence in national history should be accompanied by extraordinary excitement, and even violence, is not very surprising considering the excitability of the national character, and especially considering the fact that the great lesson of their dismal political history has been the propriety of relying on a single leader for any amelioration of their unhappy lot, and the great advantage of supporting his efforts by violence and outrage as the only agencies likely to affect Eng-

lish opinion seriously. The leading event in this history since the Union has been Catholic Emancipation, which was won by the courage and vigor of one man, Daniel O'Connell, so that it is not surprising that the Irish should be slow to repudiate another leader who has brought them so near to success in an enterprise which proved far beyond O'Connell's powers, viz., the bestowal on Ireland of local self-government. That the disorders and extravagances accompanying the canvass now in process should affect English opinion very unfavorably touching Irish political capacity, is natural enough; but if we here, who are accustomed to the most grotesque exhibitions of political and judicial folly in many of the States of the Union, should look on them as properly fatal to the Home-Rule cause, it would show that our hold on the fundamental principles of popular government was very slender indeed.

THE WILLS OF COL. JOHN WASHINGTON (IMMIGRANT) AND HIS SON LAWRENCE.

NEW YORK, December 10, 1890.

THE will of Gen. Washington's great-grandfather, Col. John Washington, has long been searched for, and at last is found. While editing Washington's letters for the Long Island Historical Society, I visited Westmoreland County to search for this paper (albeit my lamented friend, Dr. Philip Slaughter, told me it would be in vain), and failed at the time, though I did find the will of Lawrence, Col. John's son. However, the search has been continued, and both the original will and the record have been brought to light. They are in a sadly mutilated condition, but I think it better, at present, not to supply conjectural words at the illegible parts. While recently in London, I was accorded, by Mr. George E. Cokayne, the privilege of examining the extensive Washington notes of the late Col. Chester, and found various indications of his effort to find the will of Col. John Washington, and of his hope that it might cast some light on the ancestral enigma to which he devoted many years.

A brief account of the provisions of the will of Lawrence, the eldest son of Col. John, was given in my book, but the whole will be found of interest. There has been discovered also a power of attorney, signed by the widow of Col. John. Although no seal has been found with either of these documents, I found an impression of the seal on the title to the estate on which General Washington was born (when purchased by his grandfather, Lawrence Washington, 1695), now owned by John E. Wilson, Esq., who married a Washington. I will only add here that the old records of Westmoreland County show that Col. John Washington was for a long time one of Charles the Second's justices in the said county.

COL. JOHN WASHINGTON'S WILL.

In ye name of God amen, I John Washington of Washington Prish in ye County of Westmorld in Virga Gent being of good & perfect memory thankes be unto God Allmighty for it & calling to remembrance ye uncertaine estate of this transitory life yt all flesh must yield unto death when it shall please God for to call; doe make constitue ordaine and declеare this my last will & testament no other & first being hartily sorry from ye bottome of my heart for my sinns past most humbly desireing forgiveness of ye same from ye Allmighty God, my saviour and redeemer in whome & by ye merrits of Jesus Christ I trust & believe assuredly to be saved to have full remission & forgivenesse of all my sins & yt my soule wth my body at ye generall day of ressurrection shall arise again wth joy through ye merrits of Christs death and passion possesse & inherit ye Kingdom of heaven prepared for his ellect & chosen & my body to be buried one ye plantacõn where I now live by ye side of my wife yt is allready . . . -ed & two childrен of mine & now for ye setling of my temporall estate & such goods & chattles & Debts as it hath please God far above my desarts to bestow upon me. I doe order . . . disposse ye same in manner & forme following . . . will yt all those debts and duties yt I owe in right or Conscience . . . manner of pson or psons wtsoever shall be well and . . . & payd or ordained to be paid by my Executors . . . Imprs I give & bequeath unto my Eldest Sonne . . . Washington yt seat of land whereon Henry Flagg . . . John Watts & Robert Hedges being by patten . . . being by my father pope made over to me . . . -tten of my body. Itim I give unto my Sonne Lawrence Washington . . . wth all appurtenances & Land belonging . . . Rosiers Creeke to him & his heires forever res . . . her thirds dureing her life. Itim I give unto my Sonne . . . Washington yt seat of Land wch I bought of Mr. Len . . . about two hundred & fifty acres at ye mouth of . . . one ye North west side wth all ye housеing there . . . to him and his heires forever resurveing to my . . . dureing her life. Itim I give unto my sonne Law . . . yt seat of land at upper Machotick wch I bought of Anthony Bridges & Mr. John Rosier being about nine hund- . . . him & his heires forever resurveing to my wife her thirds dureing her life. Item I give unto my Sonne John Washington yt plantacõn whereon I now li- . . . wch I bought of David Andrewson, yt plantacõn next Mr. . . . Foxhall yt I bought wch was Ric: Stills to him and his heires forever & yt seat of Land of about fouer hundred acres wch lys upon ye head of Rappa:Creeke adjoyneing upon David Norvie orphants land ye Land being formerly John Whistons . . . to me to him and his heires forever resurveing to my wife her . . . of ye aforesd Land dureing her life. Itim I give unto my Son . . . John Washington yt seate of Land wch Robert Foster now . . . one being about three hundred acres to him and his . . . likewise I give unto my sd Sonne John Washington yt seate . . . wch Robert Richard liveth on wch I had of my Bro:Lawr . . . being about three hundred & fifty acres to him & his . . . resurveing to my wife her thirds of ye two said tracts . . . dureing her life. Itim I give & bequeath unto . . . Ann Washington yt seat of Land yt tract of Land . . . now liveth one being about twellve hundred her heires forever. likewise I give & . . . Daughter yt tract of Land wch John . . . being about fouerteen hundred . . . hath his quantity . . . it to her & . . . Daughter wch was her mothers desire & my . . . wch was in ye new palour & ye dimond Ring & her . . . ye white quilte & ye white curtains & vallians & as for . . . my personall estate after my debts & dues are satisfied . . . should be satisfied out of my cropps wch I doe not . . . will be fare more then I doe owe, thankes be unto God . . . fore it is my desire yt my estate should not come to . . . but I doe order & bequeath as followeth yt is to . . . shall be a just inventory & list taken of my psonall . . . possessed of & for to be divided in quantity & . . . by those men of judgemt wch I request ye Court to . . . -ate, into fouer parts to be equall & proportionable divided in quantity & quality, ye one fouerth parte I give to my loveing wife in Kind in Lew of her Dower or claime & one fouerth part to my Sonne Lawrence Washington in Kinde & one fouerth part to my Sonne John Washington in kind & one fouerth parte to my Daughter Anne Washington in Kind to them & either of them severally & theire heires forever, & it is my will yt if either of my above said children should happen to die before they doe attain ye age of one and twenty yeares or daye of marriadge then ye Land of yt Child yt dieth to be ye eldest Sonne then Liveing, if both my Sonnes should die then ye Land to be my Daughter Anne, & as fore ye psonall estate, if any of my three children should happen to die before they come of age or day of marriage then it is my will yt ye two surviveing children should equally divide . . . personall estate, of yt Child yt is dead betwixt them & theirs . . . ever. Itim I give and bequeath after all my Legacies payd out . . . money I shall have in England to my Sonne Lawrence Washington. Itim my desire is yt there may be a funerall sermon . . . at ye church and yt there be noe other funerall Keept . . . fouer thousand pounds of tobo: Itim I give unto . . . Church of Washington Parish ye teene commandements . . . armes wch is my desire should be sent for out of wt . . . in England. Itim it is my desire yt wt estate I . . . possessed should be Keept wthout dividing untill . . . be paid & satisfied. Itim I give unto my Bro: . . . -hington fouer thousand pounds of Tobo:& . . . nephew John Washington my Godson . . . Lawrence Washington one younge. . . . Itim it is my designe yt when- . . . quallit- . . . into fouer equall partes and yt my wife hath taken . . . then every Childs part should be putt . . . or plantacõns there for to be manadged so yt . . . bringing up and Educating each child according . . . childrens share. Itim it is my desire yt my wife . . . bringing up of my Daughter Ann Washington . . . Lawrence comes to age or her day of marri- . . . for to have ye manadgement of her part to my Daug- . . . Itim I doe give unto my Bro: Tho: pope teen pounds . . . I have in England. Itim I doe give unto my Sister Martha . . . gton teen pounds out yt money I have in England . . . ever ells she shall be oweing to me for transporting herselfe into this Country & a yeares accomodacon after her comim and fouer thousand pound Tobacco and caske. Itim it is my desire yt my Bro; Mr. Tho: pope have ye bringing up of my Sonne John Washington & for to have ye manadgemt of his estate . . . Sonnes best advantage untill he be of age of one & twenty yeares or day of marriage. finally I doe ordaine & appoint . . . Bro: Mr. Lawrence Washington & my Sonne Lawrence . . . & my loveing wife Mrs. Ann Washington my whole & soule Executors of this my last will & testament. As Witnesse my hand and seale this 21st of 7 ber 1675.

JOHN WASHINGTON—seale.

Signed Sealed in ye presence of us. } JOHN LORD. JOHN APPLETON.

Ye 10th Jana: 1677.

Then this will was proved by ye oath of . . . Lord, Capa: John Appleton . . . recorded in ye County Court records of WestmorLd.

THE WILL OF LAWRENCE WASHINGTON.

In The Name of God amen I Lawrence Washington of Washington Parish in the County of Westmoreland in Virginia, Gentleman, being of Good and perfect memory, thanks be unto Almighty God for it & calling to mind the uncertain Estate of this Transitory life & that all Flesh must yield unto death when it shall please God to call me doe make constitue, ordain & Declare this my last will and Testament in manner and form following, revoking and annuling by these presents all and every Testament and Testaments, will or wills heretofore by me made and declared either by word or writing & this to be taken only for my last will and Testament and none other, and first being heartily sorry from the bottom of my heart for my sins, most humbly desireing forgiveness of the same from the Almighty God my saviour & Redeemer, in whome by the merits of Jesus Christ, I Trust and believe assuredly to be saved and to have full

remission & forgiveness of all my sins and that my soal with my body at the General day of Resurrection shall rise again with Joy, and through the Merits of Christs Death and passion, possess & Inherit the Kingdom of Heaven prepared for his Elect & chosen and my body to be buried if please God I depart in this County of Westmoreland, by the side of my Father and Mother & neare my Brothers & Sisters & my children, and now for the setling of my Temporal Estate and such goods, Chattles and debts as it hath pleased God far above my desarts to bestow upon me I doe ordain give and bequath the same in manner and form following: Imprimis I that all those Debts and dues that I owe in right or Concience to any manner of Person or Persons whatsoever shall be well contented & paid or ordained or demanded to be paid by my Executors or Extx: hereafter named. Item I give and bequath to my well beloved friends Mr. William Thompson clk & Mr. Samuel Thompson each of them a mourning Ring of Thirty shillings value each ring: Item I give and bequath to my Godson Lawrence Butler one young mare & two cows: Item I give and bequath to my sister Anne Writts children one man servant a piece of four or five years to serve or Three Thousand pounds of Tobacco to purchase the same, to be delivered or paid to them when they arrive to the age of Twenty years old: Item I give and bequath to my sister Lewis a morning Wring of forty shillings price: Item I give to my Cuz: John Washington Sen: of Stafford County all my wearing apparel: Item I give unto my Cozen John Washingtons Eldest son Lawrence Washington my Godson one man servant of four or five years to serve or Three Thousand pounds of Tobacco to purchase the same; to be paid him when he comes to the age of Twenty one yeare old: Item I give to my godsons Lawrence Butler & Lewis Nicholas that Tract of Land joining upon Meridah Edwards and Daniel White, being Two hundred and seventy five acres of Land to be equally divided between them and their heirs forever: Item I give to the upper and Lower Churches of Washington parish each of them a Pulpett cloth & cushion: Item it is my will to have a Funeral sermon at the church, and to have none other Funeral to exceed Three Thousand pounds of Tobacco. Item it is will after my Debts & Legacies paid, that my personal Estate be equally divided into four parts: my loving Wife Mildred Washington to have one part, my son John Washington to have another part, my son Augustin Washington to have anotner Part, and my Daughter Mildred Washington to have the other part: to be delivered to them in specie when they shall come to the age of Twenty one years old. Item I give to my son Washington this seat of Land where I now live, and that whole tract of Land Lying from the mouth of Machodack extending to a place called the round hills, with the addition I have thereunto made of William Webb and William Rush to him and heirs forever. Item I give and bequath unto my Son Augustin Washington all the dividend of Land that I bought of Mr. Robert Lisson's Children in England Lying in Mattox, between my Brother & Mr. Bairidges Land, where Mr. Daniel Lisson formerly lived, by Estimation 400 acres to him and his heirs forever, as Likewise that Land that was Richard Hills: Item I give and bequath unto my said Son Augustine Washington, all that Tract of Land where Mr. Lewis Markham now lives after the said Markhams & his now wife's decease, by estimation 700 acres more or less to him and his heirs forever; Item I give and bequath my Daughter Mildred Washington all my Land in Stafford County, Lying upon hunting Creek where Mrs. Elizabeth Minton & Mrs. Williams now lives by Estimation 2500 acres to her and her heirs forever. Item I give my water mill to my son John Washington to him and his heirs forever: Item it is my will and desire if either of my children should die before they come to age or day of marriage, his or her personal estate be equally divided between the two survivors and their Mother: Item it is my will and desire if all my Children should die before they come of age or day of Marriage, that my Brothers children shall enjoy all their Estate real, Except that Land that I bought of Mr. Robert Lisson's children, which I give to my loving wife and her heirs forever, and the rest as aforesaid to them and their heirs forever: Item I give my personall Estate in case of all my childrens death as abovesaid, to be equally divided between my Wife and Brothers children, my wife to have the one-half: Item I give that Land which I bought of my Brother Francis Wright, being 200 acres lying near Storkes Quarter, to my son John Washington and his heirs forever: Item it is my desire that my should not be appraised but kept intire and delivered them as above given according to time & my Children to continue under the care & Tution of their Mother, till they come of age or day of marriage, and she to have the profits of their Estates towards the bringing of them up and Keeping them at School: Item I doe ordain and appoint my Cozen John Washington of Stafford and my friend Mr. Samuel Thompson my Executors, and my loving wife Mildred Washington my Executrix of this my last Will & Testament. In Witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seale this 11th day of March Anno Dom 169$\frac{9}{8}$.

LAURENCE WASHINGTON. [SEAL].

Signed Seald declared & pronounced in presence of us,
ROBT REDMAN, GEORGE WEEDON
THOMAS HOWES, JOHN ROSIER

WESTMORELAND Set:

At a Court held for the said County the 30th day of March 1698.

The last will and Testament of Lawrence Washington Gent deced within written was proved by the oaths of George Weedon Thomas Howes & John Rosier Three of the witnesses thereto subscribed, and a Probate thereof Granted to Samuel Thompson one of the Executors therein named, and the Will ordered to be recorded.

Teste
JAMES WESTCOMB, C. W. C.

Know all men by these presents that I Mrs. Ann Washington Widow & Relict of Capt John Washington of Westmoreland County decd, do hereby constitue, appoint and ordain my trusty and well beloved friend Mr. Caleb Butler of the said County my true and Lawfull Attorney for me and in my name, and to my use, to ask, sue, receive and recover of all person or Persons whatsoever living, residing & abiding within this Colony of Virginia or province of Maryland, all such sum or sums of money, or Tobacco which shall be made appear to be due to me whether by bill, bond or Book account or otherways & upon non-payment of any part of the above Tobacco or money by any person or persons whatsoever I do impower him the said Caleb Butler to arrest & implead and into prison cast all such person or persons as he sees fitt, and out of Prison to release & sett free at his pleasure and acquittance or other discharges to give for me & in my name and for my use, and likewise I give my said attorney full power to employ any one attorney or more if he sees fit, and to discharge them at his pleasure & to act and do in all my affairs belonging to me in Virginia or Maryland as if I myself were personally present, ratifying and allowing & confirming all & whatsoever my said attorney shall act and do in the premises. As Witness my hand and seale this 28th day of March 1698.

ANN WASHINGTON. [SEAL.]

Sealed Signed & Delivered in presence of,
THOMAS HOWES
HENRY WICKEFF

WESTMORELAND Set:

At a Court held for the Said County the 30th day of March 1698.

The above Letter of attorney was proved by the oaths of the Witnesses thereto subscribed and ordered to be recorded. Teste

JAMES WESTCOMB C. W. C.

In Col. John Washington's will he speaks of "my three children," and names them as Lawrence, John, and Ann. His son Lawrence bequeaths "to my sister Lewis," etc. Sparks has given Col. John a second daughter, ". . . wife of . . . Lewis," giving no first name. In this case she would have been born after the testator's death. But the "sister Lewis" of whom Lawrence speaks is, no doubt, his wife's sister, Elizabeth Warner, who married John Lewis, grandfather of Col. Fielding Lewis who married Gen. Washington's sister ('George Washington and Mount Vernon,' xlix.).

The "half share of five thousand acres of land in Stafford," etc., bequeathed by Col. John to his son Lawrence, is the tract now known as Mount Vernon. It was granted to the Colonel for importing a hundred laborers into the colony. It is the 2,500 acres on Hunting Creek bequeathed in Lawrence's will.

The discoveries of Mr. Henry F. Waters are supplemented by Col. John's mention of his sister Martha. She is named in the will of Andrew Knowling (Waters, p. 9), with John, Lawrence, William, Elizabeth, and Margarett, "children of Amphilis Washington."

The "400 acres" "bought of Mr. Robert Lisson's children in England," bequeathed by Lawrence to his "son Augustin" (the General's father) is the estate on which George Washington was born, Wakefield, and remains in the family. On its title I found the old seal with the Washington arms and eagle crest, engraved in the L. I. Hist. Society's volume.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE "ION" AT CAMBRIDGE.

CAMBRIDGE, Eng., Nov. 26, 1890.

THE first of five performances of the "Ion" of Euripides took place yesterday evening, November 25, at the Theatre Royal in Cambridge, and was welcomed with the same interest that always attends these now familiar academic representations. The costuming of the play, even after what has been done for previous plays at Cambridge and elsewhere, was a remarkable triumph of good taste. All concerned owe a debt of gratitude for its exceptional harmonies and beauties of color to the stage manager, Mr. J. W. Clark.

In the difficult part of *Queen Creüsa*, Mr. Newton of King's was embarrassed now and again by an insufficiently treble voice, but in spite of it the audience was thrilled by his self-forgetful dramatic power. This was especially marked at the point where *Creüsa*, flinging shamefaced secrecy to the winds, bursts out with bitter reproaches against *Apollo*. This moment of all in the play was most adequately presented. On the other hand, the subtler justification of the god, which a different stage-setting and an altered conception of various situations would have given, was almost entirely missed. A more even but less interesting impersonation of the part of *Ion* was given by the Hon. Stephen Powys of Trinity, who sang the opening song with much charm. Good works may well be expected in the future from Mr. Woods, the rising young composer of the musical setting, where this song of *Ion* was by no means the best number. Under Prof. Stanford's direction, the instrumental score was excellently rendered, while the chorus of young men acquitted themselves with great spirit and precision of attack.

The necessary use of male voices, and the consequent transformation of the chorus from young maidens into young men, involved a bold departure from the original, and made necessary a further innovation—the assignment to a *First* and *Second Maiden* of various utterances given by Euripides to his chorus. Such a dichotomy of the chorus has never before been tried, although the device of a *First* and *Second Maiden* originated at the Théâtre-Français in the "Œdipe Roi." There the chorus of Theban elders was merged in the populace of Thebes, and the choral odes were somewhat unsatisfactorily left for declamation by the two maidens. Perhaps this French plan

would have suited the "Ion" better than it did the "Œdipus." Certainly the comings and goings of a singing chorus of men, not contemplated by Euripides in composing the play, were a source of many perplexities to the audience at Cambridge. It was difficult to understand who they were and what they had to do with the action. The more delicately appropriate presence of a sympathetic group of maidens called for by Euripides was constantly missed, and the presence of men in their stead brought out latent harshnesses in various situations. This was especially true in the scene towards the close, where *Ion* so long and with such exquisitely human pathos examines the cradle and the wrappings in which, years ago, he had been carried to Apollo's Delphian shrine. The interested presence at such a moment of a troop of young men did much to shatter the exquisitely adjusted harmonies of the poet's conception, and left little save an unquickening and needlessly prolonged inspection of baby-clothes.

In the treatment of the chorus there might possibly have been a gain in following more closely the precedent established by the Théâtre-Français. An instance where this precedent was followed too far at Cambridge was the scene newly painted by Mr. Helmsley. The pervasive presence, in his temple alike and his precinct, of Apollo the beautiful and dread is the necessary spiritual background for the whole action of the "Ion." Its scene is laid at the Delphian temple of Apollo, and the attention alike of spectators and performers should never exclude but be always immovably centred upon the holy place at Delphi. Unfortunately the pleasant and not sufficiently distant prospect of sea and mountains which formed the centre of Mr. Helmsley's scene was a constant incitement to forget the temple, a corner only of which—six columns and the beginning of their entablature—was visible at the extreme right. Worse than this, the outlook upon the sea was such as entirely to suppress the Crissæan plain, and to bring Delphi itself and Apollo's shrine down from the inaccessible heights of Parnassus.

And yet ample explanation is at hand for this harshening and levelling treatment at Cambridge of the subtleties and mysteries of the play of "Ion." The very existence in it of a lofty and delicate religious tone is apparently denied by some of the promoters of its performance there. Hence we read in the preface to the libretto published by the Committee that "the 'Ion' is the most remarkable of those Euripidean plays whose purpose is to discredit the character and very existence of the gods." No wonder, then, that the temple of Apollo at Delphi should be made as little prominent as possible, no wonder that the most effective point made in the performance at Cambridge should be *Creüsa's* magnificently passionate arraignment of the Delphian god. With less innovation as to essentials upon the original manner of its production, and a more justly conceived idea of the proportion of one part to another, it would have been difficult to embody in its performance so one-sided a view of the poet's aim in writing it.

Indeed, if this view be the true one, it is little short of miraculous that Socrates, Euripides, or Plato should ever have so much as conformed outwardly—let alone a profession of adherence or faith—to a religion so weak and self-stultifying that in its very services could be incorporated a nihilistic attack upon the gods of its worship. For the "Ion" was a part of the service of Dionysus at Athens, and Dr. Verrall, who wrote the sentence above quoted from the libretto, says in the introduction to his edition of the "Ion" (just prepared at the request of the syndicate of the Pitt Press) that the "Ion" is *an attack upon Delphi*—the italics are Dr. Verrall's.

After all, the "Ion" is not by the younger Dumas, nor by Ibsen, neither can any of its passages be profitably treated as magazine articles. Not the longest of its speeches should be interpreted as a nihilist pronunciamiento. Surely the "Ion" is none of these things, and my own firm conviction is that it is not an attack upon Delphi. But this is almost as difficult to prove as it is impossible to clear the honor of the Pythian priestess from ungallant aspersions and innuendoes most entertainingly indulged in at her expense by Dr. Verrall in the introduction above alluded to.

Perhaps some of the absurdities and contradictions in the "Ion" set forth so plentifully and pointedly by Dr. Verrall might disappear, or at least appear less unaccountable, if a view essentially at variance with his were taken of its general import. Let it, at least for a moment, be regarded as an attempt to weave into the story of Apollo's incarnation in the fabled ancestor of the Ionian and Athenian race, in *Ion*, a more human pathos, and a morality higher than could easily attach to the time-honored Athenian tradition. If this view be found applicable to the case, incongruities and roughnesses of treatment will be natural in so new and difficult an undertaking, and through these the story itself may fall into some discredit, but surely not Apollo, and surely not Euripides, for, in spite of certain harshnesses, the poet has informed the ancient tale with a genuinely religious spirit, combining old traditions, wherein gods were as irresponsible as the forces of nature, with a new sense of beauty and a new demand that the highest standards of right conduct be lived up to, not by righteous men only, but especially by the gods. The central point of the play is not the burden of *Creüsa's* wrongs and woes inflicted by Apollo, but the recognition that Apollo must right them, and the pious assurance that all the powers of heaven—Hermes, Athena—are in righteous league, willing and able to clear Apollo of guilt and to justify his ways to men. It may freely be granted that Euripides has shown little happiness of invention in wedding together the various scenes; he has, if you please, misconstructed the plot of the "Ion." But, for all that, his work requires and deserves to be judged by the unmistakable spirit of piety that moves in it throughout, and nothing can be gained by applying to it laws of construction and rules of delicately veiled and really vulgar intrigue which chiefly exist that they may be applied to one branch of the contemporary French drama.

The great religious boon conferred by Euripides in the "Ion" was that he left the great Patroan Apollo on a higher pinnacle than Athenians had been taught to place him. In Greek religion the elder day of darkness and of elemental fatalism was past. Time was when *Creüsa's* wrongs and sufferings—like those of *Io* in the Æschylean "Prometheus"—would have counted as little or nothing in the plans of heaven. In the theology of Euripides, which is at once more divine and more human, Apollo assumes responsibility for the means by which he linked to his own immortality the earthly destinies of all the sons of *Ion*. Because this responsibility is new, he wears it at first—as in the "Ion"—with an awkward grace, but it is his for ever more, thanks to the pious inspiration of his loyal poet, Euripides.

LOUIS DYER.

Correspondence.

AN EARLY BACTERIOLOGIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not know that attention has been called to the following passage from a treatise on worms (1668) by Dr. William Ramsay. It seems to contain the germ, to say the least, of the modern germ-theory of disease:

"Again, *they* [the vermin] *may have their origination from certain animated effluviums or vermicular atome-like Corpuscules or Ferments which flow out of gross, corrupted bodies capable of and fitted to receive such impressions, and so by their evil and venemous ferment are inserted;* which many times so lurk in the blood and humours (as I shall shew beneath) that they occasion strange diseases & symptoms, and that such as few *Physitians* take notice of, but, ascribing them to other Causes, cause the destruction of their *Patients* as commonly as may be, when if they did but consider the strange Fermental power of the animated Atoms or vermicular Corpuscules, how they by little and little, when once desseminated, infest, first the whole mass of Blood, next, the Bowels, and afterwards the inmost fibers of the whole man, altering the Constitution and converting both blood and humours into their own bad temper and nature, they might do much more good." (Fp. 9, 10.)

The italics are the author's. He shortly after specifies dysenteries, measles, smallpox, convulsions in children, and fevers as instances noted in his own practice of diseases caused by these "animated Effluviums."

I owe my first knowledge of this book (which is very rare) to my friend Dr. T. W. Parsons, who lent it me more than forty years ago. I am under deeper obligations to him, as we all are, but I am glad to acknowledge the special kindness which made me acquainted with a volume so full of unconscious humor as this of Dr. Ramsay.—Faithfully yours,

J. R. LOWELL.

ELMWOOD, December 8, 1890.

THE ILLUSTRATIONS TO THE 'TSAR AND HIS PEOPLE.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In speaking of the illustrations of Mr. Theodore Child's book, 'The Tsar and His People,' you say in a recent issue: "It seems as though acknowledgment ought to be made when, as in the majority of cases, they are drawn from photographs of places, or from photographed paintings by Russian artists, dealing with scenes which the illustrator could not have seen himself." Your notice conveys the mistaken impression that the illustrations of the book are at second hand. I went to Russia and accompanied Mr. Child throughout his entire trip, and the illustrations for his portion of the book are from sketches made by me on the spot, though of course use was made of photographs for the illustration of works of art, portraits, and architecture.—Yours truly,

T. DE THULSTRUP.

NEW YORK, December 11, 1890.

[We will set aside the six pictures in M. de Vogüé's chapter, "Through the Caucasus," which are signed by Mr. de Thulstrup, although he does not claim that he was in that part of the country; and the fifteen sketches in Mr. Child's chapter, "The Fair at Nijni-Novgorod," which he probably did make for himself. This leaves forty-nine illustrations with his signature for consideration. It is stated that writer and sketcher visited Russia in July. Consequently, the eight views of Court ball, sledge races on the

Neva, troïka party to Cronstadt (which is from a painting), the winter views of the Nevsky Prospekt and the Court Quay, "The Sunday Parade in a Riding School," and "The Spring Review on the Champs de Mars," are not strictly original. The "Tcheremisse Girl" and the "Carriage of Madame la Générale" are from parts of the country not visited by the travellers. Other illustrations are doubtful, for these and for other reasons. "On the Canal, St. Isaac's in the Distance," is undoubtedly original, since nothing but a gifted imagination could see a steamer on the Moïka, or catch a glimpse, round a corner, from the Blue Bridge, of the Cathedral. "Service in St. Isaac's" and "The Point at the Islands" are original; so are some of the figure pieces in the chapter on Moscow. But there are at least twenty where Mr. de Thulstrup's share seems to have been confined to "adapting" photographs, by drawing in figures to render the foreground pleasing and characteristic. This applies to every one of the numerous architectural illustrations in the St. Petersburg and Moscow chapters, except the view of bell-ringing, which is original, bells not being rung in that manner. There are some extraordinary details about the additions to the photographs, but it is not worth while to enter into particulars. We will only add to the list of erroneous labellings already mentioned "The Empress's Carriage," on page 32. It is not the Empress's carriage, and does not even house royalty.—Ed. Nation.]

THE MISSOURI SYNOD AND THE COPERNICAN SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I take notice of your warning to the disputants over "German Lutherans in Politics" that they must not make any further demands on your space. Nevertheless, I hope you will allow me to touch on an incidental allegation by "Andover" which has nothing to do with politics, but has something to do with morality if the official denial of its accuracy is to pass unchallenged.

Dr. Schwan writes:

"'Andover's' last charge is, that in our Teachers' Seminary at Addison, Ill., and in some of our official journals until very recently, the doctrine was taught that Christianity and the Copernican system of astronomy are incompatible, and that a genuine belief in the inspiration of Holy Writ required the rejection of the entire science of geology. This statement as made is absurd and untrue."

The good Doctor then remarks most affably, "Concerning the Copernican system *we do not condemn it*"; which may recall to many of your readers Mr. Oscar Wilde's mild approval of the Atlantic Ocean.

It would be trespassing too much upon your space to consider the present attitude of the Missouri Synod towards astronomy and geology as outlined in Dr. Schwan's letter. The Missouri Synod's publication house in St. Louis is official in so far as it is the property of the Synod, and that no book would ever be published there which conflicted with the Synod in doctrine. I have before me a pamphlet, published thus officially, written by Prof. J. C. W. Lindemann, late President of the Teachers' Seminary at Addison, Ill., entitled 'Astronomische Unterredung zwischen einem Liebhaber der Astronomie und mehreren berühmten Astronomen der Neuzeit.' It consists of an imaginary conversation between the author and several leading German astronomers, the questions being sarcastic, and the answers being quotations from astronomical text-books. The whole is intended to show that the Copernican system cannot be proved to be correct and is condemned by divine authority; and that of modern astronomers it might be said, "Professing themselves to be wise, they became fools"—which verse is the motto of the book. On page iv. the author says of the question as to the truth of Copernicus's theory: "*Because it involves the truth of the Holy Scriptures*, the above question is to me of the greatest importance"; and, further on, reference is made to those benighted persons who "lean upon the miserable reed that God teaches only the order of Salvation, not the order of the Universe." Dr. Schwan cannot deny that Prof. Lindemann taught this doctrine in the Teachers' Seminary up to the time of his death, and the volumes of the *Ev. Luth. Schulblatt*, an official organ of the Synod, from 1874 to 1880 are replete with articles of like tenor from the same facile pen. Did space permit, it would be easy to multiply quotations, some of them highly amusing; but enough has been shown to corroborate "Andover."

As to geology, a former member of the Synod, Rev. P. Eirich, has written a book, brimful of learning and unconscious humor, entitled 'Das Hexaemeron und die Geologie.' Although the author is no longer a member of the Synod, his work still appears on the official catalogue of publications, and on its appearance the late Dr. Walther, Dr. Schwan's predecessor, greeted it with a review which would have made Sir Charles Lyell blush with shame, if not with hilarity. Mr. Eirich boldly contends that the world was made of nothing in six days of twenty-four hours each—presumably standard time—and that every other view is wrong, irreligious, and, of course, un-Christian.—Very respectfully, Gettysburg.

December 13, 1890.

A GEM OF MISTRANSLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the curiosities of mistranslation the following, from Ashworth's version of Ranke's 'Geschichten der romanischen und germanischen Völker von 1494 bis 1514,' p. 47, can hardly be surpassed. Ranke states, somewhat blindly and inaccurately, the agreement of Ferdinand and Isabella with the King of Portugal to the line of demarcation between their respective fields of discovery as established by Alexander VI.: "Sie dangen lang mit einander und bestimmten endlich ein Mark, 370 Leguas von den Canarischen Inseln; von da nach Osten Portugal, nach Westen Castilien entdecken sollte." Mr. Ashworth translates: "They bargained long together, and finally offered a prize to him who starting 370 leagues from the Canary Islands should discover Portugal towards the east, and Castile towards the west"! ('Ranke's Latin and Teutonic Nations,' p. 69). One wonders that Mr. Ashworth's curiosity was not aroused by so extraordinary an offer to try to find whether there were any attempts made to win that prize. After that, it is not surprising to find the Spanish word Alcalde rendered by the coined adjective Alcaldian, or the names of French and Italian personages appearing everywhere in German disguises. It may be well to remark that Ranke should have said Cape de Verde Islands. E. G. B.

Adelbert College, Cleveland.

WOMEN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LEIPZIG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As repeated inquiries come to us from America in regard to the advantages offered to women for higher study in Germany, it has occurred to the writer that it may interest some of your readers to learn what facilities are afforded women for university study here in Leipzig.

The fact that in Germany more antiquated notions prevail in regard to the higher education of women than in almost any other country of western Europe, is too well known to need here more than a passing notice. Theoretically, indeed, many a learned German looks not ungraciously upon the movement of women in different parts of the world to obtain a more thorough and liberal culture. But few German fathers would be willing that their daughters should overstep the barriers raised by custom and general sentiment, and enter upon the same course of study which their sons pursue. And the girls themselves are not often desirous of branding themselves with the stigma *blue-stocking*, and of thus curtailing their opportunities for an eligible marriage.

The German mind works slowly, and innovation does not here make such rapid strides as in France, Italy, England, and America. This probably accounts for the fact that not a university upon German soil has as yet thrown open its doors to women. The University of Leipzig has approached the nearest to this, as it is here a possible thing for women to attend many of the lectures. Some years ago, they were allowed to study on the same footing as the young men, except that they were not granted the two important privileges of matriculation and of receiving degrees. Unfortunately, however, the conduct of a few of these female students was far from exemplary. A decree was therefore issued by the Ministry of Instruction to the effect that the original plan and purpose of the University—the education of men—should be kept in view, and that no woman should be admitted without special permission. This permission is seldom, if ever, given, so that now it is only through the courtesy of the professors that access can be had to the lectures. No professor has, of course, the right to grant a regular permission, but he can promise not to see the person if she is present. This the professors in many of the faculties will agree to do, and with a heartiness which is a stimulus to the student, and an encouragement to her to believe that the time is not so very far distant when the members of her sex will enter these halls on equal terms with the young men.

This readiness of the professor to help earnest and studious women is, however, mainly shown only to foreigners. Two ambitious Leipzig girls, who had by means of private instruction prepared themselves for university work, were refused such admission, and must go to Zürich for higher study. Since the writer came here a year ago, but two instances have occurred where permission has been refused a woman from any other country to attend any lectures. One of these refusals was given by a member of the medical faculty who experienced much trouble several years ago, when a number of women were in attendance at his lectures. Dr. Zarncke, so famous in Germanic philology, has endeared himself especially to the Americans by his willingness to allow them a seat in his lecture hall and by his many kind offers of aid. It was the privilege of the writer, in company with two of her country women, to attend the lectures

given by Dr. Maurenbrecher last winter, upon the History of the Revolutionary Period. At the conclusion of the course, in thanking the students for their regular attendance and close attention, the eminent historian acknowledged also the presence of his other hearers.

And what is the feeling of the regular students in regard to this matter—of the German youths, few of whom have ever sat in the classroom with a girl, and who have been trained to believe that a woman's province is the kitchen only, or the narrow circle of her home? To many of them it is highly amusing to see members of the other sex within the sacred precincts of their lecture halls. Some are greatly indignant that women should seek to usurp their privileges, and some are utterly indifferent. Whatever or however various their different feelings may be, they all find expression in the same extreme politeness of demeanor. The little band of women students here in Leipzig at present consists of an Armenian, a Russian, and half-a-dozen Americans, and no one of them can complain of an impoliteness, whether of word or action, from any student. Among the more than 3,000 German students there are many, too, who sympathize thoroughly with the higher strivings of women, and who hope that the emancipation of their own sisters and friends from the shackles of narrow prejudice may be effected through the efforts of those from other lands.

It is often humiliating when we think that we come here with as good preparation as our brothers, and with a much better knowledge of the language than they, but cannot be enrolled upon the registry of the University as regular students, nor participate in the privileges of the same. Still, we are thankful for the ground already gained, and that it is permitted us in so many of the lecture halls to note down the same words of wisdom which fall upon the ears of those more highly favored individuals, the "Herren Studenten."

ISABELLE BRONK.

LEIPZIG, November 24, 1890.

Notes.

TICKNOR & Co., Boston, invite subscriptions to an important work in six parts, folio, with numerous plates, 'Architecture of the Renaissance in England,' by J. Alfred Gotch and W. Talbot Brown. Publication is to be begun immediately.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'Principles of Political Economy,' by Prof. A. L. Perry of Williams College.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press 'Brazil: Its Condition and Prospects,' by C. C. Andrews, ex-Consul-General to Brazil; 'Socialism, Old and New,' by Prof. W. G. Sumner; 'The Journal of William Maclay, United States Senator 1789-1791,' edited by Edgar S. Maclay; 'Ring Riding,' by H. W. Struss; 'The Log Schoolhouse on the Columbia,' by Hezekiah Butterworth; 'A Fluttered Dovecote,' by Geo. Manville Fenn; and 'The Nugents of Carriconna,' an Irish novel, by Tighe Hopkins.

The Messrs. Longman will be the publishers of Dr. Fridtjof Nansen's account of his adventurous journey across the inland ice-sea of Greenland.

'Socialism and the American Spirit' is the title of a new work on which is engaged Mr. Nicholas P. Gilman, author of 'Profit-Sharing between Employer and Employee.'

The Universalist Publishing House, Boston, have nearly ready 'Christian Types of Heroism: A Study of the Heroic Spirit under Christianity,' by John Coleman Adams, D.D.

Prof. Addison Hogue of the University of Mississippi is at work on an index to the verb in Isocrates. Compounds will be given under their simples (as in his 'Irregular Verbs of Attic Prose'), so as to bring together in one place everything that belongs to any given verb. Each compound, however, will appear (with a cross-reference to the simple verb) in its own alphabetical place, so as to exhibit all the verbs compounded with any given preposition. Furthermore, in most cases, enough of the context will be given to show the construction—a feature of the work that will greatly increase its usefulness to investigators.

The announcement is made from Leyden of the publication, if warranted by a sufficient number of subscribers, of a complete collection of Old Saxon texts, under the editorship of Prof. Gallée of the University of Utrecht. The whole will be contained in one large folio volume. Facsimiles of each MS., including some hitherto unknown, will be given, together with a description of the MS., its history, palæographical peculiarities, and dialect. The texts, exclusive of the 'Heliand,' which will be transliterated only in so far as it is given in facsimile, are to be reproduced in full. The price is £1 15s. to subscribers.

The process of "boiling down" the results of archæological investigations and discoveries goes on apace. We had supposed the limit of usefulness in this direction had been reached, for the present at least, in the excellent manuals of MM. Maspero, Babelon, and Paris, on the subjects of Egyptian, Oriental, and Greek art respectively; but now comes Mr. Talfourd Ely with his 'Manual of Archæology' (Putnams), who attempts to cover all the periods that they have described, and something more besides, in a duodecimo volume of 272 pages, not a little of which is taken up by the 114 illustrations with which the book is embellished. Precisely what class of readers is benefited by a book of this kind we are at a loss to imagine. For the beginner the descriptions are far too slender and cursory to create any satisfactory impression—the whole subject of Greek sculpture, for example, being covered in sixty-two pages, in which are included twenty-nine illustrations—while the more advanced student will find nothing that he does not know already. The list of lecturers under whom Mr. Ely announces that he has studied is certainly a strong one, and it seems a pity that he did not put the fruit of their teaching to better use, by expending the care which he has evidently given to the preparation of his book upon the popular exposition of some special branch or topic of his subject, which might have been handled within his limits.

Prof. William Clark's 'Savonarola, his Life and Times' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) is one of those amateurish books of which it is difficult to divine the *raison d'être*. To all English-speaking people Signora Villari's translation of her husband's classical work affords all the information which the most diligent research could accumulate, and elucidates it with a philosophical breadth of view and a minute acquaintance with both Florentine and Italian history. To this Prof. Clark's volume offers an unfortunate contrast. He has read Villari and Perrens, with some of the more accessible contemporary sources, and a portion of Savonarola's writings, and this slender equipment is backed by no general historical knowledge of the period or of its antecedents. It has a queer look in these days to quote Dean Milman as an authority for the Italy of the fifteenth century, and to discuss the influence of Savonarola on the Florentine populace without a reference to the 'Diario' of Luca Landucci. There is no evidence of historical insight to compensate for lack of research, and the style is singularly untrained and confused.

Capt. Charles King, now well known as a writer of military tales, has republished certain accounts of field life on the frontier and several short sketches having a military substructure. These originally appeared in newspapers and magazines, and now are gathered as 'Campaigning with Crook and Stories of Army Life' (Harpers), with illustrations. In the imminent hostilities with the fierce Sioux of Dakota, these accounts of what has been undergone only a few years back in contest with the same nation, and in a degree with the same individuals, have a special interest, and at any time should prove instructive and attractive to the peaceful citizen who wonders what the army does. The peril in Indian action is grave, but the hardship of exposure, want, and fatigue in observation and pursuit, make greater inroads upon health and life. Mr. Finerty's 'Warpath and Bivouac,' which we recently noticed, goes over much of the same ground; but, whether Finerty or King, it is well worth rereading as sober fact, and not as romance. The appended fiction is light in design and execution.

'Around the World with the Blue Jackets' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), by Lieut. H. E. Rhoades, U. S. N., is a thoroughly entertaining account of a three years' cruise in an American sloop-of-war. Though the majority of the places visited were naturally those in the beaten track of the globe-trotter, this does not detract from the interest of the book. It is to be regretted that the author did not devote more space in the chapters upon Japan to the revolution of 1868, during which the Tycoon took refuge on his vessel, the *Iroquois*, and was carried to Yokohama. On his return from the East, Lieut. Rhoades sailed down the western coast of South America, touching at all the important ports, as well as passing through the very rarely used Smyth's Channel. This is a narrow and tortuous waterway between the mainland of southern Chili and the outlying islands, dangerous for vessels, but having magnificent perpendicular cliffs and deep ravines from which pour cascades and glaciers. The first American vessel to navigate it, according to Lieut. Rhoades, was the *Hassler* in 1872, having Prof. Agassiz and other scientific men as passengers. The four closing chapters give an interesting account of a cruise in the Arctic regions, whither the author was sent in search of the survivors of the *Polaris*. The book is fully illustrated and presents a very attractive appearance. We have noted a few errors in the names of places, and in some instances the information given is not brought down to date.

A book on a subject of perennial interest, and therefore not demanding immediate notice, but not on that account delayed, has lain before us nearly a year. 'The Drink Question,' by Dr. Kate Mitchell (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.), discusses alcohol in its social and medical aspects with much enthusiasm, but with less system than a formal treatise, and with more technical minutiæ than a popular paper. With no index, and with a meagre table of contents, it fails as a book of reference, but it is a fair contribution to popular information regarding the economic and physical advantages of abstinence. We have found no distinct misstatement, other than the one (pp. 80-1) that describes carbonic acid, passing into a receiving vessel from a fermenting liquid, as "a very poisonous vapor or gas"; which, if it were true, would be bad for soda-water and Apollinaris drinkers. The book re-

states many truths which it would be well for lawmakers, and especially for those who drink, be it never so little, to remember and to act upon.

The broad traits of the bound volume of the *Century Magazine* for May to October are the beginnings of the series of illustrated articles, historical and other, on California; Mr. Lafarge's letters from Japan; the conclusion of Joseph Jefferson's autobiography, since reproduced in book form; and the portrait series of Women of the French Salons. There are some echoes of the Lincoln biography as of the papers on the Civil War. Topics of the hour are the Washingtoniana and the short account of Marie Bashkirtseff. The fiction serial which has excited most attention has been "The Anglomaniacs." Mr. Cole's engravings after the old masters still lead the illustrations, and at the opposite extreme we are inclined to place the cuts of fowls, so far beneath the art of Bewick in plumage.

In the two volumes of *St. Nicholas* for 1890 Mrs. Ritchie's account of the boyhood of Thackeray is quite the literary gem. Boys have their meed of attention in Mr. Walter Camp's four articles on inter-collegiate football and five on base-ball. In the geographical field Mr. Glave's Congo papers should be mentioned, the writer being one of Stanley's lieutenants; but in the nature of the case his narrative would hardly have been different if intended for adults. There is a short paper also on the hurricane disaster to the war-ships at Samoa. Mr. Palmer Cox's Brownies disport themselves through both volumes. The illustrated paper, "Through a Detective Camera," is childish chiefly in its pictures, which are interesting and afford a legitimate employment of process engraving.

Mr. Howells's "Boy's Town" is perhaps the main feature of *Harper's Young People* for 1890, and we have already spoken of that. In the useful line of science we notice Mr. Felix Oswald's "Home Studies in Natural History" and Mr. Wm. Hamilton Gibson's kindred papers on familiar insects. There is an authoritative account of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and the school-days of our Presidents have furnished a topic which will be sure to attract all ambitious boys, who ought, perhaps, to be reminded that had certain of our Presidents been cut off in their school-days, the country would have been the better for it. Mrs. Burton has done a natural and very proper thing in dramatizing 'Alice in Wonderland' in three acts. This volume shows a steady encroachment of process upon wood-engraving.

We despair of analyzing the miscellany of the *Boys' Own Paper* (or *Boys' Own Annual*, as the bound twelfth volume reads on the cover), published by the London Religious Tract Society (New York: Fleming H. Revell). A comparison of it with *Harper's Young People*, which nearly resembles it in size, would be as interesting as it would be laborious. The American magazine is content with one colored plate for the year, but the English gives one to each number, usually after well-known oil paintings. The wood engravings are relatively crude. There is a great deal of useful information packed away in these 824 pages.

Again we have to record a number of new editions of works which need no fresh praise. Mr. William Henry Goodyear's 'History of Art' (A. S. Barnes & Co.) has a special pertinence to the holiday season in its dress—a brilliant binding without, and multicolor plates within, besides the fair text which addresses itself to classes, art students, and tourists in Europe. From Macmillan & Co. we have a charming embodiment of the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' with a preface by Austin Dobson, who takes as his theme the history of this tale, as illustrated in England, America, and on the Continent of Europe by successive generations of artists from 1780 to the present attempt by Hugh Thomson. One may enjoy Mr. Thomson's sketchy designs, especially his initial letters, and head and tail-pieces, and still agree with Mr. Dobson that, foreign artists apart, "Goldsmith has not hitherto found his fitting pictorial interpreter." The same firm puts forth, after eight years, a second edition of W. C. Lefroy's 'Ruined Abbeys of Yorkshire,' a series of papers which we think originally appeared in the *Portfolio*, accompanied, as here, by drawings by A. Brunet-Debaines and H. Toussaint. Mr. Lefroy writes for the popular intelligence, and invests his discourse with literary grace and a feeling of veneration. The book is a good preparation for or souvenir of travel in Yorkshire. The "Laurel-Crowned Tales" of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, are continued with 'Picciola'; and a companion series of "Laurel-Crowned Letters," of which much may be made by a wise choice, is begun with 'The Best Letters of Lord Chesterfield' and 'The Best Letters of Horace Walpole.' The typographical conception and execution of these volumes are admirable.

Mr. J. G. Rosengarten's valuable work on 'The German Soldier in the Wars of the United States' first took the shape of lectures, then of a small pamphlet, then of a book (1886), and now, in an enlarged second edition, fills nearly 300 pages (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). As it has commendably been wholly reset, we cannot well indicate the latest additions, nor is it necessary in the case of the sole monograph on the subject of it. There is a full index of names. This historical study is in a way a companion to G. Körner's important review of the German element in this country ('Das Deutsche Element in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika 1818-1848'), of which a second edition appeared in 1884 (New York: E. Steiger). Mr. Körner's chapter on New York, by the way, opens with the late August Belmont, emphasizing his political influence, which of recent years has quite passed away even from common remembrance.

Mr. W. S. Gilbert's 'Songs of a Savoyard' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) are so many plums from his several comic operas, duly accredited in the table of contents, and illustrated by his pencil with much individuality of humor. In fact, we have here a more refined 'Hood's Own,' and there is no predicting how many homes in which these lyrics are familiar and ready to be resung will desire this pretty volume when they learn of its existence.

The periodical called *Travel*, which Mr. W. M. Griswold issues at Cambridge, Mass., editing it with a selection and abridgment of approved narratives of personal visits to places famous for natural beauty and historical association, now rounds out two volumes. Their field is almost wholly European. The editor's name is an assurance that there is an index.

Mr. William R. Thayer has had reprinted his 'Historical Sketch of Harvard University from the Foundation to May, 1890.' It contains an account of the material and corporate growth of the college; of the progress of education; of student life, including Commons, Prayers, Discipline, Athletics, Secret Societies and Clubs, and College Customs. Copies may be had by forwarding fifty cents to the author at 15 Ware Street, Cambridge, Mass.

Scribner & Welford send us the first number of the quarterly *Critical Review of Theological and Philosophical Literature*, edited by Prof. S. D. Salmond, D.D., and published in Edinburgh by T. & T. Clark. It opens with a review of Martineau's 'Seat of Authority in Religion.' The projectors have felt the need in English of journals such as Germany can point to in this kind. The get-up of the magazine has been well devised.

A committee of the American Society of Naturalists on science-teaching in the schools have prepared an address to college faculties with a view to securing some work in natural or physical science as a requirement for admission. They recommend the selection of phænogamic botany, human physiology, and physical geography, but would allow preparatory schools to suit their own convenience and equipment, at least for the present. No one can doubt the desirability of such a reform if it can be accomplished. The chairman of the committee is Prof. Samuel F. Clarke of Williams College.

The fourth annual meeting of the American Economic Association has been appointed for December 26-30, at Washington, in the hall of the Columbian University, with headquarters at the Arlington Hotel. The last evening session will be held jointly with the American Forestry Association at the National Museum.

The eighth annual Convention of the Modern Language Association of America will be held in University Hall, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., on December 29, 30, and 31. On the evening of the 29th an address will be delivered before the Association by Landon C. Garland, A.M., LL.D., Chancellor of Vanderbilt University. At the subsequent sessions of the Convention papers will be presented by Professors E. H. Babbitt, New York; W. M. Baskervill, Vanderbilt University; Calvin S. Brown, Vanderbilt University; R. F. Butler, Woman's College, Baltimore; Albert S. Cook, Yale University; Charles Davidson, Belmont, Cal.; Alcée Fortier, Tulane University; John Phelps Fruit, Bethel College; James M. Garnett, University of Virginia; Frederick M. Page, University of the South; Hugo Albert Rennert, University of Pennsylvania; Henry E. Shepherd, College of Charleston; and Miss L. M. McLean, University of California.

—Two collections of sonnets, published simultaneously by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, attempt to show what America has accomplished in this province of literature. Col. Higginson and Mrs. E. H. Bigelow edit the smaller one, 'American Sonnets,' in which about 150 authors are represented by 250 sonnets, the largest allowance to any one writer being four examples; Mr. C. H. Crandall edits the other, 'Representative Sonnets by American Poets,' and gives 445 sonnets distributed among about 225 authors, with a maximum allowance of seven to any one writer. Mr. Crandall accompanies his collection with a long essay upon the history of the sonnet, with many examples from foreign sources; and although he is deficient in critical faculty and is not free from faults of taste, his paper is a painstaking monograph, and contains much information of real value to the student of the sonnet. The two collections necessarily cross each other, but less than would be expected. The very slight degree of merit required for admission is shown by the fact that although Mr. Crandall includes nearly seventy-five more writers than Col. Higginson, the latter finds room in his smaller volume for fifty writers whom Mr. Crandall ignores. The quality of choiceness in poetry is not to be looked for in either, and both seem to have aimed at representing the host of minor poets.

On this ground the palm must be given to Mr. Crandall, whose book does not lose more by the omission of the fifty whom Col. Higginson has temporarily saved from oblivion than it gains by his own larger charity in the same direction. His selection of examples from the better known poets, such as Lowell, also seems to us better in most instances; and he has not passed by any notable single sonnet. Both editors rank American contemporary sonnets higher than the same work of English writers, as did Mr. Sharpe in his recent collection similar to these; and certainly our minor poets reach a higher general average in the sonnet than in other forms of poetry. Whether this is a sign of strength or of weakness may be doubted. Either of the two collections is ample enough to satisfy a moderate appetite in sonnet-lovers. Each is fully supplied with indexes, and while Mr. Crandall adds a biographical dictionary of the authors, Col. Higginson is at pains to give the source of each piece with great particularity. The smaller volume is the more dainty in its manufacture.

—Some measure of the eagerness of mankind to get hold of Dr. Koch's lymph is afforded by the article Phthisis in the eleventh volume of Dr. Billings's great 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U.S.A.' It fills 78 pages in large and small type, and the allied rubrics of Pleura and Pneumonia fill 26 and 60 pages respectively. The diseases of the lungs, therefore, which fall within this portion of the alphabet (Phæ-Reg) require one-seventh of the 1,102 quarto pages. A near approach to this proportion is made by Pregnancy (67) and Puerperal (76), to say nothing of the brief entries under Quadruplets and Quintuplets. Among miscellaneous titles, Pharmacy and its kindred fill 62 pages, of which 8 are devoted to a very valuable conspectus of legislation on the subject, arranged by countries; Physiology, 41; Psychology, 15. There are 22 pages given to Physicians, mostly addresses to the profession; and 8 pages to Quacks and Quackery. In the materia medica, Quinine leads with 14 pages, followed by Potassium with 12 and Phosphorus with 10. The relation of medical science to our social evils is shown by the entries under Police, Poor, Population and Overpopulation, Prisons and Prisoners (19 pages), Prostitution (13 pages), Quarantine (17 pages), etc. The Phonograph already has a place, for has not a writer treated of its use in physical diagnosis? Photography, of course, is represented, though somewhat meagrely. Dr. Billings can refer to an article of his own on composite photography as applied to craniology. The Railroad, with its accidents and diseases, also cuts a figure. Among the personal titles one meets even with Rabelais, and we notice a 'Physical Dictionary,' published in London in 1657 by J. Garfield. There is a Garfield Road (Lavender Hill) to this day in London, but it may be a new designation taken from our President of that name. Female physicians will be dealt with under Women in a later volume, but a venerated pioneer in Philadelphia, the late Dr. Ann Preston, is recorded with her work.

—The humors of a catalogue like this are not inconsiderable when one seeks for them among the long-winded titles of an earlier century. We might cite that London tract of Philander Misaurus's (1735) on "The Honor of the Gout; or, a rational discourse, demonstrating that the gout is one of the greatest blessings which can befall mortal man; that all gentlemen who are weary of it are their own enemies; that those practitioners who offer at the cure are the vainest and most mischievous cheats in nature," etc. But not to delay over these, we have been struck with the tale told by the six pages given to Phrenology. They remind us of a fought-out battlefield. The first shot was fired by Gall in a Dutch edition of 1806, and the last survivor of his literary followers emptied his rifle about 1852. In these forty-six years the doctrine undoubtedly received its quietus; but one has only to con the works here designated to recognize the fact that phrenology had a mission which it triumphantly fulfilled. It was a great leaven. Classed by its assailants with materialism and atheism, its friends affirmed "the harmony between phrenology and revelation," declared it "not opposed to the principles of religion, nor to the precepts of Christianity," were led by it into "considerations respecting the recognition of friends in another world, on the affirmed descent of Jesus Christ into hell, on phrenology in connexion with the soul, and on the existence of a soul in brutes." But also, following George Combe, they discussed "human responsibility as affected by phrenology"; got new light on the moral bearings of heredity and of marriage; found in phrenology a scientific basis of education and even of medicine, and linked it to the cause of temperance and total abstinence. In all these directions the ferment continued long after the doctrine had lost fashion, credit, and propagators, loosening the bands of the old theology, and paving the way for the acceptance of Darwinism. It is interesting to observe in this catalogue how the earlier "science" of Physiognomy worked in parallel lines. A translation in 1635 of Adamantius's 'Physiognomicon' (1544) treated "des indices que la nature a mis au corps humain par où l'on peut découvrir les mœurs et les inclinations d'un chacun." Fitta's 'Treatise on the Influence of Climate on the Human Species, and on the Varieties of Men resulting from It' (1812), included "an account of the criteria of intelligence which the form of the head presents; and a sketch of a rational system of physiognomy as founded on physiology." An undated work issued by E. Benson at Leipzig seems to be a caricaturist's manual for hitting off "die Aehnlichkeit von Menschen mit gewissen Thieren." The colophon of Michael Scotus's 'Liber Phisionomiæ' (*circa* 1500) styles the work "de procreatione et hominis phisionomia opus."

—The way in which the interests of a whole nation are sometimes sacrificed in order to put more money into the purses of a few capitalists, has never been better illustrated than by the fate of the bill to enlarge the boundaries of the Yellowstone Park, to which *Garden and Forest* devotes a timely and forcible article in its issue of December 10. Eight years ago a bill was placed before Congress proposing the inclusion within the Park reservation of a large area of forest-covered mountains to the south and west. These lands are useless for grazing or agricultural purposes, while it is of the utmost importance that the forests should be preserved from fires and lumbermen. Their disappearance would diminish a needed water supply, and would seriously impair the scenic features to which this Park chiefly owes its international fame—the geysers, hot springs, and waterfalls. Moreover, the country south of the Park is a favorite breeding-place of the elk and other animals, which cannot be really protected in the Park as long as they are allowed to be slaughtered in vast numbers every year in its immediate neighborhood. Secretaries Lamar, Vilas, and Noble have in their annual reports recommended the passage of such a bill, and the Senate has passed it four times, but it has always been lost in the House, owing to the tactics of a small lobby who oppose its passage unless the exclusive privilege is granted to a railway company to lay fifty or sixty miles of track in order to reach the small mining camp of Cooke, just outside the northeastern corner of the Park. An effort has been made to compromise matters by making the Yellowstone River the northeastern boundary, which would not abandon any important scenic features, and would allow the Montana Mineral Railway Company or any one else to build to the mines. But this is precisely what the Montana Mineral Railway Company does not want, aiming as it does at a monopoly of the right to build, and to build in the Park. This, as *Garden and Forest* remarks, would be the beginning of the end.

—Prof. Theodor Kolde of Erlangen, the painstaking and faithful biographer of Luther, has done the cause of historical truth a service by refuting, in a little pamphlet entitled 'Luther's Selbstmord' (Leipzig: Deichert), the alleged discovery by Dr. Paul Majunke that Luther committed suicide. The manner in which this discovery was accomplished is characteristic of the unscrupulousness of the recent Ultramontane historians of the Janssen school, which is beginning to become a serious danger to the reputation of German historiography. We have a large number of authentic statements of eye-witnesses regarding the peaceful end of the great reformer, some of them written the very night of Luther's death, in which not the slightest intimation of a suicidal end occurs. This evidence, however, does not trouble Dr. Majunke very much. In a pamphlet of an obscure Italian writer of the year 1593 he finds the assertion of an anonymous servant of Luther's, that on the morning of February 18, 1546, his master had been found hanging to the post of his bed, and upon this belated and groundless rumor Majunke builds his startling discovery, which has been heralded by the Ultramontane press of Germany as a great masterpiece of historical research. It is to be hoped, though hardly to be expected, that Prof. Kolde's pamphlet will put an end to this disgraceful matter.

—After the lapse of nearly a century, the publishing house of J. G. Cotta in Stuttgart has revived the *Musenalmanach*, which played such a prominent part in German literature during the latter half of the eighteenth century. The first German *Musenalmanach* was issued at Göttingen in 1770 by Boie & Gotter, in imitation of the *Almanach des Muses*, which had met with such signal success in Paris five years before. A little later in the same year (1770), a similar work appeared at Leipzig, and in a short time annuals and anthologies of this kind sprang up like mushrooms in all parts of Germany and Austria as the organs of literary cliques; but the original enterprise, under the skilful management of Boie, held its own pecuniarily as well as poetically against all competitors. It numbered among its contributors some of the most eminent authors of that day, and was conducted by Voss from 1776 till 1800, when it quietly expired. A rival *Musenalmanach* was started at Göttingen in 1776, under the patronage of Bürger, and led a rather precarious existence till 1805. The *Musenalmanach* for 1891, edited by Dr. Otto Braun of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, is altogether an attractive volume, beautifully printed and elegantly bound in rococo style, with original designs by some of the best Munich artists.

LECKY'S IRISH HISTORY.—I.

A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Vols. VII. and VIII. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

WITH these two volumes, forming the seventh and eighth of the whole work, Mr. Lecky's 'History of England during the Eighteenth Century' comes to a close. They are occupied entirely with Irish affairs during the memorable years from 1795 to 1800, and constitute by far the fullest account of the events of those years which has yet been given to the world. Their fulness and minuteness are quite out of proportion to the treatment of English affairs during any period of corresponding length; but this is not a defect, for the period is one of supreme importance, and needed elucidation more than any other of the topics with which the whole treatise deals. It is entitled to a similarly careful examination at our hands.

Several critics of Mr. Lecky's book have remarked with truth that the Irish parts of it are the best done and the most likely to be permanently valuable. That this should be the case is due not merely to the fact that Mr. Lecky, as an Irishman, is specially interested in the annals of his country, and that those annals have received inadequate treatment from his predecessors, but also to the character of his own mind and method. He is rather an historical essayist than an historian in the old sense of the term. He wants either the will to paint, or the special talent for painting, a large canvas, such as may bring under the eye many scenes and many groups simultaneously acting their respective parts in the vast drama of English movement and progress. His book is, therefore, much less a narrative, telling a connected story and covering the whole of a large field, than a series of studies dealing with detached points or problems in the political and social history of the century.

This defect of method is less felt when the field to be covered is comparatively small; and thus Mr. Lecky succeeds much better, especially in the department of politics, in giving us a satisfactory and comprehensive view of the lesser island than he does of the greater. The English parts of his book do not contain an adequate account either of the constitutional changes and political struggles that went on during the reigns of the first three Georges, or of the part played by Britain in Europe and the world during that time. Such an account is still much needed. Hallam and May, Lord Stanhope and Mr. Massey, do not, taken together, give it to us; nor has Mr. Lecky added much to the work they have performed in the region of politics. But his Irish chapters, which begin with Elizabeth and carry the story down to 1800, constitute by far the best consecutive history of Ireland during the two centuries from the Tudor conquest—in a sense the first real conquest—till the Union to be found in our language. We feel this so strongly as to hope that the author will publish these chapters in a separate book, prefixing to them a sketch of the earlier history of the island, but not carrying, for a reason we shall subsequently state, his narrative below the year 1800. Such a book would deserve to be read, and would be read with profit, by many who will not open an eight-volume history of England during one century.

The two purely Irish volumes that are now before us possess several conspicuous merits. Not to dwell upon their agreeable style, for Mr. Lecky always writes easily and clearly, they bear witness to a careful and prolonged research into original documents which must have involved years of labor. A vast collection of official but confidential papers at Dublin Castle, to which, until recently, all access of students was debarred, and several collections of private letters preserved in England, have been examined by him, with the result of throwing a flood of new light upon the more obscure episodes of these years, and especially on the secret information which the Government received of the plans of the Irish conspirators. The merit of this great service to historical truth is enhanced by the spirit in which Mr. Lecky seems to have performed it. He inspires us with the most absolute confidence in his integrity. We are not speaking of verbal accuracy, for that is a matter on which only a person who should follow and verify his citations would be qualified to pronounce. But what he has given us bears the stamp of a scrupulous fairness and honesty in endeavoring to ascertain the real facts and present the exact impression which those facts make; a task whose difficulty those who have attempted to extract the truth from the contradictory accounts of Irish writers are best fitted to appreciate. This fairness is not less apparent in his descriptions than in his selections from illustrative letters and documents. He is obviously anxious to let every fact that can bear upon the questions in hand be fully stated and have its due effect upon the reader's mind.

Mr. Lecky's moral instincts are sound, and do not suffer him to attempt to gloze over ferocity and falsehood, after the fashion of the detestable book in which Mr. Froude has seemed to enjoy and almost to applaud the cruelties perpetrated by those who provoked and suppressed the insurrection of 1798. Some of the comments he interposes are, indeed, such as one scarcely expects from the writer who has seen the facts so clearly and set them forth with such unswerving fidelity. Mr. Lecky seems unable to rid himself of the notion that governments, however foolish and wicked, are nevertheless entitled to obedience and to what is called "loyalty" from their unhappy subjects; and hence, while he is describing the follies and crimes of the junto who ruled Ireland at the end of last century, he continues to be shocked by the "treason" of those who were endeavoring to overthrow them. He does not seem to see that grossly illegal conduct and acts of wanton cruelty are far more to be condemned when practised by a government than when resorted to by men whom oppression has driven wild. In one passage at the end of the book the partisanship of an Irish politician unhappily gets possession of him, and has dictated a passage which all who are not partisans will read with unfeigned regret. But we must repeat that although there is enough, even without that unlucky passage, to show what his political attitude is, our confidence in his fairness as an investigator and narrator remains unshaken, and disposes us to believe that no subsequent examination of the same sources will produce results substantially different from those which are here so fully and lucidly set forth.

The best parts of the book are, to our thinking, those which analyze the currents of opinion and summarize the motives of classes and individuals; the least successful those in which events are narrated. Mr. Lecky, as has been already remarked, is rather an historical essayist than an historian. He does not enjoy the process of telling a story, and makes comparatively little use of the opportunities for dramatic description which his subject offers. Compare his account of the rising in Wexford, or of the short campaign of General Humbert in Mayo, with Macaulay's account of the fight at Sedgmoor, and the difference in graphic force is surprising. So Mr. Lecky's description of the capture of Lord Edward Fitzgerald in Thomas Street, in Dublin, is less telling than Mr. Froude's account of the same incident. No doubt we believe Mr. Lecky's story, and read Mr. Froude's only as a piece of clever writing to which fancy may have contributed many details and carelessness altered others. If the choice is between want of color and want of accuracy, we prefer the former. Still, it is a pity that Mr. Lecky should not have tried to vary the monotonous gloom of his picture of Irish affairs by throwing somewhat more spirit and variety into his narrative.

How gloomy and monotonous that picture is, no one will adequately realize till he has read right through these volumes. From beginning to end the clouds never part to let one ray of sunlight through. Pitt's Government in England, Lord Camden (or rather the junto which ruled in his name) in Ireland, pass from one blunder or crime to another with as fatal a persistency as though their object had been to ruin the country and sow the largest crop of future evils. Lord Fitzwilliam comes on the scene for a few weeks as the messenger of peace and freedom, but is speedily removed. Lord Cornwallis attempts to mitigate the horrors which accompanied the repression of the rising of 1798, but his pleas for clemency are disregarded, and bring down on him the wrath of the "loyal" party. He is commissioned to bring about a union with England, and is himself convinced that the measure is a necessary one; but the corruption and intrigues by which he is obliged to push it through revolt him, and deepen, while they reveal, the turpitude of the system he has been sent to administer. Among those who surround these three Lord Lieutenants there are some men of marked talent, such as Fitzgibbon and Castlereagh, but not one whose character inspires us with respect. The single wise and humane figure that flits past is that of the Scotch soldier, Sir Ralph Abercromby, and he is speedily forced by the clamors of the dominant faction to withdraw from a part in which humanity and respect for law were disqualifications.

Nor do our spirits rise when we turn from the Government and their supporters to the popular party. The leaders are, no doubt, less personally repellent. Grattan is always brilliant, upright, dignified; and though Mr. Lecky calls his speeches "violent," they will not appear to American readers to go one word beyond what the circumstances of the time needed. Wolfe Tone impresses us by his tenacity, his clear-sightedness, his unselfish devotion to the cause he had embraced, his courage, not quailing in the presence of defeat and at the approach of an ignominious death. (Mr. Lecky's generous recognition of the merits of one whose politics excite his horror, contrasts well with the virulent acerbity of the Duke of Argyll's recent magazine attacks upon Tone's memory.) Arthur O'Connor, Lord E. Fitzgerald, Hamilton Rowan, and some of the minor rebel chiefs deserve the sympathy which we give to honesty and fortitude. But the profusion among the conspirators of persons ready to sell information to the Government, together with the ignorance, and in too many cases the ferocity, of the Roman Catholic peasantry who rose in rebellion, throw dark shades over the popular movement. However strongly one may condemn the Government, one can hardly wish success to the insurrection. And through the whole story of these six years one has the painful

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sense that things are getting steadily worse; that the wisdom of the few wise men, and the justice of the few just men, are being steadily overborne by the torrent of passion and hatred which had risen till it covered the island; that the miseries of these years were not to be redeemed by any brighter days to follow. It is above all this reflection that makes the book such unspeakably melancholy reading.

In a second article we shall advert to some of the chief points of controversy with which Mr. Lecky deals. To wind up these general remarks on his work, it is only necessary to add that his references to general history—European and American—are usually correct. Here and there an American reader will note some small error, as in the remark on "the close connection that subsisted between the north of Ireland and New England" (vol. ii., p. 122), whereas New England was that part of the United States which had received the smallest proportion of Ulster settlers; and as in the observations on the American and British Constitutions (vol. ii., p. 321, sq.), which indicate an imperfect grasp of the legal character of these two systems. Such small blemishes as these, however, may well be pardoned to a writer who has rendered the history of a most difficult period services so eminent as those we have sought to appraise.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

If happiness depends upon games—and they have doubtless something to do with it—the young people of the present day ought to be happier than any of their predecessors; for in 'The Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Games and Sports' (Henry Holt & Co.) they can learn something about every game known to civilized life, and certainly no such collection has ever appeared before. Moreover, the natural tendency of boys, when not engaged in active out-door exercise, to test the various forces of nature, is fostered by a number of chemical and mechanical experiments, which it is to be hoped are not as dangerous as they look. A few years ago the literature of games was exclusively of English origin, but here is a book which is obviously American from "All Fours" clear through to "Yachting"; and in view of the wide range of subjects, it is pleasant to be able to report that a careful examination has failed to reveal any inaccuracies. The account of whist gives all the recent additions to the "American leads," now so generally adopted; the records of athletic contests are brought down to the present year; the official rules of football and other sports are given in full; and, in fact, everything seems to have been done to make the book complete and convenient for reference. The illustrations are numerous, and, besides elucidating the text, add not a little to the attractiveness of the volume.

Col. T. W. Knox's 'Horse Stories and Stories of Other Animals' (Cassell Publishing Co.) is an excellent book to give to an intelligent boy or girl. That part of it which relates to horses is as good in its way as 'Black Beauty,' and marks, as that admirable book does, the beneficent results of the work and teaching of Mr. Bergh's society. There has been a great improvement during recent years in the treatment of all kinds of horses, and the wide circulation of such books is a fruitful source of good. Any one who loves horses will appreciate these stories told about them, and at the same time will get many useful hints as to the best way of managing them. Very interesting, also, are the stories told by Col. Knox of a number of other animals, some of which are familiar and others very strange, like the long-nosed monkey of Borneo. The natives say of these monkeys that they are a race of men who have fled to the forest in order to avoid the payment of taxes; but a careful examination of the picture of the animal at page 174 fails to show a resemblance to any of our well-known tax-evading citizens, and the theory is probably devoid of scientific truth. The illustrations, by the way, are very good, and the only objection to the book is the introduction of a father and two sons as pegs on which to hang the stories. This produces a 'Sanford and Merton' flavor which may possibly pall even on a youthful appetite.

'A Yacht Voyage around England' (London: The Religious Tract Society; New York: Fleming H. Revell), by the late William H. G. Kingston, is an excellent book of its kind. A party of schoolboys spend the summer in visiting the principal English seaports, one of the number being the historian. While the style is generally marked by a boyish simplicity, considerable descriptive power is shown, the author's well-known familiarity with the sea being constantly evident. Especially good is the account of the rescue of a shipwrecked crew by a life-boat. Much historical information is given of the places visited, together with descriptions of dockyards, harbors, lighthouses, life-saving apparatus, fishing fleets, and in fact nearly everything which would be seen on such a voyage, including the resuscitation of a half-drowned person. There are numerous well-chosen pictures, which, though not very new, give the book an attractive appearance.

We have found 'The Knockabout Club in North Africa' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat), by Fred. A. Ober, very hard reading. There are numerous long quotations from various unnamed authors, and the passages which link them together are written in a dry, lifeless way not calculated to interest the young. One of the stories which form the padding to the volume is entirely out of place in a work of this character, and shows a singular lapse of judgment in the compiler. The illustrations are abundant and taking.

The modest preface to 'A Loyal Little Red-Coat,' by Ruth Ogden (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), at once disarms criticism. The heroine of this historical story, Hazel Boniface, is a stanch adherent of King George III., although the Revolutionary war is over and America no longer under monarchical rule. But Hazel's father had, with great personal loss, followed his honest convictions, and his little daughter loyally followed him. Her interview with Alexander Hamilton, and the fearlessness and naïve simplicity with which she gives her opinion on a case which the great lawyer had defended, is one of the best chapters in the book. The Van Vleet tea-party has a genuine colonial flavor that is appetizing. We would suggest, however, that with such a spirited heroine and in such stirring times the action of the story should have been more animated; but it is hindered not so much by historical movements as by rather long moral digressions, the truths of which should have been left a component part of the characters, needing no further demonstration. There are sixty original illustrations by H. A. Ogden, which show much skill in the faithful portrayal of the scenes and characters of the book.

Cassell & Co. have issued a new children's book by Maggie Browne, entitled 'Wanted—a King.' The sense of justice inherent in all children will, we think, be gratified by this story of how the wrongs of the Rhyme People were righted by a little girl who resolutely set about it. The wickedness of Grunter Grim, with whom we are all too well acquainted, in depriving Nurseryland of a king, is set at naught by this small child's perseverance in the use of a certain magic couplet. How Master Dicky Bird, with the four-and-twenty blackbirds, helped to circumvent the goblin, and how the Rhyme-Fairy found the missing rhyme, which was the key to the whole situation, is cleverly told. The whole is a delightful bit of nonsense, permeated by sweet lessons of content and good temper. The style is crisp, and keeps one's interest unflagging. The illustrations, by Harry Furness, are in keeping with the story.

In 'Dollikins and the Miser' (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), Miss Frances Eaton has drawn a fine and spirited character. Dollikins is a brave and generous girl, battling against sharp poverty with a spirit as buoyant as the waves she makes her confidants and companions. She is not too good, either, for human nature's daily food, but has her ups and downs as a strong but undeveloped character would. Her influence upon the old miser is salutary, and while he does not learn to be "wasteful," as Dollikins earnestly desires him to be, his hand is gradually relaxing its clutch upon the hoarded dollars before death finally claims him. It is a pity that more care should not have been exercised in drawing the other characters, so that the book might take the rank which would otherwise have belonged to it.

The effort to lead children into the world of animal life and make them familiar there is a praiseworthy one; but children are sharp-sighted, and unless boldly taken into fairyland are inclined to question if too great a strain is put upon their credulity, and so the object aimed at is frustrated. In 'Mrs. Muff and her Friends,' by Mary Lee Etheredge (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.), we think the author has made this mistake. Some of Mrs. Muff's (the family cat's) gossip is amusing, but we do not believe her stories will serve to bring children into more intimate relations with her friends.

Mrs. Molesworth, in her 'Children of the Castle' (Macmillan), deals with the supernatural in generous fashion. The grim old castle, standing on sea-washed cliffs, affords unusual opportunities for the visits of those mysterious folk who are said to have the power of reading our thoughts even better than we ourselves; and so, as occasion offers, the children of the castle (Ruby and Mavis, with a boy cousin, who comes to visit them) receive visits from a certain princess belonging to Mystery Land who aids them in overcoming their faults. The analogy between the awakening of the conscience, or moral vision, and natural sight is true enough, and there can be no doubt about the beauties that are revealed when the former is cleared of cobwebs. But we could wish that the author had not the habit of taking us so suddenly in and out of the supernatural world. This must be confusing to children and have a tendency to weaken the effect of the story. The illustrations are by Walter Crane.

We bespeak a welcome for "Grace Greenwood's" 'History of My Pets' and 'Stories of My Childhood' (United States Book Co.), now reissued many years after their first appearance, but comparing favorably with the major part of our juvenile literature in interest and in literary style. They have the pre-eminent merit, almost lost sight of in the too conscious productions of the present day, of being written with an eye single to the children who are invited to read them. Hence clearness, directness, simplicity in the narra-

tive, with nothing for adults to read between the lines.

Mr. Cabot Lodge, though now identified with the Force Bill, has shown a tender side for children in his collection of 'Ballads and Lyrics,' of a less ambitious time. In like manner, his late political antagonist, Mr. William Everett, has addressed himself to the young in 'Double Play' and 'Changing Base,' stories now ten or a dozen years old; and this season he writes a sequel to the latter story, called 'Thine, Not Mine,' an attempt to develop a character whose prime weakness is unconscious selfishness. Dr. Everett has a very intimate acquaintance with boy nature, and the action and speech he attributes to his dramatis personæ are natural and probable. The episode of "David Porter's Boys" is true to the life, and the peril of gangs of boys subservient to a bullying leader is usefully suggested and not in the least overdrawn. For all that, we would not have had this young ruffian horsewhipped on the street by the passionate father of one of his victims, even if Dr. Everett should contend that Mr. Rice was merely behaving consistently with his own nature. There are other things which we would have omitted, because in writing for children we think selection a duty. The story will be found interesting, with much wholesome morality openly and implicitly contained in it. Its rank as a sequel, about which the author appears to entertain some doubt, remembering the usual fate of sequels, may be safely left to the readers of 'Changing Base.'

THREE ILLUSTRATED NOVELS.

Port Tarascon. By Alphonse Daudet. Translated by Henry James. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.

The Aztec Treasure-House. By Thomas A. Janvier. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.

The Begum's Daughter. By Edwin Lassetter Bynner. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

THE adventures of the illustrious Tartarin are brought to a close in the third volume, entitled 'Port Tarascon.' The hero of Algeria and the Alps is seen as the victim of a tremendous practical joke which entails ruin on the Tarasconians and brings about his own downfall. The spectacle of human folly is here exaggerated beyond the limits of even transient belief, and, to the English mind at least, is excessively strained, unnatural, and tiresome. The spirit of the Tartarin extravagances is Gallic to the last degree, the style in which they are written is French to the finger tips, and both spirit and style are so thoroughly un-English that he who knows Tartarin only through an English version must be utterly bewildered in trying to account for his widespread fame. Even in the original, he is puzzling, rather meaningless, and very dull to the reader who is not about as French as a born Frenchman. Caricature is always a poor sort of amusement for those unfamiliar with its original or foundation, and few indeed are the Englishmen so intimately acquainted with the vainglorious, romancing Frenchman of the *Midi* that they can enjoy Tartarin as heartily as they enjoy Pickwick, to whom the Tarasconian is much more nearly related than to the author's favorite comparative figure, Don Quixote.

It is hardly necessary to say that the most and best that can be done for "Port Tarascon" in English has been done by Mr. James; and if we cannot agree with his appreciative introduction, it is doubtless because we cannot so readily and completely adopt the French point of view. The book is very finely printed and bound, and nothing except eyes irrespective of nationality is needed to enjoy the illustrations.

Story-tellers apparently never tire of the fabled city built by a primitive people in the least accessible locality, the home of an heroic race and the storehouse of vast treasure. The search for such a city is the subject of Mr. Janvier's 'Aztec Treasure-House.' It is a much more reasonable and readable story than most of its kind, and as exciting and marvellous as any. The opening chapters are perhaps a little too serious to catch the attention of young readers, but, once the expedition to the heart of the Mexican Mountains is started, the spirit never flags and the interest increases steadily. The men who make up the party of exploration are well chosen and characterized with great distinctness. Dr. Palgrave never forgets his mistress, Science, nor the saintly Fray Antonio his longing for the martyr's crown of thorns; the Yankee engineer and railway-man keep the promised treasure steadily in view; the Indian boy Pablo and his donkey, the Wise One, are delightful figures, indispensable both to point the moral and adorn the tale. Altogether, the 'Aztec Treasure-House' is a most admirable book for youngsters, since it satisfies the healthy craving for adventure, and never degenerates into wild, stupid sensationalism.

The beginning of the 'Begum's Daughter' is discouraging. One despairs of finding a leading thread in the categorical description of New Amsterdam of the year 1689, or in the plentiful, disconnected gossip of the hucksters on market-day. The clandestine love-affair of the young aristocrat, Van Dorn, with Hester Leisler arouses a mild interest, but not until he begins to develop the character of Jacob Leisler and his political ambitions does the author show his strength. No single episode in any modern historical novel is better told than is this of the Leisler insurrection in the city of New York; and the construction, from the bare facts of history, of a living, breathing Leisler is simply masterly. In the end we are permitted to see the coarse, fanatical, brutal Leisler, as he saw himself when brought face to face with a shameful death—a death in which legal justice was not identical with human justice. History may not justify Leisler, but Mr. Bynner, in his finishing touches, rouses a sympathy for him which puts history to scorn.

These days are full of effort to popularize history, to make it palatable for the mature and entertaining for the young. Mr. Bynner's contribution to the movement is not pretentious, but it is very successful. Any one who may read 'The Begum's Daughter' will retain a clear memory of the events which brought about the Leisler insurrection, and a fair impression of all the people conspicuously engaged in it.

Marie Antoinette and the End of the Old Régime, etc., etc., etc. By Imbert St.-Amand. Translated by Thomas Sergeant Perry. 6 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1890.

IN these translations of the interesting series of sketches by M. Imbert St.-Amand of court life in France under the Old Régime, the Consulate, and the First Empire, we have found an unexpected amount of pleasure and profit. The writer assumes that his readers are acquainted with the main facts; he therefore addresses himself simply to the task of illustration, and it must be confessed that he performs this function in a very agreeable fashion. He cites for us passages from forgotten diaries, hitherto unearthed letters, extracts from public proceedings, and the like, and contrives to combine and arrange his material so as to make a great many very vivid and pleasing pictures. Nor is this all. The material he lays before us is of real value, and much, if not most of it, must be unknown save to the special students of the period. There is accordingly abundant opportunity afforded the reader to draw from these contemporary records other lessons and inferences than those presented in the text, if he chooses so to do. We found ourselves, during our perusal of these volumes, while in the main willingly following the author's lead, yet continually tempted to wander off in other trains of thought, to indulge in other reflections, to draw other conclusions. And this is as it should be in an historical work. No historical writer can expect to exhaust the subject of which he treats. He can only hope to present those aspects, those conclusions, which seem to him to be the most important. His work will be all the more valuable if he furnishes his readers with material of which they also can make their own individual use.

The series begins with a book entitled 'Marie Antoinette and the End of the Old Régime.' The writer is a strong royalist, a sincere Catholic, and an ardent admirer of the Queen. He dwells with evident pleasure on the gay times before the storm broke. "No one," said Chateaubriand, "has seen anything who has not seen the pomp of Versailles." "No one," said Talleyrand, "who did not live before 1789 has any idea of the charm of life." We have not space here, of course, for details, but we may say that the famous story of the diamond necklace is extremely well told in these pages.

Then follow five volumes on the Napoleonic period—'Citizeness Bonaparte,' 'The Wife of the First Consul,' 'The Court of the Empress Josephine,' 'The Happy Days of the Empress Marie Louise,' and 'Marie Louise and the Decadence of the Empire.' In these narratives, or pictures as they might fairly be called, the author takes us behind the scenes of the great Napoleonic drama. He shows us the human interests that lay behind the attitudes, the speeches, the actions of the great players. Notwithstanding that he comes to the task of narrating this epoch in the history of his country with the convictions and prejudices of a royalist, his treatment of it is very just, very moderate, and, let us say, very human. To him Napoleon is no prodigy, no monster, no deity; there is no call either for unqualified admiration or for utter abhorrence. With the aid of the copious extracts from his correspondence given by M. St.-Amand, one may, it seems to us, get a sufficiently clear notion of the man Napoleon; one may watch and intelligently study the development of his character from first to last. It is needless to say, therefore, that our author does not occupy the standpoint which is to-day so much in fashion; Napoleon is not to him an unaccountable prodigy, as he is to Taine, nor is he the embodiment of unscrupulous selfishness, as he appears to Lanfrey. Our author has taken pains to be fair, to be just, to be considerate, and to try to put himself in Napoleon's place; and we have risen from a perusal of these books, which are the work of a man whose fundamental views of public policy array him among the opponents of Napoleon, with a feeling that a considerable advance has been made in the historical treatment of an epoch which has hitherto been practically abandoned to the bitterest of parti-

san writers. It is something, certainly, when a French royalist can write calmly and in a fair and candid way about the great Emperor, when he shows us by these books of his that he freely allows the rightfulness of according a large place in French history to the grand and tragical events of the First Empire. We do not mean to imply that M. St.-Amand has written a history, or has thrown new light on the important questions of that period; but merely that in his sketches of the history of that time (for that is really all his books are) he has dealt with his subject in the right spirit.

We can, therefore, cordially commend these books to the attention of our readers. They will find them attractive in their arrangement, never dull, with much variety of scene and incident, and admirably translated by Mr. Perry. We suspect, though we do not know it, that he has availed himself fully of his privileges as a translator in giving to his version a purely English construction and flavor; but his work is all the better for that.

London Letters, and Some Others. By George W. Smalley. Harper & Bros. 1890. 2 vols.

It is not often the case that contributions to the daily press will bear reproduction in the form of a book. They are necessarily brief, almost necessarily disconnected, and generally possess but a transitory interest. To say that the letters here selected from Mr. Smalley's voluminous correspondence with the New York *Tribune* endure this test upon the whole very well, is, therefore, to award them high praise. The collection might have been made smaller with improvement to its quality, but it could no doubt have been made much larger without deterioration. As it is, there is a sufficient range of topics for all tastes, and at the same time there is enough upon each topic.

For nearly a generation Mr. Smalley has devoted himself to summarizing contemporary history, with an inevitable increase in the suggestiveness of his matter. He knows the recent past continuously and not in spots. His letters, if published in full, would tell very nearly what the ordinary American wanted to know and has known concerning the course of events in Europe, or at least in Great Britain. Upon this account we apprehend that he has made a mistake in disregarding the chronological order. The sense of progress and development is lost unless the reader picks out the letters in the order in which they were written, which is something that few of us will have the patience to do. By reading last what was written first, confusion is frequently produced, and what the author would naturally leave as the final impression is effaced by that which he had intended to precede it.

It is true that for most of what Mr. Smalley writes, chronology is not very important. He knows that what his readers want is gossip, and gossip is what he gives them. Of history in the philosophical sense he has nothing to say; when he discourses of society, it is society as understood by Mrs. Grundy. Current events he notes as they occur; whatever the pocket camera or phonograph can fix, that he reports, but he does not concern himself with causes or with political or social tendencies. It might almost be said that he has no opinions of his own, for he feels it incumbent upon him to give the opinions that he hears, and he thinks it proper to impress his readers with the fact that his information is derived from the very highest sources. "He could an if he would" tell us much more than he does, but he will violate no confidences. He will quote most impressively a remark in itself sufficiently commonplace, and add regretfully that he must not name the man who made it, but he will say that he was one of the first three statesmen of England—as if it made any difference. He visits Lord Aberdeen at Dublin Castle, and he reports: "One of the oldest residents in Dublin, a man distinguished in the University and in society, told me that during his forty years' experience he had never known so much accomplished in the way of entertaining at the Castle as by Lord and Lady Aberdeen." In the name of the Prophet—figs!

But it is wrong to shoot at the performer when he is doing his best. Is not the world, after all, most interested in unimportant things and in unimportant aspects of important things? And is it not the business of the newspaper correspondent to tell the world what will most interest it? In this view Mr. Smalley's letters deserve the highest praise. It should be said of him, also, that even if he loves gossip—as who does not?—and magnifies his own position, he is no tale-bearer or scandal-monger. Without doubt he must have suppressed many a racy anecdote, many a fascinating revelation, from the honest conviction that his American readers would be better without such knowledge; and, for a man of the world not devoid of conceit in his worldliness, this is no small sacrifice.

We find Mr. Smalley at his poorest when he undertakes the social essay. He is not endowed with humor, and his touch is not light. He takes himself much too seriously, and it is sometimes painful to observe the weight which he attaches to his own utterances. Social distinctions oppress him grievously, and the requirements of etiquette are as severe to him as the Levitical law to the Pharisees. Much better are the personal sketches; superficial generally, but often clever and interesting, containing the details that can be obtained only through personal observation. The account of Carlyle is particularly pleasing. But it is in the description of spectacles of broad human interest that Mr. Smalley really excels. The letters on Mr. Gladstone's "Midlothian Campaigns" have a swing to them that carries the reader away, and the impression they create is often so vivid that for most people it would be almost better to read the account than to behold the spectacle that occasioned it. In some of the descriptions of pageants there is a little too strong a suggestion of the trial of Warren Hastings, but there are touches of unquestionable originality, as where we are told, in an account of the opening of Parliament, that the Queen wears a better fitting dress than she did upon a like occasion six years before.

Strolls by Starlight and Sunshine. By W. Hamilton Gibson. Harper & Brothers. 1890. 8vo, 194 pp., with sixty-two illustrations by the author.

To the facile pencil and artistic insight of the author of this dainty volume we have been indebted in the past, as on the present occasion, for the adequate illustration of minor bits of nature. The leaves and petals of his woodland posies wave or droop with absolute fidelity to the manner of their originals. No stuffed birds sat as models for him, nor are these cabinet butterflies on patent invisible pins. The charm inherent in unsophisticated nature has deftly been transferred in black and white. For some of us a delightful reminiscence, for others, doubtless, a revelation is thus conveyed. It is difficult to imagine any great advance in quality over the best of these illustrations as possible in this direction. Some of the engraving, such as that by F. French; the block entitled "Night Witchery," by John P. Davis; and a delightful bit of woods by E. S. King, is worthy of special mention. The "process-work" by which some of the sketches are rendered directly from the artist's original, is more delicately and successfully printed than any we remember to have seen hitherto in an American book.

Nor is the text unworthy of its setting. In a "Midnight Ramble" and "Night Witchery," Mr. Gibson gives us the true aroma of the woods; in "Bird Notes" and "Bird Cradles" the feathered tribe seem almost to speak for themselves; while those who know the woods will hardly fail to glow responsive to the author's enthusiasm for his "Wild Garden." Lovers of beauty and of nature will, we think, be glad to possess this book, especially since so much of it as has already appeared in print has been immersed in the more or less incongruous matter of the monthly magazine.

The Art of Book-Binding: A Practical Treatise. By Joseph W. Zaehnsdorf. With plates and diagrams. 2d edition, revised and enlarged. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1890.

The first edition of Mr. Zaehnsdorf's book was published ten years ago; it contained more colored plates than the present edition, and it had the advantage of a larger page. Otherwise there is little difference in the later issue from its predecessor except that the more recent machinery finds mention—in so far, that is, as it may have been introduced into England. We doubt, for instance, if the machinery exists in England to-day to do work like the gilt-stamped leather covers of the new 'Century Dictionary.' The fact is that publisher's binding in leather like that of the dictionary just mentioned, the Remington 'Hiawatha,' Mr. Joseph Jefferson's 'Autobiography,' and certain other recent books, is much better done on this side of the Atlantic than on the other; and the finer *reliure de luxe* is far better done in France than in England. Mr. Zaehnsdorf nowhere shows any consciousness of the fact that Great Britain has done little or nothing for the art of the binder. Roger Payne was the greatest of British bookbinders, before Mr. Cobden-Sanderson showed how beautifully a modern book might be decorated; but Payne is not worthy of mention beside any one of half-a-dozen great French binders, and his influence on the development of the art has been unimportant. Perhaps as typical as anything of the merely imitative condition of the art in England to-day—always excepting the work done by Mr. Cobden-Sanderson—is the fact that there is not really an original design in either edition of Mr. Zaehnsdorf's book. It is to be noted, also, as not without significance, that the plates here reproduced as bindings by "Gascon" (*sic*) and "Derome," by "Grolier" and "Maioli," are some of them (and we think all of them) not original buildings by these artists or for these amateurs, but modern reproductions or imitations of their styles, presumably by Mr. Zaehnsdorf himself. The specimen of the style of Le Gascon, for example, offered in the third plate of this edition, cannot be other than a modern work, since the title of the book is given, 'Troupe de Voltaire,' a comparatively recent collection of portraits and biographies of actors at the Théâtre-Français. We may further remark that, although Mr. Zaehnsdorf must know, and no doubt does know, that Grolier and Maioli were not themselves binders, he

speaks of them two or three times very much as though they were.

The chief value of the present book is in its exact account of the technical processes now in use in England. There are lovers of bookbinding who think that the handicraft of bookbinding is as well understood in England as in France, and perhaps better, although, of course, no one could doubt the enormous artistic superiority of the French. English "forwarding" at its best is solid, and the workmanship is honest and thorough. It is only in the "finishing" that the inferiority of British art appears. It is pleasant to observe that Mr. Zaehnsdorf himself likes his own work better than the foreigner's. "I cannot agree," he says (p. 116), "that one must go to France now to have a book bound properly. The method of bookbinding is quite differently managed and worked there than (*sic*) it is here. I have witnessed both methods, and prefer the English one as being more substantial."

History of the Dominion of Canada. By the Rev. William Parr Greswell, M.A. (Oxon.), F.R.C.I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890. Pp. 339.

This book is stated in the preface to be the first of a series designed to illustrate the progress of England's three great self-governing groups of colonies in North America, South Africa, and Australasia, and to be primarily intended for educational purposes in the higher classes of public schools. In the plan and treatment of its subject it bears evidence of the didactical purpose for which it was composed. It is very full, though cursory, in its statement of facts, and, while narrating events, does little to explain their causes. It exhibits industry rather than philosophy.

In its treatment of questions that involve the relations of the United States and Great Britain, it exhibits, not unnaturally, considerable bias, and is far from satisfactory. As illustrations we may take two important incidents: the war of 1812 and the abrogation of the reciprocity treaty of 1854. In both cases the impression of the author appears to be that the dominant motive of the United States was a desire for the annexation of Canada. It is true that he mentions the British Orders in Council, by which American commerce was made a vicarious sacrifice in England's conflict with Napoleon, and the claim to search American vessels on the high seas and take out British subjects, as causes of the war of 1812. But he refers to these things rather as causes of "irritation," to which the people of the United States were especially susceptible because of the "large heritage of hatred and prejudice" which the war of Independence left behind, and declares in the end that "the war [of 1812] was a popular one, and the conquest of Canada appeared a simple matter."

So, when he relates the termination of the reciprocity treaty of 1854, he says: "The United States closed the treaty themselves in 1864, hoping to ruin Canada and cause her to ask for annexation." It may be affirmed that the author's impression on these points is not well founded, and that in neither case was the idea of conquest an appreciable motive. In reality, the reciprocity treaty was terminated in 1866; and if the author, when he stated that it was brought to an end in 1864, had recollected that in the latter year a civil war was raging in the United States, he could hardly have attributed to our statesmen the folly of acting at such a time upon the supposition that, as the result of their course, Canada would ask to be admitted into the Union. The discussions of the time show that the principal causes of the abrogation of the treaty were the disadvantages under which the United States labored in consequence of our then very extensive system of internal-revenue taxation, and, though in less degree, the dissatisfaction felt at the course of the authorities in Canada during our civil war. So far as the author relies upon the invasion of Canada during the war of 1812 as evidence of a desire for conquest, it is only necessary to point out that in any conflict of arms between the United States and Great Britain, Canada, for purely military reasons, would inevitably be an object of attack.

Translations into Greek and Latin Verse. By C. H. St. L. Russell, M.A. London: Percival & Co. 1890.

This book contains Greek and Latin metrical versions of passages from Shakspere, Milton, Tennyson, Matthew Arnold, and others. The selections are well chosen, and the translator shows evidence of having profited by the ordinary training in prosody which has always played an important part in classical education in England. We have purposely used the word "ordinary" because it is well suited to these translations. Some consideration of Mr. Russell's Latin verses (he is better in Greek iambics) will illustrate our meaning. For instance, we should have been surprised to find a false quantity in them, or a spondee in the second half of a pentameter, or a monosyllable at the end of a hexameter, or a polysyllable forming two complete feet. One may avoid all this, and yet be like the man in Persius:

> "Scit tendere versum
> Hand secus ac si oculo rubricam derigat uno."

These are the very A B C of the art, and he who has not mastered its minuter details and its more delicate shades of color only makes us shudder at his rule-of-thumb productions.

We speak not now of a certain sense of the fitness of things. Only lack of this would permit a man, within the compass of a few pages, to put into the same metre Tennyson's "Peace; come away," and Dobson's rondeau to the English girl. It is no excuse, we think, to point to the fact that the Romans under the Empire so abused the elegiac as to employ it for all sorts of compositions. Such an abuse was made of the Heroic stanza in English literature, but fancy putting into Heroics the two songs by these living masters of metre! Horace would have afforded Mr. Russell variety enough. But his only attempt in logaœdics is another example of the fault to which we have called attention. Tennyson's "Fair ship," from 'In Memoriam,' suggested "Navis, quae tibi creditum," and into this metre was put the beautiful lament, without a thought that Horace never employed it for such a purpose, but almost entirely for songs of revelry and love ditties.

Again, we might speak of the patchwork style of writing Latin and Greek verses; wherein one searches the old poets for thoughts resembling the ones to be rendered, and bodily makes "copy" of them. This is much as if, having to put "Exegi monumentum" into English metre, one should begin with Shakspere—

> "Not marble nor the gilded monuments
> Of princes shall outlive this powerful rhyme"—

and, having reached "sume superbiam," should go on with Milton—

> "——reign for ever and assume
> Thy merits."

But we leave these more general matters, and, coming to particulars of language and structure, would point out to Mr. Russell that such a phrase as "Pleiadum praeëunt" is an awkward alliteration and as jarring as "adnixi infixis" or "tuis isto"; that we find no such words in Latin as "exivit" or "sente"; that the Roman ear objected to a monosyllable at the end of the first half of a pentameter; that, in the best poets, each elegiac distich contained a single thought which was not carried over to the next distich; that the same word should not be used in both its literal and its metaphorical sense within three lines; that the trick of sigmatism was criticised as early as the time of Euripides. Further, Mr. Russell seems not to have taken to heart the great truth that if in a Latin hexameter the word accents and the verse accents coincide, we have what is in fact little more than prose. Of course we do not mean that there should never be such correspondence. In fact, they are almost always found in the fifth and sixth feet. But in the other four, variety was easily obtained, and the reverse soon becomes tiresome. The very first line of the 'Aeneid' shows us how Virgil avoided coincidence of accent and ictus in the fourth foot; it is in this foot that Mr. Russell most often offends.

We have, perhaps, said enough to show why we called these verses ordinary. While they give proof generally of a pretty taste enough, and of not a little ingenuity, we find no evidence in them that the author is acquainted with the finer means by which poetical effects in Latin poetry were obtained. We should think that he does not belong to that party (happily growing) in the English universities, which has begun to realise the necessity of acquaintance with German methods of investigation and with the results of their research.

The Trees of North Eastern America. Illustrated from Original Sketches, by Charles S. Newhall. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890. 8vo, pp. 250.

This is an attempt to provide an inexpensive book which shall so describe the trees of the older Northern States that any one without botanical knowledge can readily learn the names of the trees he meets with. Each kind of tree is described in language which avoids the usual technical terms as far as possible, and for each there is a drawing of a leaf or two, and sometimes a sketch of the fruit. In avoiding the old technical language the author has now and then coined a new expression which, while derived from English words, is perhaps as technical as the rejected term. Thus, "odd-feathered" is not much better than *odd-pinnate*, and "reverse-egg-shaped" is certainly no improvement on *obovate*. In spite of these superfluous neologisms, the book will prove to be of considerable value to those persons who desire to learn something about trees without having studied botany; and even one who knows trees fairly well already may learn something from it—for instance, that Rafinesque's name *Hicoria* is derived from a Greek word signifying "round," an origin much more classic than the *pawcohiccora* of the Virginia Indians, from which word came *hickory*, according to Dr. Trumbull. Then, too, we learn that the tulip-tree was known to "the ancients," and that "in some of their festivals they are said to have honored it by pouring over its roots libations of wine." As this tree was unknown in Europe until the seventeenth century, it may be wondered what ancients these were, or did the ancients send their libations to America by the Phœnician packets?

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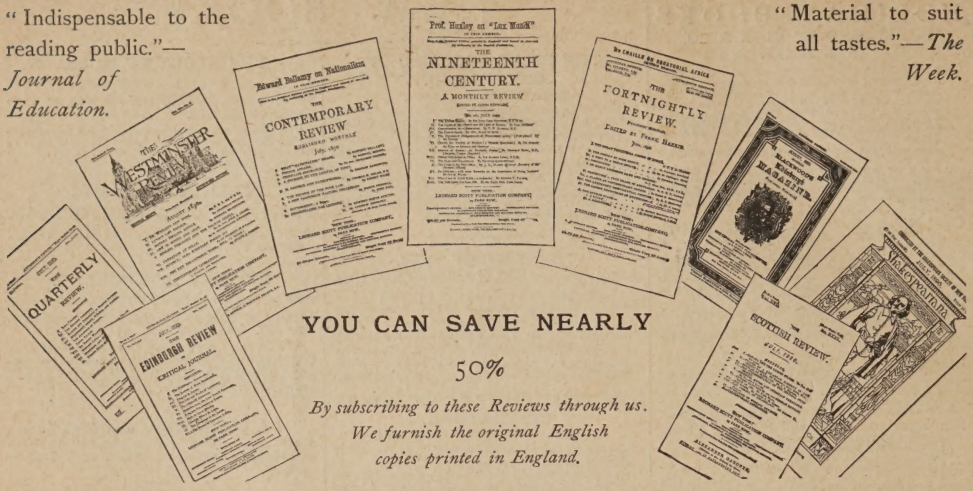

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 25, 1890.

The Week.

THE Republican Senate caucus agreed last week to a bill to add 12,000,000 ounces of silver bullion to the holdings of the Government, in addition to the regular purchase of 4,500,000 ounces per month. These extra purchases are to be made during the year 1891, but not more than 3,000,000 ounces of the extra 12,000,000 are to be purchased in any one month. For the bullion so bought legal-tender Treasury notes are to be issued. In addition to this, the bill provided that all national-bank notes hereafter retired shall be replaced by silver-bullion Treasury notes, if silver bullion is "offered" at the market price. If no silver bullion is offered at the market price, then the Secretary is to issue a corresponding amount of legal-tender Treasury notes without purchasing bullion. The Finance Committee on Tuesday reported the bill shorn of this latter provision. If the action of the caucus is expected to bind those who have hitherto stood manfully for sound principles of finance, then the outlook is melancholy indeed, since this bill is a step, and a long step, toward the silver standard. The free-coinage men can well afford to accept such a measure, since it hastens the time when the Treasury will be unable to keep silver on a par with gold, as the act of July 14, 1890, contemplates. The amount of silver to be purchased in the coming year, if this bill passes Congress, will be sixty-six million ounces. Now our entire production of silver last year, including that which was obtained from Mexican and Canadian ores smelted in our furnaces, was only 60,000,000 ounces; therefore the minimum amount to be purchased under this bill will require the purchase of 6,000,000 ounces of foreign silver. Very likely Austria will part with a portion of her stock if we bid high enough for it, as she is very anxious to adopt the gold standard. The bill is about as bad as it can be. There must be a remnant of believers in the gold standard left in the Senate. We hope that they will fight against this measure and vote against it at all hazards, even at the risk of a free-coinage bill afterwards.

The *American Grocer* asks us to explain how "we are going to get rid of gold" in case free coinage of silver is enacted by Congress. There is either great ingenuity or great simplicity in such a question. We have never said we were going to get rid of gold, but merely that gold would cease to be used as money and would become a commodity, just as it was during the war. We did not get rid of gold during that period. It was bought and sold freely. Anybody who wanted it and could pay for it, could get it without resort to foreign sources of supply. So it will be under free coinage of silver. Gold will no longer be money, because gold dollars will be more valuable than silver dollars. The transition from gold values to silver values will be the dead-point of danger, because it will be accompanied by a disastrous lock-up of money. The holders of gold—and this means all persons who have command of ready money—will seek to save the difference in value between gold and silver. They will not wait till the silver standard actually comes. They will take time by the forelock. They will anticipate the event by withdrawing their deposits from the banks, and putting them where they will not be subject to a shrinkage of value. It is not necessary to send gold abroad to secure this result, but the effect upon business will be the same. We have said that free coinage of silver means the demonetization of gold. If anybody thinks that gold can be demonetized without producing a fearful crisis in the grocery trade as well as in other trades, he will not need more than one experiment to convince him of his error.

The discussion of the Force Bill took on a new aspect on Friday when a vigorous speech against the measure was delivered by a Republican Senator, Mr. Stewart of Nevada. His argument was based on the impregnable position that the attempt to execute such a law "would be disastrous to both races," and especially to the negroes in whose behalf it is urged. He made a strong point by recalling the opposition to the Force Bill of 1875 on the part of Mr. Hoar, Gen. Garfield, Gen. Hawley, and other prominent Republicans then in the House. Gen. Hawley, he said, was very strenuous in his opposition, declaring that there could be no genuine protection of the negro in the South under legislative enactment. Mr. Stewart might also have quoted much more recent deliverances from the Connecticut Senator against the policy which underlies the present Force Bill. Gen. Hawley was always one of the most earnest opponents of a Federal School Law, such as was proposed in the "Bill to Promote Mendicancy"—a measure which, like the Force Bill, was urged on the ground that the interference of the Federal Government was needed by the negroes of the South. Gen. Hawley insisted that the negroes would fare better in the long run if the matter were left to the States.

The author of the McKinley Bill and his followers told us after the election that that measure would advance wages and make the country so prosperous that the Republican party would regain all the ground it had lost, and that the voters who had buried the new tariff under their execrations in November, would be led in sheer gratitude for the abounding prosperity heaped upon them to reverse their verdict in 1892, etc. Well, we have had nearly three months of McKinleyism, and what have we witnessed? Failures of woollen-mills of a very disastrous kind, reductions of wages in the iron trade, the closing of carpet-factories, and a general advance in the prices of goods, accompanied, of course, by a reduction of sales and great difficulty in making collections. The condition of trade has not been so bad since the period immediately following the panic of 1873. We do not affirm that the McKinley Bill has been the sole cause of the trouble, but it has contributed its quota. Certainly it has not prevented hard times, as McKinley and his deluded followers said that it would. If it has had any effect upon wages, it has reduced them. If it has had any effect upon wool-manufacturing, it has crippled it. We know that it has caused an advance in prices, because the dealers are advertising this fact in the newspapers and in circulars every day. That it has curtailed sales and shortened trade, every merchant's ledger will show.

The Jaeger Sanitary Woollen System Company, which has acquired great popularity in this country and an extensive sale of its underclothing, has issued a circular stating that it will be compelled after the first of January to advance the prices of its goods on account of the increased duties of the McKinley tariff. These knit goods are classified as wearing apparel, and the rates of duty under the old and the new tariff are as follows:

	Old rate.	New rate.
Value not over 30c. per lb.	33c. per lb. and 40 per cent.	49½c. per lb. and 60 per cent.
Value 30c. and not over 40c	38½c. per lb. and 40 per cent.	49½c. per lb. and 60 per cent.
Value 40c. and over	44c. per lb. and 50 per cent.	49½c. per lb. and 60 per cent.

A few examples will suffice to show how the McKinley Bill enhances the cost of keeping one's self warm in the wintry weather which is now upon us:

	Former price.	McKinley price.
Undershirts, winter quality:		
32 inches	$2.45	$3.00
34 "	2.55	3.15
36 "	2.65	3.30
40 "	2.85	3.65
50 "	3.75	4.75
Drawers, winter quality, A:		
28 inches in waist	2.50	3.00
30 " "	2.65	3.15
32 " "	2.75	3.30
40 " "	3.20	4.10
50 " "	4.25	5.00

These are examples, merely, object-lessons of the McKinley benefactions. The same advance runs through the whole list. And yet the Republican newspapers tell us that the advance of prices was a Democratic device to win votes, and that it has all disappeared since the election. Let anybody who thinks it has disappeared apply for one of the Jaeger catalogues, or let him try to buy one of the Jaeger undershirts after the first of January.

Why the manufacturers refuse orders at old prices, and why dealers must soon advance their prices for crockery and glassware, is clearly shown by an article in the Boston *Herald*, giving the figures of

a recent importation of table glassware of the medium kind, which arrived a few days ago from Antwerp. The foreign cost of this shipment was $1,775. Under the old tariff law the duty upon this importation would have been $742 30; under the present tariff law the duty assessed and paid was $1,065, of which $48 was for duty on the cost of the straw and cases required for the proper shipment of the goods. In other words, there was an increase in duty of $322.70, which is equivalent to a little more than 43 per cent. of the old duty. The reason for the advance in duties on glassware was the wish of Mr. McKinley to benefit the glass-manufacturers of his Congressional district, who wanted the price of foreign-made glassware advanced, for the purpose of enabling them to obtain higher prices for goods of their own manufacture.

Supt. Porter will hardly accuse the editor of *Nature* of partisanship in American affairs. *Nature* is recognized everywhere as the foremost scientific journal, of a general character, in the world. If Mr. Porter will read its leading editorial in the issue of November 27, he will find cold comfort in it; and his pain will doubtless be greatly increased by the total absence of anything that even he would call "frenzical" in the tone of the article. The editor is evidently moved much more by sorrow than by anger; the sorrow being largely due to the fact that, if our census is defective, "the whole world sustains a loss in being deprived of comparisons of many kinds with so remarkable a progress as that of the United States." The principal reason which drives *Nature* to the conclusion "that there is a huge blunder, or worse, somewhere," lies in the fact that the rate of increase for the total population shows a falling-off in spite of the vastly augmented immigration of the decade. The writer points out that even if we were to make the extreme allowance suggested by Mr. Porter, that the census of 1870 was deficient by 1,500,000, the increase of population between 1870 and 1880, after deducting the immigration figures, would still be 7,500,000; so that

> "we should still be confronted by the fact that, starting from a larger population and with a larger immigration, the excess of births over deaths in 1880-90 would [presumably] have been from 25 to 30 per cent. more than in the previous decade, or at least 9,500,000, whereas it appears to be under 7,000,000. The figures of the census of 1890 are, therefore, quite incredible."

And *Nature* does not omit to point out that the Superintendent of the Census in his defence fails to make any mention of the immigration statistics. By an American who is in the habit of reading *Nature*, its expressions of distrust in regard to our census, and of regret that "for purposes of comparison every census in the world is thrown out" by it, will be the more keenly felt on account of the abundant and generous recognition which *Nature* always accords to the work of the scientific departments of our Government. We do not believe that as adequate notice or as frequent praise of the work of the Coast Survey and similar American scientific enterprises is to be found in any American publication. The strictures of *Nature* are entitled to all the weight which is due to the criticism of a friend.

Mr. A. C. Richardson of Buffalo has conceived the idea of an improved blanket-ballot to take the place of the separate party ballots now required by the New York law. He arranges the names of all candidates in alphabetical order under each office, and places after each name an emblem or device to indicate the politics as well as the party name itself. Thus, he indicates all Republican candidates with a star and the name Republican, all Democratic candidates with an eagle and the name Democrat, all Prohibition candidates with a glass of water and the name Prohibition, and so on. Each voter is to mark with a cross the name of each candidate of his choice. In order to have this ballot adopted in place of the separate ballots, the law would have to be amended in several respects, and the long-standing provision against the use of any device or name to indicate the politics of the candidates would have to be repealed. If this were done, it might be as well to have the method of the Indiana law followed, which prints the names in party groups upon a blanket-ballot, and puts a device or name at the head of each group.

A bill making an appropriation for a proper topographical survey of the Territory of Alaska was reported in September by the House Committee on Military Affairs. This Territory contains 600,000 square miles. It has been in possession of the United States for twenty-three years, and yet it is a positive fact that little or nothing is known of the interior. The rivers have been ascended to a certain distance, and the sea-coast has been surveyed, but beyond this the United States Government is very ignorant of the nature and contents of the property; of its capacity as a field of production, nobody is able to speak. This is, to put the matter on the lowest ground, a discreditable state of things for a Power with an overflowing Treasury. The whole region should be surveyed and mapped, and its resources of every kind ascertained. The explorations hitherto made along the rivers have been very hasty and imperfect, and have little or no value either for the geographer, or farmer, or miner, or lumberman. The proposal in the House Bill 12,111 is to send a properly equipped party up the Yukon River to a central point, there establish a United States post, and thence run the explorations in every direction. One hundred thousand dollars is all that is asked for this purpose, and we sincerely hope it may be possible to pass the bill in this Congress, so that the work may be begun in the spring.

It is encouraging to see that nearly all the members of the Legislature to whom the City Reform Club sent its queries for opinions upon separate municipal elections, have felt the necessity of making some kind of a reply. Most of them, as was to have been expected, are against any change, but this does not mean that the outlook is hopeless. A similar inquiry, sent out a few years ago in regard to ballot-reform legislation, would have met with no more encouragement. Separate elections will not find many friends among the politicians until the interest of the people is attracted; after that the project will have all the support it needs. We trust that the Club will not let cold water from any source have the slightest effect in checking its exertions. It has taken hold of a most important reform, and it is certain to carry it to success if it will agitate without ceasing. An interesting fact about the recent election in Boston has just come to hand, which conclusively answers the plea that the voters cannot be aroused to sufficient interest in a municipal election which comes close upon the heels of a State or national election. The State and Congressional election in Boston was held on November 4, and the city election just five weeks later, yet there were only 330 less votes cast in the latter than there had been in the former. Commenting upon this fact, the Boston *Record* says:

> "This is remarkable, considering the dulness of the campaign. Under the old system of voting, with a campaign so uninteresting, such a vote would not have been possible. People will vote under the secret-ballot system for no other reason than that it is convenient."

We must not be too hard on the Mayor about "Paddy" Divver's elevation to the judicial bench for a term of ten years at a salary of $8,000. The people of this city at the last election gave him leave to do such things to any extent he might deem necessary and the law would allow. To expect men like the Tammany managers not to appoint men like Divver to high-salaried positions, and to expect men like Divver not to take them when they can get them, is to be very unreasonable. We do not say this sarcastically, or ironically, or humorously. We say it in all seriousness. There is no city or country in the world in which the class to which Mayor Grant and his colleagues belong would not do the same thing if they got a chance. There are tens of thousands of them now in London, Paris, Vienna, and Berlin eager for mayoralties and commissionerships and police magistrateships; and the sole reason they do not get them is that their decent and industrious fellow-citizens will not let them have them. They have, therefore, in lieu of them, to accept positions as laborers, keepers of beer saloons and gambling-houses and brothels, subject, however, to a good deal of persecution at the hands of the police and of public authorities generally. Moreover, Mayor Grant submitted the whole question of his fitness to make appointments to the voters of New York in November. Neither he nor his friends, we must do them the justice to say, practised any deception. He pointed to his record during his present term as a

sample of what his policy would be in the future, and that record was full of Divvers. His own career, too, as well as that of his leading supporters, was laid before the public with an accuracy which was never successfully questioned. In fact, in no fight with municipal evil-doers since the city got its first charter, was the issue submitted to the voters with such fulness, candor, and correctness as at the last election.

The responsibility for all this shame and damage really lies among the "highest order of citizenship the county affords"—the well-to-do, intelligent, and industrious class, 30,000 strong, who condemn Tammany's works and ways, but, knowing them well, stayed away from the polls on the 4th of November. Their reasons for this abstention would discredit the character and intelligence of an orator at an Anarchist meeting. Some were willing to see Grant made Mayor because they wanted a Democratic majority in Congress; some because they wanted a Democratic President in 1892; some because they disliked William R. Grace; others because they disliked "Tom" Platt; others because they disliked Father Ducey; others because they disliked ministers; others because they had never voted for a Democrat; others because they had fought in the war. One might search in vain the ratiocinative processes of the least political races of the world for a parallel to these modes of reaching the conclusion that Grant would do for the chief magistracy of a great commercial city. "Paddy" Divver, respectable brethren, is *your* man; so will "Eddie" Hagan be. These ornaments of the bench are the products of your logic and your conscience. Others like them are waiting their turn to share the good things you have provided for them.

Mayor Grant has, in a sheepish way, published some of the "testimonials" which "Paddy" Divver produced to support his application for the police justiceship. Of course, every one knows that the testimonials had nothing whatever to do with the appointment: all these arrangements are made beforehand. When "the deal" is closed, if the appointment is an unusually bad one, the appointee sallies out in search of references which will in some degree shield the party of the first part, and he never has any difficulty in getting them. There is nothing an average New York business man signs so readily as a testimonial, especially if he is approached in business hours. There is no name, however, of the half-dozen "Paddy" Divver succeeded in getting, except Recorder Smyth's, which is calculated to surprise the political observer. We must say that Mr. J. J. O'Donohue's rapturous delight in having an opportunity to recommend "Paddy" for a judicial office throws a curious back-light on the talk of him (Mr. O'Donohue) as a reform candidate for the Mayoralty in which some people indulged at one time. What is most diverting in the testimonials is the way some of them try to dignify "Paddy" Divver with titles. To Mr. F. B. Thurber he is "the Hon. Patrick Divver," to Recorder Smyth he is "Patrick Divver, Esq." We have no doubt whatever that "Fatty" Walsh could to-day get a testimonial signed by a score of eminent citizens, recommending him, under the style of "Pinguis Walsh, Esq.," or "the Hon. Pinguis Walsh," for any office he himself chose to select.

The Parnellites have suffered a heavy defeat at Kilkenny, Hennessy's majority being 2,527 to 1,356. This election was by general consent a crucial test of the relative strength of the two parties, and practically seals Parnell's fate as a leader. It is not likely, however, that he will in his present mood give up the fight. He will contests in other places, but his prestige is broken, and if he fights on, he will fight with steadily diminishing strength. Much of his talk continues to indicate a loss of mental balance. The election has been remarkable, as we said last week, as the first Irish election since the Union which had any practical bearing on politics—that is, which decided anything in which the Irish had a direct interest. The Clare election in 1829, which sent O'Connell to demand admission to the House of Commons in spite of his disqualification as a Catholic, had, it is true, important results, but few or none of O'Connell's supporters expected that it would have any such results when they ran him as a candidate. What they sought was to make a sensation in England, but by a stroke of unexpected good luck they precipitated Catholic emancipation. The Kilkenny election, on the other hand, has been fought out with the knowledge on both sides that the result would not only exert an important influence on the fortunes of Home Rule, but probably decide which English party should carry on Government in the next Parliament. With such tremendous issues at stake, the wonder is, considering the bellicose nature of the constituency, that there has not been more disorder.

The election may fairly be called the most important current event in the European world. The Continental press seems to take nearly as much interest in the crisis as the British press, but, as a general rule, is very hostile to Parnell. In fact, one has only to look at the European newspapers to-day to be astonished at the large place which the Irish question has taken in European politics. The English newspapers contain little beyond articles on Parnell and reports of the speeches of the two factions. In all this, it is but just to say, no paper appears, as a public journal, to greater advantage than the London *Times*. The editorial articles about the Irish are as furious and unfair as usual, but the reporting of all Irish meetings and speeches is a splendid example of first-class journalism — no burlesquing, no unfair summarizing, no ridicule. Every word and incident is given as fairly and fully as it might be done by stenographers hired by the Irish themselves. In fact, in the exclusion of editoral passions and prejudices from its news columns, the *Times* has probably rendered more service to journalism as a profession than any other newspaper in the world. Moreover, no man is denied a hearing in its columns, and a hearing, too, proportioned to his prominence or conspicuousness, no matter how much the editor hates or despises him. All this, which is now a tradition of long standing, of course only makes the part of the *Times* in the Pigott affair all the more inscrutable. It shows, however, what passionate hatred of the Irish at that time filled all the Unionist breasts, and how much the Unionists were willing to risk in order to discredit the Irish party in the House of Commons, and through them Gladstone. Whatever now happens to Parnell, he must always have the credit of having given the Irish question its present prominence, and made an Irish election an event of world-wide interest, and he did it by forming the Irish vote in the House into a solid phalanx which could not be shaken or disorganized, and which threw itself on one side or the other in English politics with a weight which broke up the old parties, and has, in fact, for the present, made the maintenance of the old party lines impossible

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The controversy over the treatment of the Jews in Russia which has been raging in England with considerable virulence, has brought the leading English Rabbi, Mr. Adler, into the field with some new facts. In answer to the charge that the Jews eat up the Russian peasantry by usurious loans, he says that usury and usurers flourish in the greatest degree in those *gubernia* in which Jews are not permitted to dwell, and that in those places usurers are more rapacious than the Jewish money-lenders in the pale of settlement where, owing to competition, the rate of interest charged is far less than in Russia proper. He further says that in the provinces outside the pale of Jewish settlement, where there are no Jewish money-lenders, the usurers are retired shopkeepers, retired or dismissed officials, and sometimes even clergymen. He adds that the trade of money-lending is disappearing among the Jews in those countries in which other trades and professions are open to them; that they engage in it so largely in Russia because they are not allowed to do anything else. But behind the controversy there lies the notorious fact that nothing in any country keeps poor men from borrowing at usurious rates except the absence of security for the loan. In all countries of small peasant proprietors and leaseholders, the usurer follows the farmer, and keeps him in his clutches, because the farmer, unlike most other poor men, has something to pledge. The more ignorant or impulsive or drunken the farmer is, the more the usurer preys on him. For these reasons the money-lender of any race is a greater affliction in Russia than elsewhere—that is, the Russian peasant is probably the most ignorant and thoughtless borrower in the world.

MONEY AND BANKING.

THE return of a certain amount of hoarded gold to the bank deposits, as disclosed in the last weekly statement, is at once a sign and a cause of returning confidence. The opinion has gained ground in the last few days that there will be no more silver legislation by the present Congress, although a very ominous bill has issued from the Republican Senate caucus. It is too early to affirm anything as to the fate of this measure. The business community evidently thinks that it will not pass, and *à fortiori* that a free-silver-coinage bill will not pass. If this opinion is correct, it betokens that Congressmen have found out at last that it is not want of money, but want of confidence, that has throttled trade during the past few weeks. We showed last week from official statistics how small a proportion of the trade of the country is carried on by means of money, and how large a proportion by means of credit instruments—the ratio being about 1 to 9—and how much more potent for producing mischief is a loss of credit than a shortage of currency, if any such shortage could be shown to exist. Probably these facts have found lodgment in the minds of some influential persons suffering from the silver craze. At all events, the craze seems to be less rampant now than it was when Congress came together.

The common opinion now is, that Congress will do nothing and let the crisis work itself out. This is not the best thing it can do, but it is the best that it is likely to do. Congress might repeal the Silver Bill and improve the national-banking system so that the latter might expand with the needs of the community instead of shrinking and tightening as the country grows. These two measures would restore confidence in a wonderful degree. They would operate upon the nine parts of credit in our commercial system, and then the one part of money would take care of itself. But if Congress will do neither of these things, its best course is to do nothing.

Mr. Edward Atkinson has advanced a plan, in the columns of *Bradstreet's*, for providing an elastic circulating medium through bank agency. He proposes, in brief, to make a new currency of clearing-house certificates—the certificates to be issued in small denominations by a group of banks in specified districts having a large aggregate capital, and to be based upon securities approved by a clearing-house committee, substantially as such certificates of large denominations are issued and retired by the New York Clearing-house at the present time. The details are worked out scientifically, but there is a serious objection, as we conceive, to such a plan, in the fact that it adds another kind of currency to the many and diverse forms now in use. We have at the present time gold coin, standard silver dollars, gold certificates, silver certificates, greenbacks, national-bank notes, and Treasury notes based on silver bullion. Instead of adding a new variety, we ought to eliminate all of these except gold and national-bank notes, although gold certificates might properly be retained for convenience in settling balances between different banks and different cities. The heterogeneousness of the currency is a bad education, teaching the people all the time that anything the Government chooses to put out is good money. The efforts of public teachers ought to be directed to simplifying the currency, not to making it more complex. Mr. Atkinson has rendered good service in this particular in time past.

The national-banking system, as it exists, if not the best banking system in the world, is certainly the best for us. It is better for us than any other could be, because we understand it, are used to it, have become familiar with all its strong and weak points, and can predict what will happen in reference to it in any given case. We now have statistics which give us a law of averages as certain as the actuaries' tables upon which life insurance is founded. We know how many banks in the system will fail in a given number of years, and how their assets will turn out. We have all the information that we ever can have upon which to base a system of bank-note issues which shall be safe and beneficial, and which shall answer the requirements of seed-time and harvest.

The discussions of the past few years, since the bond security of the national-bank note began to grow scarce and the notes themselves began to dwindle, have established in the minds of the best thinkers a belief, amounting to a conviction, that it is entirely feasible to save the system even after all the bonds shall have been paid. The only difficulty now is to get a public sentiment favorable to the banks. It may be said upon this subject with entire truth that where there is a will there is a way. The desire to save the system does not now exist, or, at all events, does not show itself in Congress. Instead of it we have all sorts of crazy projects for issuing greenbacks on landed security, or on country produce stored in Government warehouses, or on nothing at all and for no explainable purpose.

Perhaps it will be necessary to have a recurrence of cramps like the present to direct the public mind to this important subject, and to put the subject in the right light. Of course the first and indispensable thing is to have the standard of value settled. So long as there is doubt whether it is to be silver or gold, no system of banking will serve the public well We shall have cramps and side stitches regularly, and perhaps panics and crashes to boot, until silver is exorcised. When that deliverance is effected, the question will come up, How shall we devise a currency that shall expand when expansion is needful, and contract when contraction is needful, and be at par with gold at all times? There will never be found or imagined a better system than the one we now have, provided only that security for the note issues can be devised to take the place of the vanishing bonds. Such security can be found unquestionably without going into the doubtful field of State and city bonds, or the more doubtful field of the securities of private corporations. The bill prepared by ex-Comptroller Knox last year and introduced by Senator Sherman was a safe plan. The only questionable feature of it was the admission of silver bullion into the list of securities. Unless silver is to be the monetary standard, there is no more reason for accepting that metal as a basis for bank-note issues than for accepting lead, copper, or zinc. That feature of Mr. Knox's bill was probably a concession to popular prejudice. Any plan for saving the national banking system ought to be sound from the beginning and sound to the core.

An alternative to the national-bank system would be the Scotch system of large banks in the cities with branches in the smaller towns. Of this system we had examples in the old State banks of Ohio and Indiana. In the event that the national system dies out with the disappearance of the bond security (as it will if Congress does nothing affirmatively to save it), that system would most likely grow up in place of it. The necessity of having a bank-note issue of some sort would eventually lead to the repeal of the discriminating tax on State bank-notes. But such a step is to be deprecated for many reasons. The nation has been familiarized with the existing system. It has proved its soundness. A quarter of a century at least would be required to gain equal experience of any other. No other would possess the incalculable advantage of uniformity in all parts of the country. All attempts to make an elastic and serviceable currency to be operated by Government officers, whether greenbacks, or interconvertible bonds, or any mixture of the two, will fail miserably. The advantage of bank-notes, provided they be actually and certainly redeemable (and no others should ever be thought of), is that they move automatically, thermometrically, and instantaneously. A money spasm might come and go before the interconvertible bond-greenback apparatus could get itself in motion at all.

CHEAP MONEY, DEAR GOODS, AND THE "DEBTOR CLASS."

THE discussion of the McKinley Bill and experience of the McKinley Act have fixed the attention of the American people in a very wholesome—and, as the elections proved, a very fruitful—way upon the nature of the effects produced by legislation directed towards the raising of prices. It would be a fortunate thing for the country if the lesson thus learned could be made useful in another direction. If the great mass of the people could be made to understand how directly opposed to their interests a descent to the silver standard would be, the specious arguments of those who advocate measures leading to such a step would be of no avail. The case of high tariff is fairly well understood, thanks to the campaign of education begun in December, 1887, and in the plain man's mind that case stands thus: Higher tariff means higher prices for protected articles; and if I am not on the list of the favored, it means no higher income for me; hence it is to me an instrument of oppression.

Shall we have time for a campaign of education on the silver issue? On the answer to

JOHN BROWN'S FAMILY COMPACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe in your issue of December 4 a reference to an article in the December number of the *Andover Review*, entitled "John Brown, Practical Shepherd," attending to disprove the early origin of John Brown's plan to attack slavery by force of arms as set forth in my 'Life and Letters of John Brown.' Having sent a copy of this article to John Brown, jr., I received a reply from which I will thank you to insert the following extracts:

"It is, of course, impossible for me to say when such idea and plan first entered his [John Brown's] mind and became a purpose; but I can say with certainty that he first informed his family that he entertained such purpose while we were yet living in Franklin, O. (now called Kent), and before he went to Virginia, in 1840, to survey the lands which had been donated by Arthur Tappan to Oberlin College; and this was certainly as early as 1839. The place and the circumstances where he first informed us of that purpose are as perfectly in my memory as any other event in my life. Father, mother, Jason, Owen, and I were, late in the evening, seated around the fire in the open fire-place of the kitchen, in the old Haymaker house where we then lived; and there he first informed us of his determination to make war on slavery—not such war as Mr. Garrison informs us 'was equally the purpose of the non-resistant abolitionists,' but war by force and arms. He said that he had long entertained such a purpose—that he believed it his duty to devote his life, if need be, to this object, which he made us fully to understand. After spending considerable time in setting forth in most impressive language the hopeless condition of the slave, he asked who of us were willing to make common cause with him in doing all in our power to 'break the jaws of the wicked and pluck the spoil out of his teeth'? Naming each of us in succession, 'Are you, Marv, John, Jason, and Owen'? Receiving an affirmative answer from each, he kneeled in prayer, and all did the same. This posture in prayer impressed me greatly as it was the first time I had ever known him to assume it. After prayer he asked us to raise our right hands, and he then administered to us an oath, the exact terms of which I cannot recall, but in substance it bound us to secrecy and devotion to the purpose of fighting slavery by force and arms to the extent of our ability. According to Jason's recollections, Mr. Fayette, a colored theological student at Western Reserve College (Hudson, Ohio), was with us at the time; but of this I am not certain. He was often at our house. As to the others, I know they were present, and if my affidavit could add any strength to my statement I am ready to make it any time. At that time Jason was about sixteen years old, Owen, between fourteen and fifteen; and I was between eighteen and nineteen years of age.

"If there had not afterwards been an opening for slavery in Kansas, it is possible his attack upon it in the States would have been longer delayed; but he was not the man to abandon the most deeply cherished purpose of his life. He would have played his hand even if he played it alone."

I may add that these statements were made to me, some years before the publication of my book, by John Br[illegible] similar ones by Mrs. Mary Brown [illegible] Brown.

[illegible] ries [illegible] ng shi[illegible] peting railways fr[illegible] n [illegible] body or a com[illegible] lor Fitzge[illegible] keeping of an a[illegible] e is able, Mr[illegible] Maj. Washin[illegible] should be expect[illegible] ort next Mrs. Wash[illegible] of traffic too small [illegible] ed upon me to ask [illegible] en the cloth was [illegible] d thanks him [illegible] said: is doubtful. [illegible] o the influence of "argy."

Nor s[illegible] understood the blessings of a high [illegible], but whose opposition to the McKinley Act will cease when they come to know it better. Unfortunately for this hope, the act is so full of surprises, of new and startling invasions of the familiar order of things, that by the time indignation over one feature has subsided, it flashes out again at some other unexpected freak of the taxing power, and one may doubt if women are at all likely to be reconciled to it in a hurry.

Take, for instance, the wearing-apparel clause in the free list. Under the old law, as construed in Astor v. Merritt, 111 U. S. 202, Americans returning from abroad could bring in for their own use free of duty all the clothes they were likely to need for some time to come; but this very sensible recognition of the importance of dress in feminine eyes was, to the austere and frivolity-hating McKinley, to connive at a taking of the accursed thing, and in future the exemption "shall not be held to include articles not actually in use and necessary and appropriate for the use of such persons *for the purposes of their journey* and present comfort and convenience." Certainly a majority of the many thousand Americans who cross the Atlantic from time to time are women, and most of the men (such is the domestic character of our people) are accompanied by their womenfolk. Nine-tenths of all the tourists, probably, are interested directly or indirectly in bringing over the productions of the dress-makers and milliners of Paris and London. Imagine the heart-rending scenes at the wharves next autumn, when the returning tide of travel is at its height—the lamentations, the lacerated feelings, the rage, the horrors of the women, and the "curses not loud but deep" of the men, when these treasures from the Bon Marché and the Louvre, from Louise, and Redfern, and Marshal and Snelgrove, are unpacked, tumbled about, and taxed by the obdurate and McKinley-hearted inspector. Imagine what it will be the following autumn, when the women come back who have been trying to make up, by shopping abroad, for two years of McKinley prices at home; and just before election, too!

It will not do for the fashion-scorning McKinley to say that these are the rich and pampered, who ought of right to be taxed for the benefit of our starving monopolists and necessitous but deserving Trusts. The habit of foreign travel is national, and people in modest circumstances form the majority of those who go abroad as well as of those who stay at home. Whatever the length of the purse, the love of foreign fashions is the same, and the school-teacher who is mulcted on her few new dresses will hate McKinley even more than the millionairess.

Then there is another thing that appeals most strongly to women — embroidery and other decorations for churches; articles which the Old World can as yet supply much better than the New. Under the liberal construction of the old law, the church "regalia" of the free list included almost everything for the adornment of a church or for use in the services, but now, filled evidently with contempt for everything bordering on ritualism, the masculine and high-priced McKinley has strictly limited "regalia" to "such insignia of rank or office or emblems as may be worn upon the person or borne in the hand during public exercises of the society or institution." Armed with new powers, the Custom-house will henceforth lay its profane hand on the altar-cloths, the dosels, the frontels, the antependia, the stained glass, and all that gratifies the religious and artistic senses. Imagine the feelings of the parish guild when the English altar-cloth, bought with the fruits of so much pious toil and consecrated to the highest uses, is made to pay tribute to Cæsar! Imagine the guild's male relatives voting to continue this iconoclasm!

"Whether the fair one sinner it or saint it," McKinley is equally her foe; but, to judge by last month's work at least, the contest would seem to be one in which the women would not come off second best.

Charles C. Binney.

Philadelphia, December 18, 1890.

CENSUS-TAKING IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may not be uninteresting to some of your readers to learn the manner in which the German Government has so systematically and simultaneously conducted its census during the last twelve hours. And it may also afford some amusement to observers of the late American census, to make comparisons between the two. That the truth, whole and intact, can be ascertained concerning some forty-odd millions in this short space of time may seem an impossibility. Yet such is the task which these lovers of statistics are understood to have accomplished between 12 P. M. November 30, and 12 A. M. December 1.

The Government asked persons willingly and without hope of compensation to collect the facts necessary for the compilation of the census. Each single house was expected to furnish its volunteer for the task, and it was his duty to see that every question was carefully answered. Two days before the close of November the census questions were handed to every member of the household. Between midnight of November 30 and noon of December 1, these questions were to be answered in writing, and soon after twelve A. M. of December 1 they were to be collected and confided to the several appointed officials in the different districts. Such was the programme for ascertaining the exact number of persons, irrespective of nationality, living in Germany in the twelve hours already named.

The following questions were asked:

Document A had especial reference to the resident inhabitant, and an attachment dealt particularly with the infants, concerning whom the inquisitiveness was exceedingly pointed. The parent was expected to tell whether the child had been nourished by its mother's milk or by a nurse or by the milk of animals, and since when the child had received other nourishment than milk.

Next came a form of questions headed B, with reference to the house, the number of rooms, the number of stories, what windows faced the street, what rooms were heated in winter or not, and other questions of a like order. Attached to this paper were queries as to the movements of the family from house to house during its residence in Berlin.

The religious views of the people were considered especially essential to perfect the record. The citizen was carefully instructed not to answer the question, "What is your religion?" by the simple answer, "Evangelical, Catholic," etc., but to state precisely his religious principles. The Government desires to know whether one belongs to the old or the separated Lutherans, to the Baptists, the Presbyterians, the Methodists, as well as the Jewish Church; but there was left no alternative for the atheist—at least, none but religious answers were called for. Some comment is made upon this rigid questioning concerning religious convictions as an attempt on the part of the Government to learn about the anti-Semitic tendencies in Germany.

The answers called for concerning those members of the family occupied with military service were not remarkably stringent. Yet if a member of a household should be in the marine or military service, it was necessary to

Italian radical Republican, self-exiled and naturalized in France from hatred of the monarchy and the Piedmontese, sent 100,000 francs for the support of the Radical candidates and to break up the Triple Alliance. When one knows the intense jealousy that the Italian feels of any foreign interference and even criticism of the affairs of his country, he can easily imagine the rage that burst out on the publication of Cernuschi's letter. The Radicals were defeated even in Milan, which no one dreamed of being possible, and Cavallotti, their chief, who was at the head of the poll last election, came next the foot of it this time, and three Government candidates were elected. Venice went almost solid for the Government. Rome elected its candidates, and the minority candidate alone was carried by the Opposition, consisting of all the discontented, with the addition of the Jews, he being a Jew. Naples gave a majority of official deputies; and out of nearly 150 Radical candidates, only about 40 have been sent to Montecitorio, about a dozen of the most prominent having been defeated, with Napodano, an ultra-Conservative late deputy. Bonghi of the *Perseveranza* came in at the foot of his list. In fact, it has been the minority representation which has been the saving of many of the Radicals and some of the Conservatives who are elected, the elections being by the *scrutin de liste*, and no one being allowed to vote for the full number of deputies for the circumscription. Thus in Rome, in the first district there are five deputies, and if five names are contained on any ticket, the last is struck out when the votes are counted, the minority getting the fifth. In this way Barzilai came in for the minority in Rome, while but for this provision he would have had no chance of election. At Palermo, which is the district of Crispi, he ran ahead of his ticket three thousand votes, and he was elected in three or four other localities in Sicily. At Forlì, which is one of the foci of radicalism, Fortis, one of the late deputies and a warm personal friend of Crispi, and lately his Under Secretary for the Interior, was excommunicated by his party, and came in at the head of the list by a large advance; and, generally, the men who had made themselves prominent by their attacks on Crispi in the Chamber lost heavily on their vote, even if returned. This trims the plumage of many elected deputies.

If any hope was entertained of seeing the Triple Alliance dissolved in 1892 by any interested party, it may now be dismissed, and we may anticipate a steady pressure, probably increased by new adhesions to the Alliance, in favor of peace in Europe, or, what is always the possible alternative, the sudden precipitation of hostilities to anticipate the further strengthening of it. The Vatican, too, must now be convinced of the futility of making war on a minister who has the immense majority of Italians in his favor, and on whom its hostility has not had the least effect. If Crispi were a younger man, and not so hardened as he is to the vicissitudes of political life, there might be some apprehension that his majority would run away with him and carry him into measures which would cause a revolt; but he has been toughened by years of exile and opposition, with attacks on his personal character such as few Italians have had to endure. He does not hide his republican convictions, though he regards the House of Savoy as the strongest bond of Italian unity in the present stage of the national development; and he has been in the Radical ranks long enough to see that a Radical ascendency would mean the introduction of chaos in the Government, and that to govern with a Radical majority would be impossible, not merely on account of the country being in general of conservative inclinations, but because the Radicals could not unite in office. His evolution from the extreme Left, where I saw him for the first time in the Chamber on the wild day of the Dogali discussion, the only calm and self-possessed member in that sector of the Chamber, to his present position among the moderates and supported in his measures by most of the sound intellect of Italy, is due to the fact that his experience had taught him that it was a hopeless undertaking to attempt to organize the Radicals. There is a certain tendency in a portion of the Italian population, and especially in that part of it which has been so effective in the revolutionary stage of the making of Italy, to revolt against discipline and exalt individuality and refractoriness as virtues of the highest quality; and this temper, bred in the period of arbitrary government, breaking out into constant revolt and conspiracy, has been prolonged in its existence into a time when it has ceased to be a civic virtue, and is now in the service of the Radical party—a force grown into a disease. Crispi was, till the unity of Italy was attained, one of these revolters, and the habits and associations of forty years (for he began in 1848) do not easily release a man. Nothing better shows his force of character than this evolution in politics, accomplished in the face of hostility of every kind, and the feat of winning the enthusiastic confidence of the entire nation, in spite, too, of sectional animosities which it was supposed would always prevent a Sicilian and a Piedmontese working in harmony in the Cabinet. Bismarck's success was far easier, for Crispi had not only the country to win over, but the King, who looked on this Sicilian firebrand with a certain apprehension, due to his former political associations; and I remember that a diplomatic friend said to me when there was first question of his coming into the Ministry, four or five years ago, that, speaking to the King on the subject and intimating that Crispi might be an unwelcome Minister, the King replied, "We had better have him with us than against us." I believe it is a matter of common knowledge that Crispi now enjoys the confidence of the sovereign completely. The elections have shown that he has won that of the country in all sections. Bismarck governed a king, and Crispi governs a country. X

Correspondence.

SO MUCH THE BETTER FOR THE ART.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly correct the statement, on page 464 of the *Nation*, made by your reviewer, that I used photos for the drawings in 'From Charing Cross to St. Paul's'? The drawings were made, every line of them, as Mr. McCarthy says, "on the spot," in the midst of a London crowd, without any photographic aids whatever.

Your respectfully, Joseph Pennell.

The Art Club of Philadelphia, Dec. 16, 1890.

[We hasten to apologize for what proves to have been a rash judgment. It seemed incredible to us that drawings so elaborate could have been done under the conditions indicated by Mr. McCarthy. That they were so done proves that Mr. Pennell is even more clever as an artist than we thought him.—Ed. Nation.]

THE WASHINGTON WILLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I must point out an error in my introduction to the old Washington Wills (*Nation*, December 18). The power of attorney is obviously not "signed by the widow of Col. John Washington," but of "Capt." John Washington. This was probably the son of the immigrant John; for though both of the immigrants had sons named John, it will be seen by Lawrence's will that his cousin John was living in Stafford County. I have seen no account of Col. John's second son, of whom we now learn that his wife was named Ann; also that he died about the close of 1697, his children being remembered (as will be observed) in the will of Lawrence, who was probably his half-brother. The title given him, "Captain," suggests that he may be referred to in the following, sent by Mr. I. J. Greenwood to the *N. E. Hist. and Gen. Register*, Jan., 1890: "1686, Aug. 2. John Washington, master of the sloop *Two Sisters*, having imported some brandy which had not been landed in England, had informa lodged against him in Co. of Adm. for viola[illegible] of navigation laws."—Col. Doc. of N. Y. xxxiv. p. 40.

Moncure D. Conway.

New York, December 18, 1890.

GRACE AT WASHINGTON'S TABLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It gives me pleasure to be able to throw some light upon the subject of Washington's custom in the matter of saying grace at table, about which Mr. Moncure D. Conway and "S. C. C." are at odds. The former, in a letter to the *Nation* (December 12, 1890), expresses doubt as to the story told by the Rev. E. C. McGuire in his 'Religious Opinions and Character of Washington' (1836), that Washington once asked a blessing at table when a clergyman was present. That story is true. The clergyman was the Rev. William McWhir, who at one time had the charge of a school at Alexandria of which Washington was a trustee. Dr. McWhir had, as pupils at his school, two nephews of Washington, about whom he carried on a correspondence with the General. One of the letters of the General to the Doctor is printed in full in Sparks's 'Writings of Washington,' vol. x., p. 37. Dr. McWhir was my great step-grandfather, having married my grandmother, Mary Baker, the widow of Col. John Baker, a Revolutionary soldier, of Liberty County, in this State. He visited Washington at Mount Vernon frequently, and wrote an account of the incidents mentioned by McGuire. Here is an extract from it:

"A few days after Gen. Wa[illegible] silver stand[illegible] to Mt. Vernon, I visited him [illegible]ents of those who ac[illegible] a countryman of mine, Col. [illegible]g to such a step would [illegible] Washington's aids. At the [illegible] ington sat at the head, and [illegible] case of high tariff is [illegible] at the foot; the General sat[illegible]d, thanks to the cam[illegible]ington on her left. He calle[illegible]gun in December, 1887, [illegible] a blessing before meat. [illegible] mind that case [illegible]self. Mrs. Washington, with a sm[illegible]eans higher [illegible] 'My dear, you forgot that you had a cl[illegible] man dining with you to-day.' With equan[illegible]m not [illegible] pleasantness he replied: 'My dear, I wish clergymen, and all men, to know that I am not a *graceless* man.'"

Respectfully, Wm. Harden,
Librarian Ga. Hist. Society.

Savannah, Ga., December 13, 1890.

that of any man in the House, and Mr. Sexton. It looks as if the majority were not absolutely certain of their ground in Ireland. That illustrates the vice of the situation hitherto existing in Ireland, under which one man has had almost the whole representation of the country in his pocket. It may be hoped that current events will lead to a radical change. Also, it would almost seem to be a trait of Irish character that long trust in and obedience to a leader should constrain able and courageous men to permit themselves to be dominated by him even when they are attacking him.

Meanwhile, the proposal to open a new negotiation with Mr. Gladstone, in order to see whether his views are satisfactory, has excited some jealousy among Liberals. The least objection is that there is no ground or occasion for such a demand at present. On the one hand, there is no shadow of ground for insinuating that Mr. Gladstone is disposed to pare down the principles of the bill of 1886. Secondly, Mr. Parnell was satisfied with Mr. Gladstone's views as expressed at Hawarden, whatever they were. That cannot be denied. Thirdly, on the points mentioned there is really no room for serious disagreement. The Tories are in the meantime taking in hand the settlement of the land question, with the aid of Nationalist votes. The judiciary would certainly be placed under the Irish Government, and the constabulary, or civic forces, the same as in this island, would be given to the local authorities. But what Liberals object to is this, that when Mr. Gladstone was obliged to say that if Mr. Parnell was retained, he could not lead the party to victory with a policy of home rule, the Irish party, at Mr. Parnell's instance, reply by asking him for fresh assurances. It was freely said Saturday that he ought to decline to negotiate. But if there is one matter more than another in which his party may trust Mr. Gladstone, it is a matter of this kind. Even his desire to settle the Irish question is not greater than his diplomatic skill, and that is not greater than his courage and tenacity. The honor of the Liberal party is very safe in his hands.

While Mr. Gladstone was unquestionably in hearty sympathy with the verdict of the country on Mr. Parnell's leadership, to which he gave expression—even slander has never suggested the contrary—I have no doubt that he regards the loss of Mr. Parnell as a serious misfortune. While the latter now seeks to save himself by appealing to the extreme and unreasonable prejudices of a portion of his countrymen, he was, on his own showing, the advocate of a moderate and practicable settlement. He was at once the most reasonable and by far the most authoritative person with whom the Liberal leaders could treat. Therefore his loss is great. But if any English Liberals at first regretted the necessity of his disappearance, they are thoroughly alienated and revolted by his betrayal of confidence and his attempt to sacrifice his country to his personal pride.

The Tories are naturally jubilant. And in peting railways from Lord Salisbury, who body or a comjority "a base pack," down keeping of an a is visible an indecent effort should be expect[ort] to Mr. Parnell for the of traffic too small[he] cause of Ireland. But is doubtful. [roubles] good may be ex[ome] good in any case; much

Nor [Irish] majority stand firm to their [ow]n. In the first place, the confidence of the people of this country in the Irish policy of Mr. Gladstone, and in his leadership generally, will be increased and cemented, and many doubts of a kind to which I have already referred will be removed. Secondly, if the Irish majority remains firm and is supported, as there seems good reason to hope, by their countrymen, the Irish Parliamentary party will be reconstructed on a new basis—absolutely independent of and separate from English parties, as it must continue to be, but representing Irish constituencies more truly than when so many were nominated by Mr. Parnell; reconstituted in the daylight, on a basis which the British elector can see round, and with no associations that are otherwise than honorable and patriotic.

The almost continual absence of the Nationalist party in a committee-room up stairs when the House was occupied chiefly with Irish measures, and the concentration of all interest on these proceedings, have enabled the Government to make extraordinary progress with their bills. The programme of work to be done before Christmas is already finished, and the House will probably rise on Monday, after sitting less than a fortnight. The bills dealt with in this short period have been important; but space does not permit me to comment upon them in this letter. C. D.

ANOTHER VIEW OF THE ITALIAN ELECTIONS.

ROME, November 28, 1890.

THE recent Italian general elections have turned out a surprise even to those who had most clearly measured the moral value of the position of the President of the Council, and were best acquainted with the tone of feeling among the Italian population. The most favorable estimate I had heard of the probable majority the Government could depend on, was about 100. The Radicals had been incessant in their attacks on Crispi for what they stigmatized as his servility towards Austria in the matter of the repression of the "Fro Patria," a redentist society in Trieste, and simi[lar] measures, and hatred of Austria has [bee]n the red rag in the eyes of all ardent Ital[ians]; so that when the Prime Minister, in his Florence speech, boldly declared his faith in the *entente* with the hereditary enemy, and his determination to repress all demonstration of hostility to the alliance with her, and dismissed the Finance Minister in an exceptionally summary manner on account of his having taken part in a redentist banquet where a toast was offered of a tone strongly hostile to the Austrian Government, there was a very general feeling that the public opinion would be seriously affected by this attitude. The ultra-Conservatives were opposed to him from an apprehension of his dictatorial tendencies, and on every side the general depression of business and the heavy expenses of the Government were expected to favor an opposition of any kind. And all the hostility was for Crispi personally, none of the other ministers being called in question—it was Crispi against the field.

The result has been to show that the Italian constituencies have justified the opinion that there is a strong fund of common sense in the nation; that the people like a firm Government, and that the Triple Alliance is founded on the deliberate preference of the nation, for Crispi had in his Florence speech distinctly indicated that he meant to renew the Triple Alliance if he remained in power, and while he promised to impose no new taxes, he held out no hope that the present burthens necessary to enable the nation to fulfil the obligations the Alliance imposed on it, would be removed. The Radical, and even a portion of the Conservative, organs attacked him as if he had proclaimed himself dictator, and there were not wanting sincere friends who apprehended disaster from his bold manner of grasping a thorny problem.

It is now demonstrated that Crispi had correctly estimated the character of the Italian people, who had not been blinded by the appeals to momentary interests, and had correctly calculated the national advantage deriving from the Triple Alliance. Besides the hazards from the pending question of national policy and economy, Crispi had the double disadvantage of his former connection with the Radicals and withdrawal from them in the course of his official headship. This had enraged them to the highest degree, and their denunciations of him as a time-server and turncoat were only less bitter than the attacks of the clerical papers, and but little more hostile than those of the old Conservatives, like the *Perseveranza*. The combination left him dependent on the common sense of the mass of non-partisan Italians for the approbation of his action and programme for the future. Probably no statesman of his importance was ever placed in so apparently perilous a position, for he was on both wings outflanked and assailed by the two parties which happen to be those most convinced in their political faith, most energetic and best organized, the Radicals and the Clericals. Though the proclamation of *non expedit* from the Vatican did not permit the Clericals to enter into the lists as a party, or take any open part in the election, their canvassing against Crispi was very energetic, and it is certain that many did vote, considering, as do the Irish, that they are under no obligation to take their politics from the Vatican. Crispi, replying with no conciliatory language or measures to the attacks of either side, addressed himself to the moderate masses of the nation, made a clear programme, so that no questions should lie concealed in the future, and his victory exceeds all expectation. The Government has carried, according to the full returns this morning, 400 seats out of 508.

This settles the question of Crispi's popularity, which his enemies, sincere and insincere, have steadily represented as decreasing since he came to power, for the battle has been fought on personal lines throughout, the private character and morality of the premier having been as vigorously assailed as if he had been a candidate for President of the United States. The public measures of the Government have played a secondary part in the contest, and the other members of the Cabinet have hardly received the compliment of a word of abuse, and in no case have been arraigned as responsible for the disasters which were laid on the head of Crispi—the African expedition, the Triple Alliance, the military expenses, the suspension of trade with France by the rupture of the commercial conventions, etc.; all these measures having been imposed on the country for good or ill before Crispi's accession to power. There was serious apprehension of a strong show of Radical force in Milan and the Romagna with a solid vote against the Ministry in Naples, where the peremptory measures adopted by Crispi a[gainst] the defaulting municipality and the peculations in the Bank of Naples had excited intense hostility in certain quarters. The suspension of the Roman municipality, too, had caused much irritation at the time and was expected to influence the Roman elections.

Fortunately for the Government, the French politicians had the fatuity to take an active part in the canvass and pronounce against Crispi, and put out a programme for a monument to Garibaldi, as if this would make the Italians forget Rome and Mentana. Moreover, to wind up the list of follies, Cernuschi, the

societies to-day the public is disposed either to resent attempts at privacy, either of mind or body, or turn them into ridicule. There is nothing democratic societies dislike so much to-day as anything which looks like what is called "exclusiveness," and all regard for or precautions about privacy are apt to be considered signs of exclusiveness. A man going into court, therefore, in defence of his privacy, would very rarely be an object of sympathy on the part either of a jury or the public. And then "privacy" has a different meaning to different classes or categories of persons; it is, for instance, one thing to a man who has always lived in his own house, and another to a man who has always lived in a boarding-house.

Moreover, a very large proportion of every community nowadays dislike privacy so much for themselves that they are very unlikely to help other people to secure it. It has to struggle against the passion for notoriety on the part of obscure people—one of the strongest of social forces to-day. And it has to contend above all against the great commercial demand for scandal and gossip. In fact, the very greatest and most rapid commercial successes of our day have been made in this market. The newspapers which supply this demand most plentifully are notoriously among the most valuable properties in the United States. Some of the most intelligent and respectable people in the country read them regularly, and put or leave them in the hands of their children. They form almost the only literature of hundreds of thousands of our youths, of both sexes, who leave our public schools every year. We fear there is no lymph in either common or statute law for this most deplorable form of moral tuberculosis.

ON THE EVE OF PARNELL'S DEPOSITION.

LONDON, December 6 1890.

THE crisis which has arisen within the Irish Nationalist party and in their relations to the Liberal party on the question of Mr. Parnell's leadership, is still the absorbing topic of interest, and is the most singular and dramatic political event which has taken place within the present generation. Each stage of the proceeding has undoubtedly been watched and noted as closely on the other side of the Atlantic as on this. Long before this letter reaches you, the constantly shifting scene may have changed many times, and the issue, now entirely uncertain, may have become more clear, and may be already within the knowledge of your readers.

For the moment, at least, the prospects of the Nationalist cause and of the Liberal party are sensibly obscured. The stability of the alliance between the Liberals and the Irish has been subjected to a sudden, premature, violent, and unexpected strain, and the triumph of a home-rule policy at the next election, which a little while ago seemed assured, again runs the risk of indefinite postponement. The Liberal party are not discouraged. They are confident that they are in the right, and stimulated by the proof of the absolute unity and solidity of the party throughout Great Britain. The action of Mr. Gladstone is enthusiastically backed by the country and warmly endorsed by nearly all his Parliamentary followers. It is believed that at the very worst the situation will have some results of permanent benefit and value. But it cannot be denied that to-day a black cloud overhangs the Home-Rulers which may be big with temporary political disaster.

How has this happened? It may safely be assumed that the average political observer did not foresee or fully estimate the momentous consequences of the disclosures in the O'Shea divorce case. Apart from details, the result was not unexpected in political circles, or in society in the widest acceptation of that word. To the mass of the English and Scotch electors it evidently was unexpected, and, through the sympathetic voice of their leader, they have pronounced their judgment in a sense which the most worldly members of the party admit to be politically wise no less than morally sound. To the mass of the people in Great Britain, as well as in Ireland, Mr. Parnell was the incarnation of the Nationalist cause. To have fought for it in the person of a man who was disgraced would have been to court certain defeat. From the outset the cause had every possible prejudice and prepossession to encounter. The appeal had to be made to the highest considerations of generosity and justice. A high moral enthusiasm had to be evoked in the masses, who are much more readily susceptible of it than their betters. It never could have been evoked or sustained except by a political leader whose power is largely due to the elevation of his character; and it would certainly have ebbed away from a cause impersonated by a man whose private character it was impossible to respect. As an elector said to me, they could not divide him into water-tight compartments. If ever a political issue was decided by the prompt, spontaneous, and harmonious voice of the people themselves, this issue was so decided.

Before this feeling found expression, there was one consideration on the other side which weighed with some sound Liberals, and probably still weighs with many Irishmen. It was said, "The Irish have the right to choose their own leader. Our connection with them is an alliance, not a fusion. We have a common object in view, but we are in no way responsible for the character of their leader." That was a very plausible view, and the Irish members, when, influenced by motives worthy of a generous origin, they rushed together to condone Mr. Parnell's offence, appear to have expected that it would be accepted and acted upon. But in this expectation a consideration was overlooked which must be plainly stated. The most formidable difficulty, if any one were to be singled out, which the advocates of home rule in this country have had to surmount, has been a misgiving on the part of the electors with respect to the character of the men who would be the rulers of Ireland. Calumny directed its shafts skilfully against this vulnerable place. While the accusations of the *Times* were made broadcast against the Irish party, the Pigott forgeries, levelled against Mr. Parnell, unfortunately made his personal character the crucial question in the eyes of the multitude. When these forgeries were exposed, many Liberals who felt sympathy for their victim, still viewed with some alarm the incense which was indiscriminately offered to a man of whose character very little was known. The suspicions of the average respectable citizen whose vote turns elections, of course extended beyond Mr. Parnell to the Nationalist party generally. It was felt that this was still the party of the 1880 Parliament, which had not been so forward as it might have been to disavow and denounce crime. There was an uneasy fear that here was a descending chain, with patriotism in Parliament at the top, but with Fenianism at the bottom, and with no clear break between the links.

While the Parnell Commission was in the main a victory for those who were put on their defence, it revived the memory of an agitation which, after making all allowances, had many characteristics which were repugnant to honest men. Every effort was made to combat these prepossessions. Leaving out of view Mr. Parnell, who kept aloof and whose position and ways were exceptional, English and Scottish members had confidence in the leading men among their Irish colleagues. No longer shunned and distrusted, as they were in former Parliaments—a most demoralizing position—they appeared in their true colors. They were invited to platforms all over the country to plead their own cause. Men, almost without exception, of transparent character, their eloquence, their sincerity and kindliness made a favorable impression. All was going well. But the element of character was vital to the success of the home-rule cause. If, by a sudden revelation, it was found to be tainted with blackguardism after all, the cause was and is lost. It is for that reason that Mr. Parnell's retirement is essential, and Irishmen in every part of the world will do well to note the unanimous judgment of their most ardent friends and well-wishers in this country.

Under these circumstances, what has been the conduct of the Irish members? On the whole, it has been much to their credit, and among Liberals I have heard no harsh judgment passed, even on those early proceedings which have embarrassed the situation. The party rush to the Dublin meeting at which Mr. Parnell's conduct was condoned in a manner so effusive as to make its condemnation by the same men afterwards impossible, has had serious effects; but it was due to a generous impulse of personal loyalty and gratitude to a leader who had done his country great service. Since then the action of the majority of the members, including the American delegates, has attracted the sympathy and often the admiration of their Liberal colleagues. While the political wisdom of the course they have taken is demonstrable, it is also the first fruits of the improved relations between the two countries. It is a tremendous wrench for Irish members to oppose and renounce Mr. Parnell, but they also feel bound to the honest alliance of the Liberal party. The situation is a trying one for the Irish patriotic party, as it is called—perhaps the name may continue—and their English colleagues have been careful not to say a word that could make it more difficult.

At the same time the extreme prolongation of the debate as to Mr. Parnell's leadership and the acquiescence of the majority in his strategy have caused disappointment. The absence of Mr. Dillon and Mr. William O'Brien from the conclaves is a misfortune, and still more their inability [illegible] Ireland, where their voices would have [illegible] of those [illegible] of rousing enthusiasm perhaps [illegible] such a step would that of Mr. Parnell himself [illegible] of high tariff is surprised that, after a week's [illegible] anks to the cam- majority did not depose Mr. [illegible] n December, 1887, they permitted a wholly [illegible] mind that case issue to be raised, which might lead [illegible] higher was obviously intended to lead, to fres[illegible] not ficulties with the Liberal party and its leaders. It has appeared inexplicable how the majority could permit themselves to be outwitted and overborne, having among their number at least two men of exceptional ability in Mr. Healy, whose acuteness is probably not excelled by

in any division some road or roads must be greatly disappointed. For a company which is doing a fair business, it is no doubt true that deliberate rate-cutting to increase tonnage is very bad policy. The general lowering of all tariffs thus brought about causes more shrinkage in profit than the loss of the carriage of a few tons of freight; and such a company is usually willing to maintain rates. But what to do with those railroads which under stable rates would not get a supposed fair share of the traffic, is the problem.

The Chicago, St. Paul and Kansas City refused to sign the resolutions. In the cases of other roads similarly situated, experience has shown that the demands of their business were too strong for their officers, even after signing an agreement. The road mentioned has funded its interest charges for three years. Having comparatively little to earn beyond operating expenses during that time, it must meanwhile take advantage of the situation to build up its business. Can this company, with an eye to future fixed charges, agree to accept a permanent percentage on the basis of its present traffic? What is here suggested about Mr. Stickney's road may be true, the details being changed, for other roads. Clearly the division of 100 per cent. of traffic among these rival lines is a most serious problem. One road now is carrying about a third of the whole Kansas City-Chicago tonnage.

In spite of great difficulties, there is a hopeful feeling. The majority of the officers, having the possible future losses in mind, are now more willing to compromise than before; and, for a while at least, agreements to maintain rates and turn cars over to each other will be kept. But, unless there is something behind the resolutions stronger than the mere fear of losses in net earnings for the immediate future, such an agreement will before long be in danger. The legalizing of pooling contracts—if there be any likelihood of such a thing—would help greatly, but even then there would be a destructive war before certain railroads would bind themselves legally to accept a small percentage. The simple permission to divide earnings or tonnage would help somewhat, and in time there will be business enough to give a reasonable amount of tonnage to each of the competing roads. Meanwhile, however much we may wish permanent success to any agreement entered into by nine independent railways, the utmost that can be said is that the immediate prospects are favorable. Apparently we have as yet no body of capitalists few enough to act together, and powerful enough to exercise control by force over a majority of the competing railways. Whether, without such a body or a combination of small holders, the keeping of an agreement such as the above should be expected in the face of a volume of traffic too small to satisfy all the carriers, is doubtful.

Nor should our railway presidents be too quickly blamed for these doubts. Presidents are human, and each naturally thinks that he is intrusted with a responsibility for his own road which he cannot throw upon a board composed of men having no financial interest in his property. There is, too, the legality of a complete transfer of authority to be considered. If any president, by agreeing to maintain rates, and by keeping his word, should thereby allow traffic to be lost to his road, and the earnings to fall below the common expectation, he would be criticised by his directors as well as the stock and bondholders, and his administration called a failure. Nor would the explanation be accepted that such a policy was for the good of all and would turn out best in the end. The Chicago and Alton may not favor remunerative rates between Kansas City and Chicago if thereby it should lose a share of the trans-Missouri traffic. And, to reverse the point of view, the Atchison, after spending millions upon Kansas lines, may not be willing to divide its cis-Missouri traffic, gathered from off its own roads, with the Alton, Wabash, St. Paul, or other railways having no lines west of that river. Not to multiply examples, there seem grave doubts whether any but the lowest rates (whether in the tariffs or not) can be long maintained except by force, if the combined capacity and need of the carriers should be greater than the future volume of traffic offered.

THE RIGHT TO PRIVACY.

An article in the last number of the *Harvard Law Review*, with the above title, by two members of the Boston bar, Messrs. Warren and Brandeis, is an attempt to extract from reported cases a rule of the common law which will protect individuals from the intrusion of the press on their private life. It says, and truly:

"Of the desirability—indeed of the necessity—of some such protection, there can, it is believed, be no doubt. The press is overstepping in every direction the obvious bounds of decency and of propriety. Gossip is no longer the resource of the idle and of the vicious, but has become a profession, which is pursued with industry as well as effrontery. To satisfy a prurient taste, the details of sexual relations are spread broadcast in the columns of the daily papers. To occupy the indolent, column upon column is filled with idle gossip, which can only be procured by intrusion upon the domestic circle. The intensity and complexity of life attendant upon advancing civilization have rendered necessary some retreat from the world, and man, under the refining influence of culture, has become more sensitive to publicity, so that solitude and privacy have become more essential to the individual; but modern enterprise and invention have, through invasions upon his privacy, subjected him to mental pain and distress far greater than could be inflicted by mere bodily injury. Nor is the harm wrought by such invasions confined to the suffering of those who may be made the subjects of journalistic or other enterprise. In this, as in other branches of commerce, the supply creates the demand. Each crop of unseemly gossip, thus harvested, becomes the seed of more, and, in direct proportion to its circulation, results in a lowering of social standards and of morality. Even gossip, apparently harmless, when widely and persistently circulated, is potent for evil. It both belittles and perverts. It belittles by inverting the relative importance of things, and thus dwarfing the thoughts and aspirations of a people. When personal gossip attains the dignity of print, and crowds the space available for matters of real interest to the community, what wonder that the ignorant and thoughtless mistake its relative importance? Easy of comprehension, appealing to that weak side of human nature which is never wholly cast down by the misfortunes and frailties of our neighbors, no one can be surprised that it usurps the place of interest in brains capable of other things. Triviality destroys at once robustness of thought and delicacy of feeling. No enthusiasm can flourish, no generous impulse survive, its blighting influence."

As a basis for their contention, the writers show that the common law defends the individual against offensive odors and noises; against the unauthorized circulation of his portrait; against the unauthorized publication of his thoughts, sentiments, and emotions—however expressed, whether in words, signs, sculpture, or music; sometimes on the ground that the expression is property, but sometimes on the ground that it is a confidential communication. They rely also on the protection given by the courts to private photographs as against the photographer; and to individuals as against secret instantaneous photography; to trade secrets, to private letters, and so on.

The remedies they suggest are "an action of tort for damages in all cases, or, in the absence of special damages, substantial compensation for injury to the feelings, and in some cases an injunction," for invasions of privacy. They also, however, propose a statute making criminally punishable any person "who publishes in any newspaper, journal, or magazine, or other periodical publication, any statement concerning the private life or affairs of another" without his consent, of course with the usual exception of candidates for office and persons in public positions. The statute it is hardly necessary to discuss, for we doubt if any legislature could be got to pass it. The only hope, if hope there be, lies in the courts; but strong as are the arguments of our authors in support of the power of the courts to interfere, we doubt very much whether, even if they were successful in securing such interference, it would have any serious effect on the evil to be remedied, and this for two reasons.

The first is, that the law could not be put in force except on complaint of the persons injured, and this complaint is hardly to be looked for except in very rare cases, owing to the very nature of the injury. The legal remedy would very closely resemble that old-fashioned cure for headache caused by too much intoxicating drink—"the hair of the dog that bit you." That is to say, the man who feels outraged by publicity will, in order to stop or punish it, have to expose himself to a great deal more publicity. In order to bring his persecutors to justice, he will have to go through a process which will result in an exposure of his private affairs tenfold greater than that originally made by the offending article. Over and above this, too, he will have to offer himself for examination or cross-examination to a lawyer paid for turning him and his grievances into ridicule before a crowded court-room—an ordeal from which nearly all men and women who care for privacy would shrink with unutterable repugnance. To make any legal remedy effective, in fact, the procedure would have to be secret, of which, under our law, there is no chance whatever.

The second reason is, that there would be no effective public support or countenance for such proceedings. In all democratic

this question hangs, to an alarming degree, the welfare of this country for many years to come. Shall we have time, before some sort of "cheap money" measure is passed, to get the plain people of the country to see that the transition to cheaper money has the same oppressive character as the transition to higher tariff? That cheap money means dear goods, people can easily be got to understand, and in the present temper of the public this point alone is a great advantage; for, in spite of the new Republican gospel, people do strongly prefer not to have goods dear. Nevertheless, there is a great fascination to the average man about the idea of an abundance of money, and he has a vague feeling that if there is plenty of it about, he will get enough for his share to counterbalance the rise of prices, and more.

If the average man could only be got to fix his mind on the machinery whereby his share of the cheap money will come to him, the country would be safe. Suppose he is a wage-earner—day-laborer, mechanic, clerk, teacher, public officer, or what not—let him picture to himself the day when silver has become the standard of payments. Prices will rise at once; there need be no delay in putting a new label on a piece of dry goods, or crying a new price in the provision-market, when it is plain that the state of trade is going to justify the rise. But any one who has had to deal with an employer knows that the raising of wages or salaries is a slow and painful process; it takes two to make that bargain, and generally it is not the employee who can afford to take the firmer stand in it. This great class of men and women with incomes which cannot be speedily raised, will suffer, some for months, some for years, before their nominal wages will be sufficiently raised to make them equal in actual purchasing power to what they were before the change. To everybody who gets his income in the form of stipulated wages, whether he be a hod-carrier or a justice of the Supreme Court, the descent to a lower standard of payments will be grievously oppressive.

There are other classes to whom the change will be largely indifferent, except in so far as so profound a disturbance of business conditions, so gigantic a stirring-up of daring speculations, may ultimately produce disasters in every direction. But there is one class who will be happy while their fellows are troubled, who will gain while others lose, and for whose sake we shall take this step, if we take it at all. We do not refer to the owners of silver mines, who will profit by the increased vent for the product of their mines. These are undoubtedly very influential, especially in the Senate, and they constitute a formidable element in the problem. But their following would be a mere handful, after all, were it not for the widespread sympathy which is felt by so many amiable persons for the unfortunate class to which we have just alluded, whose burdens will be lightened while those of the rest of us will be made more heavy—the debtor class.

But what is the debtor class? How many of us are there who belong to it? One cannot earn this high privilege by the simple process of incurring a debt. No exact definition of this interesting species has, to our knowledge, ever been laid down; and, while we shall not attempt the task ourselves, it would seem to be both easy and useful to mention some conspicuous instances of kinds of men who do not, and kinds of men who do, belong to the debtor class. It seems clear, then, in the first place, that no man belongs to the debtor class whose debts are insignificant in comparison with his income. And, fortunately, if we leave out the farmer with heavy mortgages on his farm, the great mass of men who are poor or in moderate circumstances are hereby at once excluded from the debtor class. Paradoxical as it may sound at first, the majority of men are too poor to belong to the debtor class; they cannot contract debts of any significance, simply because they have not the credit. How many wage-workers are there who would accept a proposition that would reduce their debts and their wages both 20 per cent.? In most cases 10 per cent. reduction of wages would soon counterbalance 50 per cent. reduction of existing debts. Of course there are workingmen who have mortgages on their little homes, and who may thus stand somewhere in the outer ranks of the debtor class; but is there not an impressive set-off to these in the shape of those whose savings in banks, building associations, etc., place them in the ranks of the hated creditor class? Let each man ask himself whether the excess of his debits over his credits is so important that a general scaling down of debts would compensate him for ever so small a reduction of his income. If a census of the answers could be taken, the debtor class would find itself in a very ridiculous minority.

Of those who do belong to the debtor class, we have already mentioned the farmer whose farm is heavily mortgaged. Whether it is *right* or not for him to ask the Government to relieve him of a portion of his debt, at the expense of those who, in a fair and open bargain, advanced to him money which he needed, we shall not now discuss; that it would be gainful to him, we do not deny. Apart from this contingent, we believe there is but one important body of men in the debtor class, namely, those who own the great industrial enterprises of the country. The great borrowers are those who can do something with capital, those who build railroads and carry on great manufacturing and commercial enterprises. They are not usually men upon whom the philanthropist feels impelled to expend much compassion; they can very well take care of themselves. These men, however rich, are apt to owe great sums of money, and the identification of the great "captains of industry" with the debtor class is strengthened, too, by the nature of their relations to their employees. The employees stand to their employers very much in the relation of creditors; the stipulated wage, while not having the force of a debt, is, as we have said, hard to change, and a lowering of the standard is a lowering of the wage. But while these masters of capital would find their obligations greatly lightened by a lowering of the standard, probably very few of them would favor such a lowering; for they know well the peril to every kind of enterprise which lies in the disappointment of the fair expectations of prudent investors.

Thus we find, leaving out the comparatively small class of heavily mortgaged farms, that the interest of the great mass of the people, and especially of wage-earners, is directly opposed to that of the "debtor class," and that the most important representative of this class is the great employer of labor, who not only does not need, but who dreads, the aid which cheap money might give him. The more the matter is looked into, the more plainly it will be seen that the notions so widely prevalent about the debtor class have no firmer texture than "such stuff as dreams are made of."

THE RAILWAY PROSPECT.

The railway presidents have met and resolved. Of the need of reform in railway practice there is, unfortunately, no question. It has been estimated that the railroad tonnage to be carried next year will fall short of this year's traffic as much, perhaps, as 25 per cent. With the large freighting done in 1890, there has been no proportional increase in net earnings. If, therefore, 1891 should see a large reduction in gross earnings, and if, in addition, the relation of expenses to earnings should remain as now, the question whether the profits would cover fixed charges would be a serious one for some of our Western carriers. Leaving out of view any material advance in the nominal rates as impracticable, it is yet probable that if the present nominal tariffs could be made real by the abolition of rate-cutting, the increase in net profit would for a number of roads mean the continuance of dividend payments which otherwise would be in doubt. The anxiety of all railroad officers for a restoration of remunerative rates is therefore justified.

The resolutions leave the adjustment of details to a board consisting of the President and one Director from each company. To reach a practical result this board (when consented to in each case by the companies separately), at its proposed meeting in January, must face two particular problems. One of these is the division of traffic between the roads in the proportion agreed upon. This does not seem a formidable difficulty. Some good railroad attorneys think that the Inter-State Law forbids a money pool, but not a physical division of freight. There is besides the possibility of so dividing unconsigned tonnage at meeting-points as to even up any losses on local competitive business. But what proportion of the whole tonnage is each road entitled to? In the territory broadly described as between Chicago and the Missouri River, there are nine competing systems. If the president of each of these roads were independently to state what percentage of the traffic his road should have, the sum of the nine proportions might reach 200. To cut each proportion to one-half would not answer, so that

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still think that good scientific text-books are much to be preferred to works of this kind, and that thorough teaching is best even for a beginner.

'The Best Letters of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu' is the newest of the "Laurel-Crowned" series of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. "Octave Thanet" supplies a frank biographical sketch, sympathetically giving it the form of a "letter to dead authors." A volume of the same pretty order, and but a shade smaller in size, has been made of Bacon's Essays by the same house. Prof. Melville B. Anderson has edited the text with no little pains after the last edition printed in Bacon's lifetime, taking some liberties with the punctuation and the paragraphing. He also furnishes a bibliographical introduction, with some remarks on Bacon's style and on the crazy identification of him with Shakspere.

Vols. vii. and viii. of *Scribner's Magazine* for the current year contain foretastes of several books, now well known, in the papers on Ericsson, on Electricity, on the Footprints of Charles Lamb, etc. We recall also the valuable series on the Rights of the Citizen and on City, Suburban and Country Houses. Africa received ample consideration in the narratives of Mr. Stanley (with a capital portrait), Mr. Herbert Ward, and Mr. Thomas Stevens. Dr. Wright's article on the wonderful image discovered at Nampa below the lava-beds of Idaho is a landmark in the discussion of the age of the human race and of the formation of this continent. A voyage down the Grand Cañon of the Colorado is another memorable incident, beautifully illustrated. Finally, in these volumes are to be found almost the last writings of the late Eugene Schuyler.

Mr. Horace W. Fuller's "useless but entertaining magazine for lawyers," the *Green Bag*, has survived its second year and bound its second volume (The Boston Book Co.). Its illustrated articles on the leading law schools of the country have been kept up, with the aid of much interesting portraiture, and there has been a parallel series on the courts of final appeal. The *causes célèbres* have been extended from 13 to 21. The obituary column has been well looked after. Facetiæ, legal antiquities, book notices, and the rhymed cases of Mr. Irving Browne and others combine to make up the mélange which seems to receive the suffrages of the profession. This periodical is handsomely printed.

Babyhood, a monthly magazine for mothers, completes its sixth volume (New York: Babyhood Publishing Co.), and maintains its title to the confidence and gratitude of its readers. The table of contents shows a large array of medical talent among the contributors, both male and female. The correspondence is, as usual, of great variety and practical value. Cuts are freely employed in every department of the magazine.

The city authorities of Boston have published from the plates a new (third) edition of the late Mayor Shurtleff's 'Topographical and Historical Description of Boston'; and to Mr. W. H. Whitmore, as Chairman of the Record Commissioners, has been allotted the bringing the work up to date by means of a long prefatory note. The great fire of 1872 in particular made this revision imperative; hence a map of the Burnt District has been inserted, with a new facsimile of Bonner's map of 1722, a facsimile of a hitherto inedited map of 1711, very rare and valuable, a map of the islands in the harbor, and much cartographical information about the old city and its recent annexations. Three views of Boston in 1764, possessing the highest interest and authenticity, are reproduced for the first time. The artist was a grand-uncle of the poet Byron. Mr. Whitmore's survey of the city's growth and embellishment deserves the attention of other municipalities, and we may instance the unparalleled park system, which, as the writer says, has been carried out by successive Commissioners without taint of jobbery of any kind.

We are pleased to find in the *Belletristisches Journal* for December 17 a letter to the editor setting forth the need and field of usefulness of a German Historical Association in this city, signed by well-known names of the younger and the elder generation of German citizens—native Germans and German-Americans. The editor desires that would-be members of such an organization should address him under cover of "Geschichtsverein, P. O. box 1680."

The Paris *Réforme Sociale* for December 1 prints a paper read before the (French) Canadian Society of Social Economy by Father Augier, his theme being "The American Republic, wherein it is admirable, seductive, and dangerous." The writer formed his impressions during a brief journey in the United States, and they are on the whole favorable enough. He notices the clause of the Constitution divorcing the Government from religious establishments, but consoles himself with an imaginary reference to the Sabbath in the second article of that instrument, implying respect for the institution of Sunday, and hence a recognition and acceptance of Christianity. Had he avoided this error and gone a little deeper, he might have made some pregnant observations on our army and navy chaplaincies, which give a natural advantage to the sect possessing a liturgy.

The London *Times* prints a letter from its correspondent with the Mashonaland Expedition of the British South Africa Company, summarizing what it has accomplished. It consisted of some 700 men who have cut a "good, serviceable road" over 400 miles in length, crossing several large streams by substantial "drifts" and smaller ones by corduroy bridges, "without the loss of one single life, either in the hospital or in the field." A fort has been built, a Government and a postal service has been established, and some 300 men are now actively engaged in prospecting for gold. "From all sides reports of the most promising and encouraging nature come in of reefs being struck and shafts being sunk, and applications are made daily for the due registration of claims under the terms of the company's mining laws." It is proposed by the company to send out some thoroughly competent archæologist to examine the remarkable ruins of Zimbabye in the gold region, supposed by some to be of Egyptian origin. Meanwhile, the greatest precautions have been taken to preserve the ruins from injury.

A summary of the scientific results of the Stanley Expedition by Prof. Fried. Ratzel is begun in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for November, the subjects treated being the mountains, the river courses, and Lake Albert Edward. This is followed by an account of Lake Molveno in the Tyrol and a review of the Arctic voyager Nordenskiöld's 'Facsimile Atlas,' a work on the early history of cartography, containing reproductions of more than one hundred and fifty of the most important maps printed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. There is also a brief notice of the new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas,' together with an interesting proof-map of the Pacific Coast States, so colored as to show the parts newly engraved, as well as the corrections and additions made since the edition of 1872. Reference is also made to the omission of a great number of places which have ceased to exist, "a more frequent occurrence in the United States than in any other part of the world at the present time." A supplemental number contains an account by Lieut. von Höhnel of Count Teleki's expedition to Lake Rudolf in Eastern Equatorial Africa, the subject most fully treated being the ethnography of the regions traversed. The author separates the natives, according to their languages, into three distinct races, the Bantu, which include the tribes about Kilimanjaro; the Nilotic, of which the Masai are the most important and aggressive representatives; and the Hamitic, which include the Gallas. These are carefully described and their habitat given. Some admirable route maps accompany the monograph.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December opens with a paper on a "Railway through Southern Persia," by Gen. Sir F. J. Goldsmid. While the development of Persia is one object, the principal aim of the proposed line, which would run from Baghdad through Shustar, Shiraz, and Bandar Abbas to Karachi, is to open communication with India. The significant hint is dropped that the concession of right of way from the seaboard of Syria to the Turko-Persian frontier may be reserved for a *quid pro quo* for the abandonment of Egypt. Mr. W. Pilcher, in an account of a recent trip through Spanish Honduras, predicts a brilliant future for the republic on account of its vast mineral wealth, the rapid increase of its exportations of cattle and fruit, and the suitability of its soil for the profitable cultivation of coffee and the sugar-cane.

The principal article in the December Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is an extremely interesting account by Mr. H. H. Johnston of his recent journey to Nyassaland, where he was sent by the Foreign Office to bring to an end the war between the Arabs and the African Lakes Company. He entered the Zambesi by the newly discovered Chinde mouth, upon which he reports favorably, and which is evidently destined to be the main avenue of approach to Central Africa from the eastern coast. On the upper Shire he passed through a district which, though inhabited by nominal Mohammedans and rigidly guarded from all forms of European alcohol, he describes as the "most drunken part of Africa I ever travelled in." With great difficulty and some danger, he made his way to within three or four miles of the shore of Rukwa, a large salt lake of unknown extent lying to the eastward of Tanganyika. He descended to it by means of a ravine, the soil and rocks of which were of a blood-red color, the bed of a once-important river which had only recently dried up. The rain supply, according to the natives, suddenly ceased within the last two or three years. Of a great part of the territory between the two great lakes now under British influence he speaks enthusiastically as well adapted to European colonization. The most desirable portions, rich grazing lands on which now roam innumerable herds of large game, are practically uninhabited.

—"Our Northern Frontier" is the subject of a striking and suggestive article in the November *Journal of the Military Service Institution*. The author, Lieut. A. D. Schenck, has no difficulty in showing our utterly defenceless condition in case of a war with Canada, and the immense advantages which our opponent would have over us in nearly every respect. By the treaty of 1817 we can maintain on the great lakes only four vessels "not exceed-

ing one hundred tons' burden, and armed with one eighteen-pounder cannon," one each on Lakes Ontario and Champlain, and two on the upper lakes. Our only present waterway to these upper lakes is the Erie Canal, through which boats 100 feet long and 225 tons burden can pass, while the Canadian canals permit vessels of 1,500 tons to reach the head of Lake Superior. Our navy would, of course, at the outset be unavailable, while in the English navy there are 111 vessels, three of them armored, which in a fortnight after the declaration of war could take undisputed possession of Lakes Ontario and Erie. And when the great canal system of the Ottawa and French Rivers is completed, the vessels can enter Lake Huron with equal ease. It is hardly necessary to add that this possession of the lakes means the absolute command of the cities on the shores, whatever the land forces gathered to defend them. The author puts the value of destructible property within the reach of a hostile fleet at $1,000,000,000, which does not seem an extravagant estimate. The Canadian militia, which includes all men capable of bearing arms between the ages of eighteen and sixty, number 830,000, or nearly 300,000 in the first class or line. These men would have the inestimable advantage over our militia in that their officers would be mainly taken from the 14,000 trained officers of the English regular army, and for their armament there are now in England "not less than 600,000 stand of approved arms" "in store or packed ready for shipment to any part of the world." "Within ten days from the date of notification, therefore, the arms and ammunition would be at Toronto, London, or the Welland Canal for distribution to the troops, in place of the Snyder rifles." Considering the fact that we are doing absolutely nothing for the defence of this northern frontier, either in building or garrisoning our forts, or in constructing or enlarging our canals, and considering our generally unprepared condition in case of war, and the thorough preparation of our neighbor backed by the army and navy of Great Britain, the author does not put the case too strongly in asserting that "this country is bound over hand and foot and under heavy bonds to keep the peace of nations, even with a neighbor apparently so insignificant as the Dominion of Canada."

—The *Academy* of November 29, 1890, contains a very interesting and important communication from Mr. Theo. G. Pinches, the accomplished Assyriologist of the British Museum. In the collections brought to the museum by Mr. Rassam he has found a clay tablet, with a bilingual inscription, an incantation-text, of the obverse of which he offers a translation "to a certain extent provisional." This turns out to be a new version of the Babylonian creation-history, presenting curious resemblances to the account in Genesis ii. It begins by saying that there was a time when the glorious house of the gods had not been made, nor any plant, tree, brick, beam, house, or city, nor Niffer nor Erech, nor the abyss, nor Eridu; then on a certain day Marduk made Eridu, Esagila within the abyss, Babylon, the gods, the spirits of earth, the glorious city of the gods, earth and water, mankind, wild beasts, the Tigris and the Euphrates, plants, lands and marshes, and domestic animals. The text is unfortunately imperfect, though Mr. Pinches thinks that not much of importance is lost. The creation-texts hitherto published derive all things from the primitive water, and in general follow the line of the account in Genesis i.; the new text, in its outline, reminds us strongly of the very different narrative of Genesis ii., especially in that the creation of man does not follow, but precedes, that of beasts and plants. The "seat of joy of heart" in which the gods are made to dwell, appears to connect itself with the Eden of Genesis. It had been surmised that such a Babylonian creation-history existed, and this inscription may be said to make the surmise a certainty. Whether the story in Genesis ii. is old Hebrew, or is borrowed from Babylonian sources, is a point on which Biblical critics are not at one; but of the close connection between the Babylonian and Hebrew histories there can be no doubt. As to the relation between the two versions (the two Babylonian that correspond to Gen. i. and Gen ii.), Mr. Pinches thinks that the latter belongs to the mystery-loving, incantation-using Akkadians, and the former to the poetic, legend-loving Semitic Babylonians. On this delicate and much-disputed question it might be rash to venture an opinion, but we may hope that new discoveries will without long delay supply material which will make decision easier. All persons interested in the subject will feel grateful to Mr. Pinches for this new contribution to our knowledge. He will no doubt publish the cuneiform text immediately.

—Under the editorship of Prof. A. B. Hart, a series of "Harvard Historical Monographs" has been begun through the publication-house of Ginn & Co. The first of these, by Mr. Edward Campbell Mason, is now before us under the title of 'The Veto Power; Its Origin, Development, and Function in the Government of the United States.' Mr. Mason considers that this power originated as part of the power to make laws, the legislative body having the right either to accept or to reject a proposed enactment. Down to about the time of Edward III., the King legislated as well as administered, but from that period it became customary for him to proclaim laws only when requested to do so by Parliament. For a time the laws granted by the King were not responsive to the petitions, but eventually the Commons hit upon the plan of framing their petition in the language of a bill, so that the King might find it convenient to assent to it in the precise form in which it was presented to him. By the beginning of the sixteenth century this custom had become fixed, so that the positive power of legislation was practically absorbed by the Commons, leaving the King only the negative power of disapproval. This power, too, disappeared as Cabinet government was developed, and "never since 1708 has the signature of the sovereign been refused to a measure which has obtained a majority of both houses of Parliament." Mr. Mason's sketch of this historical process would perhaps gain in clearness if he were to emphasize the existence of two legislative powers, the Council and the King; the former being at times practically deprived by the latter of the negative power of legislation —if not, indeed, of the positive power as well —but gradually reversing the tendency, and absorbing finally both of these powers. But, as Mr. Mason points out, the negative power of the Crown maintained itself in colonial affairs long after it had disappeared in the mother country; and, owing to this fact, as well as to the fact that the disappearance was unobserved by constitutional writers in England, the power was treated by our statesmen as existing in the executive at the time of the separation of the colonies. They regarded it, therefore, as a necessary part of the theory of balanced powers in government, and thus, to sum the matter up in a word, the veto power was introduced into the Constitution of the United States.

—It is to be added that between the King and the Colonial Governors a good deal of positive legislation had taken place on this side of the sea, so that limitations of the executive power were much favored during the Revolutionary period. In the first State governments formed, and under the Articles of Confederation, the veto power was not tolerated; in four of our States it does not now exist, and in several others a majority vote is sufficient to pass a vetoed bill. It would be interesting to inquire into the causes which have made the exercise of this power more popular in recent times, but the limits of Mr. Mason's plan would not admit of an extended discussion of this question. He has preferred to undertake the useful but extremely laborious task of examining and classifying all the vetoes of the Presidents of the United States. They are criticised as affecting the form, or the distribution of the powers, of government, or the exercise of these powers; and chapters are added upon the constitutional procedure as to vetoes, and the political development of the power. Several appendixes and a full index render this monograph extremely serviceable for reference, and it may be especially commended to journalists as affording material wherewith to point their political comparisons.

—By the death of Carl Gustav Helqvist, which occurred at Berchtesgaden, in the Bavarian Highlands, on November 20, Sweden has lost a great historical painter, and a once prominent figure has disappeared for ever from the Scandinavian artist colony in Munich. The deceased was born, the son of a poor shoemaker, December 15, 1851, at Kungsör, on Lake Mälar. In the eleventh year of his age he was sent to Stockholm and apprenticed to the scene-painter Ahlgrenson, and in 1864 entered a class in the Royal Academy for the purpose of perfecting himself in the art of theatrical decoration. Soon, however, his remarkable talents began to reveal themselves through all the imperfections of his early education, and he resolved to become a painter in the artistic sense of the term. By this step he was thrown entirely upon his own resources and obliged to earn his daily bread, while pursuing his studies, by illustrating; his income from this labor was a meagre and precarious pittance, which just served to keep him moving along on the perilous verge of starvation. Meanwhile he painted several pictures of mythological and historical subjects, such as "Asa Thor's Contest with the Giants," "The Finding of Moses," and "The Finding of the Body of Gustavus Adolphus," and in 1875 took the academical prize with his painting, "Gustavus Vasa discovers the Treason of the Bishops," for which he received the great medal and a travelling stipend extending over five years. The first use he made of his freedom and his funds was to wander on foot through Sweden, Norway, and Gothland, filling his sketch-book with materials for future canvases. He then went to Paris, where he came under the influence of the naturalistic and *plein-air* painters, and after visiting the principal cities of Germany, and making thorough studies of the old Hanse towns, settled down in Munich as the pupil of Wilhelm Diez The fruit of a second sojourn in Paris was the *plein-air* painting "Bishop Sumanräder's Entry into Stockholm in 1526," which excited such general interest and provoked so much admiring and adverse criticism at the Munich International Exhibition of 1879. To this style, which he never carried to the excess

of ignoring all gradations and demarcations of light and shade, he adhered in all his subsequent historical paintings, of which he produced one or more nearly every year, besides a great number of genre-pictures, landscapes, portraits, and wonderfully fine aquarels until 1888, when his health began to fail, so that he was obliged to resign his professorship in the Berlin Academy, and retire to the villa of his father-in-law, Prof. Thiersch, at Berchtesgaden. There in the spring of 1889 his mental faculties became obscured, and the darkness of his intellectual night continued to deepen until death came to his release.

LECKY'S IRISH HISTORY: THE REBELLION AND THE UNION.—II.

A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Vols. VII. and VIII. D. Appleton & Co. 1890.

In a previous article we have discussed the method and characteristics of Mr. Lecky's 'History of the Rebellion and the Union,' for this is the best description of these two volumes. We have now to examine the views he takes of several points in that history, round which controversies of no small moment have raged.

The first of these points is the recall of Lord Fitzwilliam, the Lord Lieutenant who was sent over to Ireland in January, 1795, and forced to return in the following March. In 1794 an important section of the old Whig party joined Pitt, whose foreign policy they found they could approve; and it was agreed that the Irish policy of his Ministry should be modified, and that Fitzwilliam, a leading Whig, should go to Ireland as Viceroy to carry on its government in a liberal and conciliatory spirit. When, however, Fitzwilliam reached Dublin, announced himself in favor of removing the disabilities under which the Roman Catholics still labored, and sought to displace some of the officials who were most hostile to conciliation (and in particular the powerful John Beresford), a storm arose. Pitt refused to support him, and as he could neither satisfy the expectations he had created, nor carry out the policy he deemed essential, nothing remained for him but to submit and return to England. His departure was a triumph for the ultra-Protestant and ultra-repressive faction, headed by Fitzgibbon, then Chancellor, who so misgoverned the country as to bring about, or at least to hasten, the rebellion of 1798.

The motives of Pitt's conduct in the matter have remained obscure and given rise to much discussion. Mr. Lecky's view, which does not substantially differ from that taken by Dr. Sigerson in 'Two Centuries of Irish History' (the last preceding book which has dealt with the same period), is that the personal influence of Fitzgibbon and the Beresfords had more to do with this decisive and indeed fatal step than any considerations of high policy. Pitt knew but little of Ireland and was far from realizing the grave condition of her affairs. He had no personal objection to Catholic emancipation, but no particular interest in it. He conceived himself to be bound to support Fitzgibbon, and he allowed himself to be worked on by the English friends of the Beresfords, who had the ear of the King also, and by those old Tories who disliked Fitzwilliam and the Whig recruits generally. Mr. Lecky thinks that Burke was right when he wrote: "The one object of the Irish clique is to devise security to their own jobbish power. This is the first and the last in the piece. The Catholic question is a mere pretence." And he points out that the English Cabinet omitted to take any notice of the Catholic Bill during many weeks, although its provisions had been sent to them and their opinion pressed for even before Grattan introduced it. They could not allege the danger of Irish opposition, for there was almost complete unanimity in Ireland regarding it in both houses and in the country—a unanimity which never recurred afterwards. It would seem, therefore, that if the question of places had been out of the way, Fitzwilliam would probably have been permitted, as he afterwards insisted that he had originally been told he would be permitted, to assent to Catholic emancipation, and thereby avert not only the struggle of thirty years which ended in O'Connell's triumph in 1829, but the horrors of 1797 and 1798.

We now pass on to those tragic years. It has frequently been charged against the Irish junto which ruled the island in the name of Lord Camden, the feeble viceroy who succeeded Fitzwilliam, that they deliberately provoked the rebellion by the cruelties which they ordered or sanctioned in order that they might use the rebellion as a means of effecting the union of Ireland with England. This accusation, in which some writers have included Pitt himself, was brought very soon after the Union, and was frequently urged by O'Connell. Says Mr. Lecky (vol. vii, p. 285):

"O'Connell explained on this hypothesis the whole Fitzwilliam episode. He dwelt [also] on the fact that the Government for many months before the outbreak of the rebellion had secret information pointing out its most active leaders, and that, in spite of the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, those leaders were suffered to remain at large, and he insisted upon the passage from the report of the Secret Committee in which Lord Castlereagh spoke of the measures that had been taken to cause the rebellion to explode. Such an accusation will probably appear to most Englishmen too wildly extravagant to require a lengthened refutation."

Those who read Mr. Lecky's accounts of the behavior of the Government will not think it extravagant as applied to that Government, for Pitt may well be believed to have been ignorant or neglectful of much that went on. On the contrary, it is a plausible charge, for if it assumes shocking wickedness on the part of the ruling junto, it credits them with a foresight and insight and constancy of purpose which on any other hypothesis they must have utterly lacked. Nothing more feeble, as well as more criminal, can be imagined than the behavior of the Irish Executive during the period 1795-'8, if they were not playing for a rebellion. Their conduct is described by Mr. Lecky himself in the following passage:

"The faults of Irish government during the few years before the rebellion of 1798 appear to me to have been enormously great, and a weight of tremendous responsibility rests upon those who conducted it. By habitual corruption and the steady employment of the system of nomination boroughs, they had reduced the Irish Legislature to such a condition of despicable and almost ludicrous subserviency, that a policy which was probably supported by the great majority of educated Irishmen, could not command more than twenty or thirty votes in the House of Commons. They had done this at a time when the French Revolution had made the public mind in the highest degree sensitive to questions of representation; at a time when the burden of the war was imposing extraordinary hardships on the people. They had resisted the very moderate Reform bills of Ponsonby and Grattan, which would have left the overwhelming preponderance of political power in the hands of property, loyalty, and intelligence, as strenuously as the wild democratic schemes of the United Irishmen, and they had thrown into the path of treason a crowd of able and energetic men, who might have been contented by reform. . . .

"The management of the Catholic question had been still more disastrous—disastrous not only in what was denied, but also in much that was granted. The Relief Act of 1793 had deluged the country constituencies with an overwhelming multitude of illiterate Catholic 40s.-freehold voters, who were totally unfit for the exercise of political power; who were certain at some future time to become a great political danger, and whose enfranchisement added enormously to the difficulty and danger of reforming the Parliament, while it still left the Catholics under the brand of inferiority, excluded the Catholic gentry from Parliament, and thus deprived them of political influence at the very period when their services were most needed. At the same time, by the fatal error of not connecting—as might then most easily have been done—the college for the education of the priesthood with the university of the country, they prepared the way for an evil of the most serious kind.

"The recall of Lord Fitzwilliam, under circumstances that were calculated to inflame to the utmost popular passions; the deliberate appeal by the Government to the sectarian spirit among the Protestants, and Pelham's language of eternal proscription against the Catholics, soon completed the work. The loyal and respectable, though unfortunately small and timid, body of Catholic gentry lost all power and influence, and the guidance of the Catholics passed into the hands of seditious demagogues in the towns, who were in close alliance with the United Irishmen. At the same time, the transportation by Lord Carhampton of multitudes of suspected persons to the Fleet without a shadow of legal justification; the act of indemnity, by which the Irish Parliament closed the doors of the law courts against those who sought for redress, and the shameful apathy shown towards the earliest outrages of the Orange banditti in the North, convinced great masses of the poor that they were out of the protection of the law. It is not true that the Government inspired or approved of these outrages; but when it was found that a proclamation which specifically condemned the crimes of the defenders, was silent about those of the Orangemen; that a parliamentary inquiry into these outrages, though repeatedly asked for, was always refused; and that hundreds, and possibly thousands, of Catholics were obliged by terror to fly from their homes, at a time when Ulster was full of English troops, it cannot be wondered at that the Catholics should have come to look on themselves as completely unprotected, and should have been well prepared to receive the seditious teaching which was so abundantly diffused." (Vol. vii., pp. 362-364.)

This passage does not state the whole case against the Irish Government, for it does not mention (and could not, since Mr. Lecky's narrative, to which the passage belongs, had not yet reached that point) their behavior in getting rid of Sir Ralph Abercromby, when that able soldier had endeavored to repress the license and savagery of the troops, and giving military control to Gen. Lake, whose want of ability seems to have been redeemed in their eyes by his still more conspicuous want of humanity. Nevertheless, Mr. Lecky thinks that neither Pitt's Cabinet nor Lord Camden's Executive was mainly actuated from 1795 to 1798 by the wish to carry a Union. He justly remarks that if this had been their purpose, their confidential correspondence could not have failed to furnish evidence against them. He has carefully examined that correspondence, and finds very little pointing in that direction. They were swayed by hatred and fear, the characteristic passions of a caste. They hated liberty and had no respect for legality. They had neither the wish nor the capacity to consider what ultimate effect would be produced on the temper and thoughts of the people by the violent measures they employed. Fitzgibbon, the evil genius of his country during all these years, seems to have loathed and despised it; and his passions clouded his undoubtedly powerful intellect. We do not, therefore, greatly differ from the conclusion at which Mr. Lecky arrives:

"Fluctuating and unskilful policy has often

the effects of calculated malevolence, and the mistakes of the Government both in England and Ireland undoubtedly contributed very largely to the hideous scenes of social and political anarchy, to the religious hatreds and religious panics which alone rendered possible the legislative union. Nor can it, I think, be denied that it is in a high degree probable that a desire to carry a legislative union had a considerable influence in dictating the policy which in fact produced the rebellion, and that there were politicians who were prepared to pursue that policy even at the risk of a rebellion, and who were eager to make use of the rebellion when it broke out, for the purpose of accomplishing their design. The following striking passage from a work which I have often quoted, shows the extreme severity with which the situation was judged by a perfectly loyal writer, who was in general one of the most temperate and most competent then living in Ireland. 'To affirm,' writes Newenham, 'that the government of Ireland facilitated the growth of rebellion for the purpose of effecting the Union, would be to hold language not perhaps sufficiently warranted by facts. But to affirm that the rebellion was kept alive for that purpose, seems perfectly warrantable. The charge was boldly made in the writer's hearing, during one of the debates on the Union, by an honorable gentleman who held a profitable place under the Crown; and to affirm that the measure never would have been carried into effect without the occurrence of a rebellion, similar in respect of its attendant and previous circumstances to that of 1798, is to advance what nineteen in twenty men who were acquainted with the political sentiments of the Irish people at that time, will feel little difficulty in assenting to.'" (Vol. viii., pp. 285-6)

But though Mr. Lecky enables us to acquit the Irish Executive of the blackest guilt they have been charged with, he sets not only the folly but also the ferocity of the ruling clique, and indeed of the greater part of the ruling caste, in an even more odious light than we had expected. No recent historian has treated the horrors of 1798 with such severe impartiality, and in none, therefore, do the cruelties perpetrated by the soldiers, the yeomanry, and the Orangemen appear so frightful. We discount the narratives of partisan writers, but we can trust Mr. Lecky. Cruelties enough there were on both sides; but the cruelties of the insurgents were the work of ignorant peasants, wild with fear and revenge. The insurgent leaders almost invariably tried to restrain their followers; they protected their prisoners, sometimes at the risk of their own lives; they respected Protestant places of worship. No outrages were committed on Protestant women. The forces of the Crown, on the other hand, gave no quarter, and killed in cold blood most of their prisoners. They tortured men, frequently innocent men, without mercy, flogging some to death, with the real or pretended object of extorting evidence, tearing off the hair or scalp of others with pitched caps. Hundreds of persons who had nothing whatever to do with the rebellion were killed, or transported, or pressed into the navy; many hundreds of others had their houses burned and were driven forth homeless. Many women suffered the last indignities. And these atrocities were perpetrated, not merely in Wexford and Wicklow, where the insurgents had been guilty of some savage acts, but to a large extent in counties where there had been no rebellion, as well as in Down and Antrim, where not a single act of cruelty has ever been charged against the insurgents, who rose in arms, but observed all the rules of civilized warfare. What is worst of all, the brutal ferocity of the soldiers and of such a fiend as Flogging Fitzgerald, the Sheriff of Tipperary, were approved or at least condoned by nearly all the heads of the military and civil administration. When Lord Cornwallis tried to stop the wanton slaughter that went on after the rebellion had been suppressed, a cry of rage went up from the dominant faction, and his own officials were among the loudest in complaining of his lenity and weakness.

We come now to the Union, and here also Mr. Lecky's researches show a strong case against the Irish Government. Some partisan writers have lately attempted to clear Castlereagh and his associates from the charge, universally believed at the time, of having forced the act through the Irish Parliament by corrupt means. After the careful examination of the question which we find in these pages, no one is likely to repeat the attempt. Mr. Lecky's summing up is too long for quotation, but it shows beyond doubt that the measure was detested by the large majority of the House of Commons and of the whole class from which the House of Commons came, and was passed by a profuse distribution of peerages and other honors, by the payment of large sums to members to retire and let other members, willing to vote with the Government, take their places, by a certain amount of direct bribery to members who retained their seats, and by large compensations to wealthy borough-mongers in respect of the boroughs which were disfranchised. That the Protestant Episcopalians of all classes were, with few exceptions, hostile to the Union has been generally admitted; but there has been much controversy regarding the attitude of the Northern Presbyterians and the Roman Catholics. Mr. Lecky represents the former as being mostly indifferent, and thinks that among those Catholics who were sufficiently educated to have any opinion there was, if not a majority, yet a considerable body of favoring opinion. The Catholics had little reason to love the Parliament which had just approved the severities of 1798, and their hierarchy had been led to expect that not only Catholic emancipation, but probably also an endowment of the priesthood and a measure of tithe commutation, would immediately follow the Union. This expectation, as every one knows, was cruelly falsified. The evils of the tithe system flourished in full force till 1838. No endowment of the priests was ever proposed to Parliament, nor indeed has there been any moment when it would have been certain to be enacted if proposed. Catholic emancipation might, no doubt, have been promptly passed had Pitt adhered to the pledges which he allowed to be given to the leading Irish Catholics, when the Union was being debated in Ireland, as the price of their support or neutrality. Mr. Lecky points out, as many have pointed out before him, that the failure to pass remedial and conciliatory measures along with the Act of Union destroyed what value the Union itself might then have been expected to possess, and opened the door to a long and lamentable series of agitations and conspiracies.

Nor does he acquit Pitt himself of what is perhaps the gravest charge ever brought against his good faith, and is certainly one of the most unfortunate errors in his long career. "It is impossible," says Mr. Lecky, in summing up a full and instructive account of the intrigues of Lord Loughborough, the obstinate deliverances of the King, the vacillation and tergiversation of the English Cabinet, and the honest efforts of the unfortunate Cornwallis to satisfy the expectations he had raised among the Roman Catholics—"it is impossible by any legitimate argument to justify Pitt's conduct, and it leaves a deep stain upon his character both as a statesman and as a man." (Vol. viii., p. 523).

American readers who can look at the annals of Ireland without that partisanship which seems to obscure the vision of nearly all Englishmen, will find with surprise that an historian who has stated the facts with such conspicuous fairness seems unable to draw from them those conclusions regarding the sources of Irish disaffection in later times, and the character of British rule in Ireland even at the present day, which they will suggest to every unprejudiced person beyond the limits of the United Kingdom. And such readers will observe, not only with surprise, but with regret, the occasional outbursts of petulance and bitterness that disfigure a work which, had some ten or fifteen unlucky pages been omitted, might have been deemed a model of historic impartiality. In one passage—they are but few—Mr. Lecky seems to adopt a position regarding the moral obligation of the Act of Union on long-subsequent legislatures which is not only splenetic but absurd. In another he condescends to a misrepresentation worthy of a second-rate stump orator. Every one of these outbursts—happily they are but few—is so gratuitous and unnecessary to the argument and purpose of the book, every one of them is so wholly at variance with the admirable tone which marks all the narrative and nearly all the reflective passages, that we cannot but hope that they will not be suffered to stand in future editions, testifying to the readers of the next generation how much acridity current controversies can engender even in the most superior minds.

RECENT FICTION.

The Tragic Muse. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

Expatriation. By the author of 'Aristocracy.' D. Appleton & Co.

The Anglomaniacs. Cassell & Co.

A Cigarette-Maker's Romance. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

The House by the Medlar Tree. By Giovanni Verga. Translated by Mary A. Craig. Harper & Bros.

Rarahu. By Pierre Loti. Translated by Clara Bell. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.—*An Iceland Fisherman.* By the same. Translated by Anna Farwell de Koven. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

A South Sea Lover. By Alfred St. Johnston. Macmillan & Co.

The Miner's Right.—The Squatter's Dream. By Rolf Boldrewood. Macmillan & Co.

Geoffrey Hampstead. By Thomas S. Jarvis. D. Appleton & Co.

If Mr. James were, like his only English rival in the art of fiction, Mr. Stevenson, naturally impelled to write chiefly stories of adventure, he would get more applause than he does for his beautiful manner and exquisite style. Many instinctive censors of literature believe that Stevenson's stories are all action, therefore great; that James's stories are all rest, therefore fine-spun inanity. This sort of comment leads one to suppose that people who are not continually rolling down stairs must not consider the charge of torpidity an aspersion, and that nothing ever is accomplished in life by less violent methods. Most of the people in 'The Tragic Muse' are exceedingly careful of their steps, and yet they achieve a good deal. Nicholas Dormer gives up fine political prospects and a great marriage for the sake of a beggarly art; Peter Sherringham, after much vacillation, is ready to fling over diplomacy and the star of an ambassador for love of the Tragic Muse; the Tragic Muse herself, Miriam Rooth, never dreams of

giving up anything, but holds fast to her one idea, much to her worldly advantage. It is true that the two men and most of the subordinate characters are less interesting for what they do than for what they think, for mental activity preliminary and subsequent to physical. Mr. James is, in fact, guilty of selecting complex creatures—creatures who are centuries away from savage simplicity—and of devoting his greatest energy to the exhibition of the storehouse of their complexities, the mind. He finds an infinite variety of mind, and its tricks are vastly more surprising and entertaining than a conjurer's tricks, which we see but do not in the least understand. There is the dull, ponderous, prejudiced mind of Lady Agnes; the naïve mind of her daughter Biddy, its ingenuousness crossed by inherited worldliness; the worldly mind of Mrs. Dallow, with innumerable shades, refinements, and even contradictions of worldliness; the mind of Peter Sherringham, her brother, very like hers, but the contradictions heightened by greater possibility of passion; the mind of Nicholas Dormer, slow like his mother's, but much less under control, capable of no end of fantastic flights; last, the mind of Gabriel Nash, serenely philosophical, but nebulous, unreliable, elusive.

Nash is nothing but a mind, a sort of incarnation of wisdom gathered through observation, the sharpness and justice of which have never been impaired by feeling. The other minds are only parts of substantial beings—far the most important parts, most subtle and intricate, altogether most worthy of one whose avowed profession is the complete representation of men and women. But Mr. James realizes that approximately primitive people, people who do more and better than they think, are still to be found in the world, often making great bustle and exciting wild curiosity. The Tragic Muse is one of these. Of mixed race, with a not distant Jewish strain, vagabond from her birth, beautiful, polyglot, and poor, she turns instinctively to the stage, where her natural advantages can be most brilliantly utilized and the disadvantages of circumstance most speedily conquered. Enormously vain, with imperturbable self-assurance, showy, hard, not ungenerous, capable of assuming every emotion and incapable of feeling any not connected with public applause and the receipts of the box-office—such is the Tragic Muse, by far the most brilliant and faithful representation of the successful modern actress that has ever been achieved in English fiction.

By way of education in literary art we commend the reading of 'Expatriation' and 'The Anglomaniacs' for purposes of comparison with any of Mr. James's numerous sketches of similar characters placed in similar situations. The American tuft-hunter is for obvious reasons the basest of tuft-hunters. He (more conspicuously, if not more frequently, she) is fair game for the satirist; but to go out after the game with either a club or a feather indicates at least poor judgment in the choice of weapons. The author of 'Expatriation' wields the club, brandishes it, whirls it and whacks with it, bringing down next to nothing. His Americans are literally Anglomaniacs, foaming at the mouth, dangerous. Between the American Brownstones and Van Teutons and the noble English family of which Lord Mayfair is the ignorant and irascible head, there is nothing to choose, for caddishness and vulgarity. In the wonderful and particular unfitness of all to represent any type or class of humanity, or any sane individuals, they are gloriously equal. The author has, indeed, a faint sense of the distinction between legitimate caricature and gross extravagance, showing it in the pompous sophistries whereby Mr. Van Teuton tries to conceal his flunkey soul. The elder Brownstone is not deficient in very crude American humor, and a scene or two in the Mayfair family is no further from nature than is broad farce.

The author of the 'Anglomaniacs' tosses a wisp at her mark. Sometimes it lights where it is aimed, but nothing is hurt. There is more amusement to be had out of the screeching, preposterous toadies than out of the quiet variety, with their fairly decorous persistence; but if one of the two authors is ever to write a telling satire, it will probably be she who is responsible for the 'Anglomaniacs.'

Wherever Mr. Crawford seeks romance he is pretty sure to find it. He is also very careful not to mix his nations up—that is, he gives his people racial or national touches in addition to common human characteristics. He is most successful with those whom Anglo-Saxons call, collectively, "foreigners," perhaps because they are more plastic and have not to be positively dragged and driven into romantic corners. The cigarette-maker and his companions in the little back shop of Herr Fischelowitz of Munich are only less foreign than Turks and Chinese; they are Poles and Russians, and one of them is a tame Cossack. Whatever their vices may be, Mr. Crawford dwells most on their kindness towards a man of superior birth and gentle nature, whom misfortune has made their fellow-workman. The unhappy Count is a pathetic figure and really noble, verifying in his humble life the discredited adage, Blood will tell. The poor Polish girl, Vera, revives another fast vanishing belief—that in the beauty and strength of woman's devotion. Though the happiness which comes to her at last is rarely the reward of the virtuous, it is occasionally, and there is no reason always to ignore the barely possible. There are warmth, sympathy, and sentiment in every chapter, and these things make joy, especially just after one has been mentally dwelling among miserable snobs, the best of whom has but the brain of a midge, a semblance of a human heart, and never suggests the possession of a possibly eternal soul.

In the beginning, there is no family in the Italian fishing village of Trezza so happy and prosperous as the Malavoglia, whose home is 'The House by the Medlar Tree.' There are old Padron 'Ntoni and his son Bastian, and his son's wife, La Longa, with five healthy children, and last, though not least, the *Provvidenza*, the oldest boat in the village and the luckiest. The Malavoglia are honest, industrious, pious, and much more addicted to minding their own business than are their neighbors. In every village you will find at least one family like that, and you will feel that on them the wind of Destiny ought always to blow kindly—but then you will also know that the wind of Destiny bloweth as it listeth, not as it should. In an evil day, to tide over a poor fishing time by a commercial venture, Padron 'Ntoni incurred a debt for a boat-load of lupins. The lupins were rotten, as that old rascal, Uncle Crucifix, well knew when he got them off his hands at a high price and then made a favor of not asking for all his money until Christmas. Trouble would doubtless have come out of the affair, even if the *Provvidenza* had got safely to Riposto, but, as it was, she ran ashore in the storm and night; Bastian was drowned, and 'Ntoni was left with the widow and children to care for, with the *Provvidenza* a battered wreck and that money for the lupins to be paid by Christmas. From that hour Misfortune marked the Malavoglia for her own. They fought a brave fight, but hopeless, oppressively hopeless; one wonders at their patient courage. Sometimes the cloud breaks, only to close again blacker and more threatening. When two of Bastian's children go to the bad, unable, poor things, to bear the endless toil and hardship and dreariness, then old 'Ntoni lies down to die, not having the consolation of knowing how soon his good grandson Alessio is to buy back the dear home by the medlar tree.

The sadness of the story—and what in life could be sadder?—is not mitigated by the manner of its telling. No story could owe more of its worth to the author and seem to owe less. As we read we are not conscious of an author, a person who has selected a scene and a group of people, then proceeded to arrange a number of events in which each shares, and to present all in orderly fashion with more or less regard for effect. For the time, we are actually in the village, an unseen and all-seeing guest, liking or disliking the people who live their lives and are themselves without any reference to us, laughing, gossiping, and wrangling with them, and with an ever-deepening sense of pain for the Malavoglia that barely stops short of heartbreak. For an example of realism in its widest and only true sense, a sincere rendering of reality that is lasting and universal, and of reality that is transient and local, we have nothing in English comparable with 'The House by the Medlar Tree.' In order to surrender one's self as unconditionally to fictitious illusion, one would indeed have to go back to the Vicar of Wakefield and his family and stay there, or make a great leap over time and space to Mr. Howe's 'Story of a Western Town.' Here, if ever, in this plain story of people, common, ignorant, and unambitious, is the good wine that needs no bush, and the utility of Mr. Howells's peremptory hands-up-stand-and-deliver introduction is not clear. All that he has to say is sympathetic and well said, but the very first paragraph excites hostility in the average human breast. Every reader has his prejudices, his preferences and dislikes; he is generally susceptible to gentle leading in the right direction, but he is not often tame enough to be dragooned into interest in this or that, not even if the penalty of obduracy be Mr. Howells's belief that he is a person not worth interesting. Signor Verga has been fortunate in his translator, who has done her work to perfection. For rendering atmosphere and impression she compares with that veteran translator, Clara Bell, and is the more exact of the two.

Mrs. Bell's translation of Pierre Loti's 'Rarahu' hardly gives us the indescribably sweet, melancholy sentiment of the original. The pretty Polynesian idyll is as sad as Verga's story, but the sadness is not in the facts, it is in the temperament through which Loti looks at the world and which tinges everything he sees. It is a poetic temperament, contemplative and sensuous, receiving complete impressions instantaneously, and uttering them in a vivid, penetrating, fragmentary way. In a dozen disconnected passages he conveys perfectly the exotic charm which the islands of the Southern Pacific have for the wandering European. One can hear the ceaseless roar of the ocean breaking on encircling coral reefs, and the sob of the perfumed winds in primeval forests. In the same detached, forceful fashion, we are made to realize the enchanting grace of the Tahitian girl, Rarahu, and the

squalid glitter of the Court of Queen Pomaré, in whose notions of Christianity there is an indissoluble union between the Bible and the pious game of écarté. The glimpses of the Queen provoke both smiles and tears—a reckless old savage squatting on a mat, dressed in a loose flowered yellow gown, smoking cigarettes, chaffing the officers of the ships; a sorrow-stricken old woman, fiercely guarding the waning life of her little granddaughter, the last representative of her royal line; a mistress of court revels, dressed in crimson velvet, sitting "motionless in her great gilt chair, like some gloomy and dissipated idol." The sketch of Rarahu's life after her first young lover, Loti, has sailed away, is cruelly conformable to the logic of circumstances. It is not easy to forget the picture of the young girl, wasted with consumption and debauchery, her ghastly face framed in a wreath of flowers, setting out alone to die in her native island of Bora-Bora, and dragging at her heels her forlorn old cat. The letters of Rarahu to Loti are like Oriental love-songs, a naïve declaration of profound passion revealed in exquisite imagery.

The second English translation of Loti's 'Iceland Fisherman,' the finished flower of his literary work, is better than the first, published about two years ago. The translator has reproduced the marked onomatopoetic quality of Loti's language with singular fidelity and skill.

The author of a 'South Sea Lover' has felt the spell to which Loti abandoned himself, but cannot make others feel it with such intensity. His descriptions are more formal, more conventionally literary, fated to be skipped for the narrative of Christian North's adventures on the Island of Omeo. The scene is laid in the [illegible] of the century, when white men [illegible] inhabited "desert islands" might either be worshipped as gods or incontinently butchered to make a Polynesian holiday. North is taken to Omeo by a chief's son, Soma, who adopts the fair-haired Saxon for his "blood-brother." This relation is considered very sacred, and makes obligatory on each many sacrifices, including that of life if necessary for the sake of the other. The plot turns on this compelling bond, and culminates with Soma's voluntary immolation in the lake of fire, which for ever seethes and glows on the summit of Monoriro. The action is thrilling and dramatic, carried on by a series of incidents picturesque in themselves, and told with considerable spirit. Soma is a combination of a Greek of the heroic ages and a mediæval knight. Study of savage or primitive races would not tend to confirm belief in his existence, but he is nevertheless a sympathetic and attractive figure in a romantic novel.

When a new country has produced a novelist who may stand without shame beside contemporaries of high rank in the old countries, it has filed a claim for consideration in the republic of letters. Australia, the country of golden sands, unlimited wool, and midsummer Christmas, has filed such a claim by presenting to the world Thomas Alexander Brown ("Rolf Boldrewood"), the author of 'The Miner's Right' and 'The Squatter's Dream.' His first novel, 'Robbery under Arms,' attracted much attention in England, and the two later works fully sustain the good reputation of the first. 'The Miner's Right' has the air of a much earlier production than 'The Squatter's Dream.' The plot is wild, rather formless, crowded with theatrical situations enacted by stagey people. This does not imply a charge of artificiality or deliberate sensationalism. In all stories of pioneer and miner's life, noticeably Bret Harte's, the stagey quality is pronounced, and there is no reason to doubt that it is a quality inseparable from that life and the adventurous, more or less Ishmaelitish, folk who make it. The book can be judged most fairly by dwelling on the multitude of separate scenes and character sketches rather than on the erratic construction, the ineffective grouping of the characters, and their highly melodramatic relations with each other.

'The Squatter's Dream,' on the contrary, is a thoroughly well-sustained study of one character and a continued narrative of his hopes, trials, failures, and achievements. Jack Redgrave is a young man who has to learn, through bitter experience, how wise a thing it is to let well enough alone. Having, while still young, arrived at the proprietorship of a moderately large cattle ranch, he becomes infected with the sheep-raising mania, takes to scorning modest comfort, and will be content with nothing except a great "run" and several thousand sheep, every one endowed by his imagination with a golden fleece. The novel is an exhaustive account of Redgrave's experiment, given very plainly, and exciting a great interest in the vicissitudes to which the ambitious sheep-farmer is exposed. Without any effort, the author arouses sympathy for his hero, and a feeling very close to personal distress when, in spite of all his pluck and persistency, he is obliged to accept ruin and to begin life again empty-handed. The accident which restores his fortunes is not out of the natural course of events in an imperfectly explored country. One noticeable difference between Boldrewood's pioneers, miners, and ranchmen and the same class of men in American fiction is, that the Australians do not all, irrespective of birth and previous condition, express themselves in corrupt and vulgar English, and that points in characterization are not made by the invention of linguistic eccentricity.

Great Britain's older colony, Canada, has produced no novelist comparable with Boldrewood. In the first half of the century, there was Judge Haliburton ("Sam Slick"), but he was a Nova Scotian, and would as soon have thought of calling himself a Yankee as a Canadian. Some few Canadians by birth have drifted to London or to the United States and achieved respectability in literature; but those who have stayed at home and attempted to delineate the life of their country have rarely even reached mediocrity. The Canadian author of 'Geoffrey Hampstead,' a story of society in Toronto, makes a distinct gain on his rivals in the field. The book is as readable as are the average English or American society novels, and rather more amusing, because the reader who is not Canadian must perceive plainly the limited worldliness of the provincial "highflyers" at fashion—a limitation of which they are supremely unconscious. The distinguishing provincial note is the prominence of the "bank clerk." The bank manager does not appear to be of any importance, but about the underling there is a mystical supremacy, and it almost seems that he is truly great in proportion to the smallness of his income, the narrowness of his prospects, and the largeness of his debts. Geoffrey Hampstead is the prince of bank clerks, and when we mention that he is introduced adding up three columns of figures at once, anything phenomenal may be expected of him. He is throughout an extravagantly picturesque person and the centre of a plot which towards the catastrophe becomes mysterious and exciting. The last half-dozen chapters are very well done; swift, concise, coherent, they show a decided ability for narration of improbable events, and serve to efface the memory of the pages of puerile talk and platitudinous reflection of which quite two-thirds of the preceding chapters are made up.

GOSSE'S NORTHERN STUDIES.

Northern Studies. By Edmund Gosse. London: Walter Scott; New York: Lovell.

Of the essays contained in this book, a late issue of the Camelot Series, all but one, the second on Henrik Ibsen, appeared originally in book form in 1879 as a part of a volume of 'Studies in the Literature of Northern Europe.' In the earlier book, besides the essays on subjects purely Scandinavian, some phases of Dutch and German literature were also considered. It is an indication of a literary tendency of the time, the direction of which, in England and America, Mr. Gosse has been, to no small degree, instrumental in shaping, that the second issue of these Northern essays is really of more moment than the first. A few years ago, matters literary in the three Scandinavian countries were subjects for investigation by the venturesome few, whose criticisms were then more often read for their own charm of expression than from any active interest in their subject. The reissue of the essays in the present book with the date of their original appearance calls to mind the fact that Mr. Gosse himself was one of these first navigators into almost unknown seas. Now, when many others have followed him, and all the world talks glibly of the things of which he, with no little intrepidity, wrote, it is a matter for curiosity, in not a few instances, to note how true was his early judgment. It is Gosse, indeed, in the essay on Henrik Ibsen published in 1873, who first introduces that writer to an English public, and there prophesies of certain of his dramas that, "sooner or later, they will win for their author the homage of Europe."

The essays, which, with the exception of one descriptive of the Lofoden Islands, off the coast of Norway, are all on literary subjects, concern the three northern lands, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. Under Sweden, Mr. Gosse writes a warmly appreciative essay on Runeberg, who, he thinks, in 'Fänrik Staals Sägner,' "has presented Swedish literature with the most intimate, glowing, and original poetical work that it possesses." Under Denmark, we are told, in what is in many ways the best essay in the book, of the Danish National Theatre, and of Four Danish Poets, Grundtvig, Bödtcher, Hans Christian Andersen, and Paludan-Müller. By far the greater popular interest, however, in the light of a certain timeliness that they may be said to possess, attaches to the three essays on Norway, Norwegian Poetry since 1814, and the two, written at an interval of sixteen years, on Henrik Ibsen. These three together are, no doubt, from the editor's point of view, the particular *raison d'être* of the present book. Where everything on Ibsen, the man and the book, is eagerly read by a host of ardent and impressionable worshippers, criticism from so well-known a critic as is Mr. Gosse will naturally and justly find an audience ready to receive it. It becomes, accordingly, a question of some little importance as to the attitude here assumed, and the judgment passed on one concerning whose work there has been expressed such a wide diversity of opinion.

The first essay in the book, on Norwegian Poetry since 1814, well and fittingly describes the environment, a knowledge of which neces-

sarily renders more intelligible the present position of literature in Norway, and gives it, as far as may be, a material justification. In spite of Mr. Gosse, the dictum that dates Norwegian literature from the new Norway of 1814 is scarcely to be described as arbitrary, and he himself afterward makes the point that the place of Holberg, Wessel, and the rest of the moderns who wrote before that date, is properly in Danish and not in Norwegian literature. The separation from Denmark in the year mentioned, and the proclamation, on the 17th of May, of Christian as King of Norway, most definitely mark the beginning of a new era, intellectual as well as political, for with the assertion of the new national life came also the unmistakable beginnings of a new national literature as a close concomitant. The poetry of the time, the *Syttendemai-Poesi*, or the poetry of the 17th of May, with its "froth and whirl," is interesting and valuable only as a literary phase. The first real poet of the period was Wergeland, born in 1808. Full of the patriotic enthusiasm of the *Syttendemai*, Wergeland quickly became the poet of the people, and this notwithstanding the fact that his verses were "brimful of tasteless affectations and outrages of rhythm as well as reason." Wergeland is greatest in his latest work. "No poet, save Shelley," says Mr. Gosse, "has decked the bare shell of politics with brighter wreaths than Wergeland." A conservative reaction against the "noisy mock-patriotism" of Wergeland's early period and its inartistic presentation, fortunately for the future of Norwegian poetry, was not long in coming. The leader of this movement, aptly called "the Critical," was Welhaven. Welhaven's first mark of attack was Wergeland himself, who, he writes, is "stained with all the deadly sins of poesy." Later, the controversy took on a national character, but the battle was ultimately to Welhaven and the Critical party. Welhaven's poetry, with the exception of the long polemical poem of "Norges Dæmring" (Norway's Twilight), consists wholly of short lyrics. But one poet of note, Andreas Munch, whose first important work, "Den Eensomme" (The Solitary), appeared in 1846, intervenes between the old political poetry and the new national school. Munch's poetry is characterized by beauty of form rather than by depth of thought. Two of his dramas, "Solomon de Caus" and "Lord William Russell," have attracted attention outside of Scandinavia. A few words will suffice to bring the history of Norwegian poetry, in the main lines of its development, down to the writers of the present day. Hitherto its impressions had been sought without, and although there had been much that was purely local in subject and sentiment, there had been, after all, but little in poetry or prose that was characteristically national. "For all their loud talk about patriotism," writes Mr. Gosse, "Wergeland and the rest had never thought of taking their inspiration from the deep well of national life around them, or from the wealth of old songs and sagas." The zoölogist Asbjörnson, by his collection of the folk-stories of Norway, published in collaboration with Jörgen Moe in 1841, was the pioneer to point out by suggestion the direction of the new literary movement. Moe (when he died, in 1822, Bishop of Christiansand) wrote some exquisite lyrics filled with the very essence of the North.

From the *Syttendemai-Poesi* down to Björnson and Ibsen, the Titans of the present, is a long stride in development, but Mr. Gosse's charming itinerary has made the way most intelligible. Both Björnson and Ibsen have found much, though not all, of their best and most enduring material at home, in their own national life. Of the two, Björnson's genius, like his literary pabulum, is the more Norwegian and less cosmopolite. With a warm heart of his own, he is infinitely nearer the heart of the people. His literary fame rests principally upon his peasant romances and the lyrics with which they are interspersed, and in them modern Norwegian literature has reached, if not its highest significance, indubitably its most beautiful and perfect fruition. As a dramatist, he is undeniably inferior to Ibsen, but Mr. Gosse, apparently, thinks much less of his power than a more extended criticism would warrant.

Ibsen is "the real founder of the Norwegian drama," as he is, thus far, its greatest exponent. In some respects he is one of the most notable figures in contemporary literature, at home or abroad. Björnson fits well into his environment. Ibsen, while he is not necessarily above it, is outside and beyond it. Had he written nothing but the early historical plays on Norse subjects and those incomparable works, 'Peer Gynt' and 'Brand,' he might still have been described as continuing on fairly well, in his distinctive way, the direction of the "Nationalists." It is, however, the later prose dramas that have made his name known throughout the literary world, not as a dramatist merely, but as a dramatic satirist, and in this field he stands absolutely alone in the North. He perpetuates the tendencies of no school, and it is safe to say he will found none. It was "Love's Comedy," a satirical play of contemporary life in verse (which dates from 1862 and not 1863), that first exhibits, in tone, if not in form, the especial bent of Ibsen's genius which, more than aught else, has made him known outside of Scandinavia—Mr. Gosse, however, in his later essay to the contrary, since he sees in the "Young Men's Union," which appeared in 1869, the first trace of the characteristics of the later social dramas. Several historical plays on subjects taken from Norwegian history had preceded it, and one, "The Pretenders," by common consent the most perfect from a dramatic point of view of all of Ibsen's writings, followed it two years later.

Ibsen's career hitherto had been varied. At sixteen he was an apothecary's clerk in the little town of Grimstad, near Skien, his native place. With a desire to study medicine, he prepared himself, in the next few years, for the requisite preliminary examination, which he passed when he was twenty-two. At this time, on the authority of Georg Brandes, in his 'Æsthetiske Studier,' "his circumstances were miserable; for a long time he had not even the means to eat regularly at midday. His youth was rigid and hard. He did not as a lad see life's bright side. His own life, not merely from within, but from without, has been a struggle." In 1851 Ibsen began to study at the University, where he fell in with a group of kindred spirits, among them Björnson. This same year, in collaboration with some of his friends, he published a weekly newspaper, which attained, however, but a short life. The succeeding year, Ibsen was made manager of the new theatre at Bergen, which post he held until 1857, when he became director of the National Theatre at Christiania. Five years later, the date of the appearance of "Love's Comedy," the theatre unfortunately became bankrupt. In 1864 Ibsen left Norway, and since then has lived in Rome, Dresden, and, later, in Munich. At home, according to the critic just quoted, Ibsen seems to have lived continuously on a war footing with his countrymen. After the appearance of the dramatic poem 'Brand,' published in Copenhagen while he was in Rome, the Norwegian Storthing, with a rare magnanimity, voted him an annual stipend. 'Peer Gynt,' a second dramatic poem, was the next work to appear, and with it, according to the verdict of Scandinavia, but not according to the verdict of Mr. Gosse, Ibsen really reached the highest literary altitude that he has attained. Mr. Gosse, indeed, in his first essay, written before the appearance of the seven prose dramas, with which the second essay is principally concerned, calls this his greatest work. Notably, too, it is the last work in verse. "De Unges Forbund" ("The Young Men's Union," or, as Mr. Archer has it in his translation, "The League of Youth"), a political comedy, and the formidable ten-act historical tragedy, "Emperor and Galilean," which alone intervene before the first of the modern social dramas, are both written in prose.

'Brand' and 'Peer Gynt' are satirical dramatic poems—they are not dramas—whose like is not to be found in the modern literature of any nation, so brilliant are they in expression, so caustic in their satire, so splendid in the strength of their invective. 'Brand' is, perhaps, a picture of the Norseman as he should be, earnest in purpose and virtuous beyond the suspicion of stain. 'Peer Gynt' is, as apparently, the Norseman as Ibsen conceives him often to be, selfish, mendacious, and cunning. In both there is the same bewildering exuberance in the use of language, of rhyme, and of rhythm; the same vigor and virility of idea and its presentation. They have had an amazing success in the North: the edition at hand (1885) of 'Brand' is the tenth, of 'Peer Gynt' (1886) the seventh; and in both cases there have doubtless since been others. Unfortunately, beyond isolated passages, neither has been translated into English.

Mr. Gosse, while he grants in his early essay all that has been said by way of praise of the work of this period of Ibsen's productivity, takes, in the light of the later prose dramas, an entirely different standpoint. What has gone before he relegates to comparative unimportance, and regards as Ibsen's particular claim to attention the prose social dramas, in the order of their production: "The Pillars of Society," "A Doll's House," "Ghosts," "An Enemy of the People," "The Wild Duck," "Rosmerholm," "The Lady from the Sea." What Ibsen has set out to do in this series of dramas is, according to Mr. Gosse, to make a diagnosis of the diseases of modern social life, not with a desire to reform society, but with the intention of accurately noting down the symptoms of the disorders under which he considers the modern world to be sinking. Mr Gosse, in short, sees in him, as he says, nothing of the missionary or the philanthropist, but evidently more of the skilled pathologist, although Ibsen differs vitally enough from the latter in that what he writes is polemic rather than descriptive, and is rather to be considered an indignant protest against the life of the present than a notation, however close, of its characteristics. A detailed analysis is given of the dramas, which is now doubly interesting since, with the single exception of "The Lady from the Sea," the entire series has become familiar through English translations.

Whatever be the ultimate outcome of the storm of controversy raised throughout the literary world by this astonishing series of plays, the general fairness of Mr. Gosse's position must be conceded. Ibsen, he admits, is not a poet to the taste of every one.

"Those," he concludes, "to whom the most modern spirit in literature is distasteful, who see nothing but the stitches of the canvas in

the vast pictures of Tolstoï, would reject Ibsen, or would hark back to his old sweet, flute-like lyrics. But others, who believe that literature is alive, and must progress over untrodden ground with unfamiliar steps, will recognize a singular greatness in this series of social dramas, and will not grudge a place for Henrik Ibsen among the foremost European writers of the nineteenth century."

Mr. Gosse is far too acute a critic to be easily misled; and even if there is a difference of opinion as to the relative value of the prose plays in making up an estimate of Ibsen's position in contemporary literature, he is unquestionably to be allotted, on the basis of the whole of his production, the distinguished rank that the critic would give him. If, in these essays on Ibsen, Mr. Gosse were to be charged with a fault, it would be for his optimism. It is in such essays as that on the Danish National Theatre, and others of the kind, that he is really at his best.

Poems, cited in the original in an appendix, have been translated from Wergeland, Moe, Björnson, Ibsen ("Love's Comedy," 'Brand,' 'Peer Gynt'), Arrebo, Runeberg, and Bödtcher. Several of these translations are remarkably felicitous, and notably enhance the value and vividness of the essays which they accompany. As a whole, the 'Northern Studies' is one of the most interesting volumes of literary comment devoted exclusively to Scandinavia that we have had in recent literature.

DEMBITZ'S KENTUCKY JURISPRUDENCE.

Kentucky Jurisprudence. By Lewis N. Dembitz of the Louisville Bar. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. 1890.

It might be supposed, to judge from the multitude of legal text-books, that a new subject was hardly to be discovered in this department of human labor. The author of this volume, however, has certainly hit upon an idea that is not only novel, but also likely to prove fruitful. The law of all our States, save Louisiana, being derived ultimately from a single source, is in substance identical, but differences in legislation and judicial decision have produced in it variations both numerous and extensive. There is occasion, therefore, for the comparative study of the jurisprudence of the United States, and Mr. Dembitz has inaugurated this s[illegible] with the volume now before us. His aim has [illegible] "to set forth those rules, sometimes forming a whole independent branch of the law, which, in the State of Kentucky, either through statute or judicial decision, have taken a different form as compared with rules followed in all or in many of the other States."

The development of Kentucky law has been in certain directions determined by that of Virginia. In 1776 the county of Fincastle, which included all the western lands of that State, was divided into three counties. One of these was named Kentucky, and became first the District, and in 1792 the State of that name. The treaty of peace with Great Britain, and the cession by Virginia, in 1784, of the territory northwest of the Ohio River to the United States, fixed the north side of that river as part of the northern boundary of that State, and thus it came about that Kentucky is sovereign over the river bed and all the river islands. All titles to land in Kentucky are derived either from that State or from Virginia. In 1776 the Revolutionary Convention of Virginia provided that no further purchases of land from the Indians should be made except upon behalf of the public by authority of the General Assembly. Prior to the separation of Kentucky most of the valuable lands contained within its borders had been disposed of by Virginia, either by land-warrants to the soldiers of the Revolution or to settlers and purchasers. By the "Compact with Virginia," enacted in 1789, it was settled that all rights in lands in the District of Kentucky existing at the time of the separation should be determined by the law as it then was. Hence the Kentucky conveyancer of to-day must be acquainted with the earlier law of Virginia. Owing to the variety of provisions for the acquisition and maintenance of titles, the whole subject has become excessively intricate and difficult. We can only say that Mr. Dembitz appears to have disentangled it in a masterly way.

For another reason the Kentucky practitioner requires to be familiar with Virginia law. That State adopted the common law as it existed in 1607, and the first Constitution of Kentucky declared that all laws at the time in force in Virginia, with immaterial exceptions, should continue in effect. But, as most of the English statutes modifying the common law were re-enacted in Virginia, the period of divergence was in effect postponed. When it arrived, however, it was emphasized, for in 1808 the Kentucky Legislature passed an act providing "That all reports and books containing adjudged cases in the Kingdom of Great Britain, which decisions have taken place since the 4th day of July, 1776, shall not be read nor considered as authority in any of the courts of this commonwealth, any usage or custom to the contrary notwithstanding." Under this act Mr. Clay was once prevented from reading from East's reports an opinion containing a summary of decisions to be found in older books that were clearly good authority. But the statute was soon disregarded by the courts and was eventually repealed. Kentucky reports, however, date back as far as those of New York, and antedate those of Georgia, Delaware, and Rhode Island by more than forty years. In the last-named State, when an official reporter was appointed, the judges told him that they proposed to give him no assistance in his work, and in Kentucky only such opinions are given out by the court as it considers to be of public interest. The manuscript opinions, however, were often hunted up by counsel, and the modern system of unofficial reports of course brings everything to light. As in other States, the earlier reports rank high—partly because judges were then appointed, not elected; partly because the cases were few, and, therefore, better considered, and partly because the difficulty of travelling threw the work of arguing appealed cases into the hands of a few eminent counsel.

Among constitutional provisions there is more in form than in substance that is peculiar, decisions being often influenced by the particular words employed. In the present Constitution we read: "That all freemen" (it is suggestive that the word "freemen" was substituted in 1850 for "men," which was used in the Constitution of 1792), "when they form a social compact, are equal, and that no man or set of men are entitled to exclusive separate public emoluments or privileges from the community but in consideration of public service." Many interesting questions have arisen concerning the meaning of the last phrase, especially in connection with exemptions from taxation and chartered privileges. A highly important political theory is contained in the assertion that "arbitrary power does not exist anywhere in a free government, . . . *not even in the greatest majority.*" This proposition is certainly unusual, and we should be glad to learn the circumstances under which it was adopted. Yet the courts of Kentucky have decided, with those of Kansas, and with the Supreme Court of the United States, that the practical confiscation of property devoted to the liquor traffic by a statute declaring that traffic a nuisance, is a proper exercise of the police power. On the other hand, the Kentucky courts have gone beyond those of other States in holding that arbitrary, unequal, and excessive taxation was a violation of the prohibition of taking private property for public use. Upon the whole, the judicial interpretation of constitutional law seems to have been enlightened and courageous, even in the days of the slave power.

Although Kentucky was undeniably a loyal State, the Court of Appeals held unanimously that the Legislature could not authorize towns to raise taxes and loans for the purpose of freeing themselves from the draft or to aid volunteers. It was pointed out, and we incline to think justly, that such laws did not operate to raise soldiers or to increase the military power of the Government, but to relieve persons liable to draft—that is, to enable some of those subject to military service to escape from it. The benefit, therefore, was not to the public, but to individuals. It can scarcely admit of question that the army of mercenaries raised by legislation of this kind was of comparatively little value and was very expensive.

It is impossible for us to undertake any detailed criticism of the peculiarities of private law in Kentucky, but we may set down a few of the points that we have noted, without any attempt at classification. A check drawn against a bank deposit is an absolute appropriation of its amount, and cannot be withdrawn by the maker. The Kentucky Statute of Frauds does not require a written memorandum of a sale of goods. The words of the statute, "No action shall be brought," etc., do not apply to defences to actions, and the term "signed" does not require a subscription. Purchase-money mortgages are practically unknown, their effect being secured by the application of the principle of the vendor's lien. No preferences are allowed in assignments by debtors. A peculiar rule has been applied in the distribution of partnership and individual assets between partnership and individual creditors. Relief is allowed for mistake of law. Promissory notes are not as a rule negotiable paper. The Statute of Charitable Uses has been held to be law in Kentucky, although the *cy près* doctrine is not recognized. Common carriers have not been allowed to contract themselves out of their common-law liabilities, and the principles of the Inter-State Commerce Act have been adopted by the Legislature. The liability of employers for injuries to their servants caused by the negligence of their fellows is greater than in most other States or in England before the recent statute. Suburban communities are not to be forced against their will to unite with cities. Women are allowed to vote on school taxes, if they own taxable property or have children of school age. But the common-law rule still applies to married women's property, with some statutory modifications.

We have been struck with but one serious omission in this most comprehensive treatise—a clear statement of the law of perpetuities. Apparently land may be rendered inalienable for the whole term allowed by the old English rule, during any number of lives in being and twenty-one years and ten months thereafter. This is far longer than is now practicable in England and in most of our States. Mr. Dembitz dislikes this conservatism, and declares that "the habit of 'settling' lands is far too

prevalent in Kentucky; it has ruined many young men in mind and body." We may add that this is one of the few instances where he offers an opinion of his own, although he is obviously extremely well qualified to discuss general jurisprudence. His work is marked by ability, industry, and scholarship of the highest order, and deserves the recognition of all lawyers who do not look upon their profession merely as a business.

The Gallant Lords of Bois-Doré. By George Sand. Translated by Steven Clovis. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Chouans. By Honoré de Balzac. Translated by George Saintsbury. Cassell Publishing Co.

THERE is a certain audacity shown in attempting to translate George Sand, because much of the delightfulness of her "profuse strains of unpremeditated art" lies in the charm of her graceful and vigorous style. But Steven Clovis has justified his (or her) audacity by very sufficient success. This rendering, excellent from its intelligence and simplicity, of 'The Gallant Lords of Bois-Doré' ought to find many grateful readers, for the story, of which the scene is laid at the beginning of the seventeenth century, is full of entertainment of the pleasantest kind; while for those who demand something besides entertainment, its lively and accurate pictures of by-gone things and conditions, modes of life, and modes of thought, offers them a royal road to learning. It is to be wished that the translator had exercised a little more thorough care. His work is so good that it might easily have been almost faultless. Two mistakes on p. 32 and one on p. 36 (vol. i.) are instances of the class of errors that he commits too frequently. "Persian shades" should be "chintz curtains"; "quilted silk" should be "raw silk" or "coarse silk"; and "tomber en quenouille" is not the "crumbling" of a fortune, but its passing into the hands of a female heir.

Mr. George Saintsbury, in translating 'The Chouans' of Balzac, had, from the inelegance of the style of the original, an easier, or at least a lower, task than the translator of George Sand, but he has not acquitted himself so well. He has not succeeded in attaining the faithfulness of rendering which he declares in his introduction to have been his ideal; and the difficulties which he had to contend with from his author's clumsy use of French are increased by his own clumsy use of English. When he writes of "the contingent extracted with great difficulty from the district of Fougères, and due by it in virtue of the levy which the executive Directory of the French Republic had ordered by virtue of the law of the tenth Messidor preceding," the vice of his "virtues" is in no wise derived from Balzac; and similar encumbrances strew his pages. A more serious sort of blundering is shown in his translation of "Recteur" by *Rector* (and also "Curé" by *Curate*), a translation which is hardly ever accurate, and which, if used here, should have been so only with a careful explanation, since in this story the title belongs to a certain class of revolutionary priests among the peasants of the Vendée—*Directors* they might be styled—in connection with whom the associations with the title Rector have an almost ludicrous effect. Mr. Saintsbury shows that he is not at home in the French language, though familiar with its literature, by a footnote on p. 19, where he sees a misprint in a phrase which is the same in every past edition of Balzac, and will be the same in every future one, and by which a Frenchman would not be for a moment perplexed.

But when all is said, it must be confessed that the interest of the story overmasters any stumbling in the speech, whether on the part of Mr. Saintsbury or of Balzac himself. This was the first of Balzac's successful works (he had been for ten years writing unsuccessful ones), and though he did not evince in this tale his full strength of peculiar power, no competent critic could doubt then, and still less now, that it is the work of a master. Its historic character and its imitation of Scott (but Balzac was a better and less romantic historian than Scott) set it apart from most of the other volumes of the "Comédie Humaine," and not less its agreeable lack of any need of expurgation. The scene opens the very year that Balzac himself was born, and one feels that if not an eye-witness, it is at least an ear-witness, who writes. He tells the story as it had been told to him by those who had taken part in the terrible struggle out of which he created his drama; and our sense of its reality is deepened by this impression.

The illustrations of this handsome volume do not—and how often is this the case!—illustrate it. It would almost seem as if the artist had not read the text. His representation of one of the most important and picturesque figures, Marche-à-Terre, is absurdly untrue; and the *things* seen, which Balzac, as always, describes with such extraordinary accuracy of detail that he almost provides an illustrator with "working plans," are drawn with foolish vagueness and meaninglessness.

Geschichte der Deutschen Verfassungsfrage während der Befreiungskriege und des Wiener Kongresses, 1812 bis 1815. Von Wilhelm Adolf Schmidt. Aus dessen Nachlass herausgegeben von Alfred Stern. Stuttgart: G. I. Goschen. 1890. 8vo, pp. iv, 498.

THE author of this work, and of two other works treating of Prussian history, died in 1887. The present book is said (by its preface) to have occupied his attention from about 1870. It is calculated to interest professional students of history rather than the general reader, consisting as it does mainly of an array of historical documents, some of which have not before appeared in print, and all of which are accompanied by a running commentary designed to elucidate their bearing on the topic in hand. Incidentally the author points out that where Treitschke differs from older authorities the latter are more nearly right than the former; and he makes out an apparently strong showing adverse to Treitschke's accuracy and trustworthiness in many details. There is nothing very surprising in this, as the Prussian historian passes for a thick-and-thin admirer and defender of the most arbitrary measures of Bismarck, and a Prussian Chauvinist of the most extreme type. It may be assumed that, for the period in question, readers of Seeley's 'Life of Stein' (which mainly follows Pertz and Häusser), get a more correct general view than they could obtain from the later and more pretentious writer.

The German confederacy established in 1815 never succeeded in giving satisfaction to any political party, and has been for many years a target for the contempt and obloquy of men of all shades of opinion. Its defects were not due, however, to any lack of deliberation or prudence in calling it into being, for its constitution was the subject of anxious thought to the greatest statesmen of a time that abounded in statesmen. The discussions and proposals which for three years engaged the close attention of men like Stein, Hardenberg, Wilhelm von Humboldt, and Metternich, to name only the greatest, are set forth with much detail in the work under consideration.

The great events which, in our time, have transmogrified Germany, have paled into insignificance the transactions of 1815; but while those transactions may be admitted to possess but a languid interest for the present generation, it may not be useless to note that however much the leading spirits of that day differed on other points, they agreed in taking it for granted, as a matter of course, that Germany without Austria, and, what is more, without Austria overshadowing all the other States, was not to be thought of. This assumption was shared in, not only by the Prussian ministers, but also by the Prussian monarchs even down to our own day. Even the old Emperor, William I., did not, until after the Schleswig-Holstein war of 1864, entirely shake off the hereditary sense of subordination to Austria. Bismarck was the first who dared to attack the venerable superstition. He it was who first was bold enough to conceive of Prussia at the head of a German union from which Austria should be excluded, for even Bismarck could not dream of Austria remaining in Germany if she had to play second fiddle to Prussia. Bismarck never shared in the romantic aspirations for the greatness and unity of Germany any more than Metternich did. Just as Metternich was a faithful servitor of the house of Hapsburg, and labored only to enhance the power of Austria, so Bismarck has been nothing more nor less than a retainer of the Hohenzollerns, and his only aim has been to aggrandize Prussia. If he contributed anything to the glory of Germany, it has been by way of incident.

With such a point of view Stein, although he, too, had been a Prussian minister, was never in sympathy. To him Germany represented an important factor in the European concert, and the interests of any particular dynasty or State were to be regarded as subsidiary to the welfare of the whole country. His somewhat hazy conception of a great and united Germany was shared in greater or less measure by the leading men of his time, and as it lacked a solid foundation in historical facts, the German constitution which emanated from it was never practically workable. Even the present constitution of Germany, consisting of twenty-six States, most of which are ridiculously small, can hardly be regarded as a finality. It would seem the inevitable destiny of such pocket-boroughs as Lippe and Waldeck and half-a-dozen more 12mo "States" to be swallowed up by Prussia. Those who believe that a republican form of government is likely to become prevalent in Europe will perhaps echo the famous aspiration of the Roman emperor, and wish that all of Germany may soon come under a single ruler, because it is easier to cut off a single head than twenty-six of them. The present German *Bund* offers no analogy to our Union. The old Teutonic tradition of local self-government from which our institutions and those of England received their original impulse, died out ages ago in Germany. The small German States support a number of small courts and petty princes, but have no self-government.

Recollections of a Private. A Story of the Army of the Potomac. By Warren Lee Goss. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

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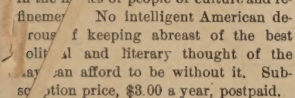

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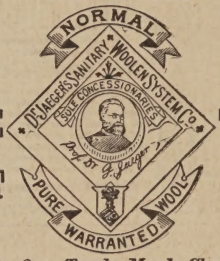

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